
Hasan Arslan
Carmen Sonia Duse
Mehmet Ali Icbay

Research on Education

IASSR
International Association of Social Science Research

Hasan Arslan
Department of Educational Administration
Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey

Carmen Sonia Duse
Faculty of Social and Human Sciences
Lucian Blaga University of Sibiu, Romania

Mehmet Ali Icbay
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey

ISBN: 978-83-948896-3-0

© E-BWN - Bialystok, Poland 2017

This work is subject to copyright. All rights are reserved by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed. Exempted from this legal reservation are brief excerpts in connection with reviews or scholarly analysis or material supplied specifically for the purpose of being entered and executed on a computer system, for exclusive use by the purchaser of the work. Duplication of this publication or parts thereof is permitted only under the provisions of the Copyright Law of the Publisher's location, in its current version, and permission for use must always be obtained from the Publisher. Violations are liable to prosecution under the respective Copyright Law. The use of general descriptive names, registered names, trademarks, service marks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant protective laws and regulations and therefore free for general use. While the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication, neither the authors nor the editors nor the publisher can accept any legal responsibility for any errors or omissions that may be made. The publisher makes no warranty, express or implied, with respect to the material contained herein.

This book is a publication of International Association of Social Science Research.

© 2012-2017 - <http://www.iassr.org>

Preface

Table of Contents

A. Educational Policy

<i>Nuray Tan Kılınç, Hasan Arslan</i> School Administrators' Self-Efficacy.....	9
<i>Giuseppe Luca De Luca Picione, Lucia Fortini, Emanuele Madonia</i> Europe of knowledge. Actors and contexts of lifelong learning policies in Italy and France.....	17
<i>Miray Doğan, Osman Ferda Beytekin</i> A Comparison of The Higher Education of Turkey and Canada	27
<i>Lucia Fortini</i> Educational institutions as agents to contrast the social inequalities	37
<i>Zeynep Gülşah Kani</i> Teaching at an internationalising UK university in the face of the marketisation of higher education.....	45
<i>Aysun Çalışkan, Chang Zhu</i> The Impact Of Bureaucratic Culture On Educational Innovations In Higher Education: Views Of Turkish Academicians	55
<i>Serap Özdemir, Nejat İra, Hasan Arslan, Aynur Geçer</i> Validity And Reliability Study Of The Scale Of Managerial Effectiveness	63
<i>Ismail Erol, Ismail Karsantik</i> The Management of Conflicts among Teams in the School and the Leader's Impact on the Conflict Process	73
<i>Muhammet Mustafa Bayraktar</i> Obsessive-Compulsive Symptoms In Youth And Its Relation With Religious Education	83
<i>Şekibe Tas, Osman Ferda Beytekin, Nuray Sungur Oakley</i> The Views of Secondary School Teachers Regarding Social Justice	95
<i>Ali Aksu</i> Adaptation of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire into Turkish	101
<i>Fatih Ferhat Çetinkaya</i> Organizational Cynicism and Burnout Relationship: A Case Study On The Employees Of Ahi Evran University Research And Education Hospital	109
<i>Güvenç Şar</i> Rhetoric and Memory Education	119

Ali Sönmez
Change In The Understanding Of Antiquities And Early Practices In The Ottoman State (1839-1868) 125

Erkan Kiral
Perfectionism and Locus of Control in Educational Administration 133

B. Teaching and Learning

Gülçin Güven, Elif Yılmaz, Kadriye Efe-Azkeskin, Türker Sezer
The relationship between emotion understanding skills of preschoolers and their mothers' parenting attitudes 141

Fatih Aydogdu, Figen Gursoy
An Analysis of Need Satisfaction Levels of Children Staying in the Children's Home 151

Zeynep Akin-Demircan
Implementing a Program Based on Integrated Education Approach in Teacher Education 159

Esra Asici, Fatma Ebru İkiz
Role of Interpersonal Competence in Predicting Psychological Well-Being 165

Süleyman Göksoy
Burnout Levels of Teachers in Primary Schools with Multigrade Classes 175

Cevdet Yılmaz
EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs toward classroom management style: The case of gender and grade level 185

Adil Çoruk, Burcu Bilir, Şefika Melike Çağatay
Opinions of the Advisors towards the Counseling Process in the Post-graduate Education 193

Jale İpek, Duygu Vargör Vural
Teaching Mathematics And Material Development Process For Total Blind And Visually Impaired Students 201

Fatma Lorcu, Tülay Demiralay
ICT, Health and Education Spiral 209

Bilgen Kiral, Bertan Akyol
The Views of Classroom Teachers for Qualified Teacher 219

Süleyman Göksoy
Management Approaches Affectional to School and Classroom 229

Zafer Tural
An Analysis Of The Sight-Reading Problems In Piano Instruction Experienced By Students In The Music Teaching Program Of An Education Faculty 239

Deniz Beste Çevik Kiliç
Music Pedagogy Undergraduate Students' Expectations from Piano Instruction 247

<i>Uğur Koyuncu, Mustafa Aydın Başar, Fatma Arik Çolakoğlu</i> The Suitability Of School Environments For Disabled Students' Education.....	253
<i>Munever Olcum Cetin, Ismail Erol, Pelin Karaduman</i> The Opinions Of School Administrators On The Teacher Performance Evaluation	261
<i>Mustafa Turkyilmaz</i> The Investigation About Reading Fluency Skill Of Secondary School Students	271
<i>Neriman Aral, Figen Gürsoy, Burçin Aysu, Ece Özdoğan Özbal</i> An Investigation Of Children's Opinions On Games and Play Areas	281
<i>Deniz Beste Çevik Kiliç</i> An Analysis of Pre-Service Music Teachers' Repertory Acquisitions in Piano Instruction.....	289
<i>Özlem Yeşim Özbek, Pervin Oya Taneri</i> Candidate Teachers' Democratic Attitudes and their Democratic Participation Level	295
<i>Ismail Erol, Ismail Karsantik</i> Investigation of Teacher Opinions on Crisis Management in Primary and Secondary Schools.....	303
<i>Kadir Kasalak</i> Main Factors in History Teaching	311
<i>Nermin Bulunuz, Mızrap Bulunuz</i> Noise Pollution in School and Evaluation of its Control Through Educational Practices	319
<i>Abdullah Kaldırım, Omer Faruk Tavsanlı, Muhammet Rasit Memis</i> Going out of the Borders: Reading Habits, Interests and Tendencies of Students Living in Villages .	329
<i>Tuba Şahin Ören, Yakın Ekin, Veli Erdiñç Ören</i> The attitudes of instructors towards innovation in gastronomy education: The example of Turkey	339
<i>Neriman Aral, Ayten Doğan Keskin</i> The Acquisition of Healthy Life Behaviors to Children	347
<i>Bilgen Kırıl, Bertan Akyol</i> The Views of Classroom Teachers for Qualified Teacher	353
C. Higher Education and Educational Technology	
<i>Mehmet Ulutaş, Hasan Arslan</i> Relationship Between Informatics Leadership, Learning Organization, and University Culture in Higher Education	363
<i>Christian Ruggiero, Francesca Rossetti, Daniele Del Gaudio, Andrea Rocchi</i> Education and Technology for a Sustainable Future	381
<i>Şenel Gerçek</i> Selection Strategies Used by University Students While Summarizing a Fictional Text.....	389

<i>Gonul Altay, Jale Ipek</i> Evaluation Of Creative Problem Solving Procedure By Cooperative Method Of Basic Electronics And Measurement Course.....	399
<i>Derya Elmali Şen, Fatih Yazici, Evşen Yetim</i> Privacy Perception of University Students	407
<i>Turgut Fatih Kasalak</i> University Students' Attitude toward Informatics Technologies in Informatics Education	415
<i>Merve Yolal</i> Sensory Order And Market Order By Hayek's Philosophy	423
<i>İsmet Koç, Ahmet Delil, Okay Işlak, Ali Murat Ateş</i> University Life Adaptation of Rural Vocational School Students: Manisa Köprübaşı Case	431
--(ilave makaleler altta) <i>Ali Sönmez</i> Schliemann's Smuggling Treasures Of Troy According To Ottoman Sources.....	437
<i>Cahide Sınmaz Sönmez</i> The Visits of the Female Members of the Ottoman Dynasty to Turkey During the Presidency of İsmet İnönü	445

School Administrators' Self-Efficacy

Nuray Tan Kılınc, Hasan Arslan

1. Introduction

People come across a large number of problems, decisions, and challenges in their lives. Some of them are able to solve problems effectively, make decisions on critic times and easily come over the challenges. Self- efficacy plays an important role in their lives to face all of the situation. It is sometimes refers to someone's general sense of competence and effectiveness (Smith, 1989).

Self-efficacy is "people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives" (Bandura, 1989, p.1175). Self- efficacy refers to "an individual's belief in his/her capacity to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1995, p.3). Self-efficacy reflects confidence in the ability to exert control over one's own motivation, behavior, and social environment. "Beliefs about personal efficacy play a major role in the process of behavior change from beginning to end" (Maddux and Lewis, 1995, p.48). Self-efficacy beliefs influence "psychological adjustment trough their impact on goal setting and persistence, cognitive efficiency, and emotional adaptiveness"(Maddux and Lewis 1995. p.43). These three pathways of influence operate at times with relative independence. In many studies it is shown that the more self efficacy people have, the better communication they have between the people (Luszczynska, Gutierrez-Dona and Schwarzer, 2005) and these kind of people can easily cope with the difficulties (Gist and Mitchell, 1987).

In self-efficacy theory, there are six determinants of self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura,1977) includes;

Performance experiences: Direct performance experiences potentially have the gratest impact on self efficacy percetions, because firsthand successes and failures convey highly vivid and self-relevant information about what one can do .

Vicarious experiences: People's self-efficacy can be influenced powerfully by observing others (Williams,1995).

Imaginal experiences: When models are unavaible or impractical, imagining oneself or others engaging in feared behaviours or overcoming difficulties can be used to enhance self-efficacy and motivation and facilitate effective coping (Cervone, 1989).

Verbal persuasion: People can sometimes be led to a stronger belief in their own capabilities by persuasory dialogue.

Physiological states: Physiological responses provide another source of efficacy information. People can interpret perceived autonomic arousal as a sign of impending inability to cope, or lack of arousal as a sign that they can handle the situation.

Emotional states: People partly judge their self efficacy by their subjective states of feeling and mood (Williams,1995).

2. Purpose

The main aim of this study is to explore the School Administrators' Perception of Self-efficacy according to teachers. To Reach this goal the following questions were posed/raised:

2.1 What is the level of school administrators' perception of self-efficacy?

2.2 Does the school administrators' perception of self- efficacy differ according to teachers' gender, years of teaching experience, educational background, the school where they work, school type and administration experience?

2.3 Is there a significant difference of the administrators' perception of self- efficacy according to the common factor of teachers' years of teaching experience and the school the work?

3. Method

The study adopted a quantitative research and a survey method. The study was applied to teachers working at 12 schools at the city center of the Çanakkale province of Turkey.

3.1 Participants

The participants of the study were composed of 349 teachers (4 primary, 4 secondary, and 4 high schools) in 2016-2017 academic years. Participants were chosen randomly from Çanakkale public schools. General details about the participants are presented in the Table 1.

Table 1.

Demographic Information	N	N	N	N	N
Gender	Female	Male	Total		
	203	146	349		
Years of experience	1-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	21-+years
	10	31	68	91	149
Education Background	Associate Degree	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree	Doktoral Degree	
	23	284	39	3	
School	Primary	Secondary	High School		
	103	120	126		
High School Types	Anatolian	A. Vocational	Social Science	Science	
	39	40	20	26	
Administration Experience	Yes	No			
	102	246			
Duration of Administration Experience	1-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	21-+ years
	68	25	8	2	6

3.2 Data Collection

The data were gathered through a survey of self-efficacy by Sherer (1982). The data were analyzed using SPSS 21 software package with Independent Samples T-test, One-Way Anova and Two-Way Anova.

School Administrators' Self-Efficacy

4. Findings

Table 2. Levels of school administrators' self-efficacy

SCHOOLS	\bar{X}
PRIMARY	3.83
SECONDARY	3.83
HIGH SCHOOL	3.72

As can be observed in Table 2, the mean of primary schools' and secondary schools' administrators' perception of self-efficacy is $\bar{X}=3.83$, and high schools' administrators' perception of self-efficacy is $\bar{X}=3.72$.

Table 3. Self-Efficacy according to teachers' gender

Gender		N	\bar{X}	S.s	t	p
Self-Efficacy	Female	203	3.89	.64	2.287	.023
	Male	146	3.73	.69		

As can be observed in Table 3, there is a significant difference between female and male teachers ($t_{347}=2.287$, $p=.023<.05$) about their school administrators' perception of self-efficacy.

Table 4. Self-efficacy according to teachers' years of teaching experience

Years	n	\bar{X}	S.s.	sd	F	p
1- 5 years	10	4.14	.53	4/344	1.782	.132
6-10 years	31	3.70	.49			
11-15 years	68	3.90	.85			
16-20 years	91	3.90	.55			
21- + years	149	3.75	.67			
Total :	349	3.82	.67			

As can be observed in Table 4, there is no significant difference between the teachers according to the years of teaching experience ($F_{344}=1.782$. $p=.132>.05$).

Table 5. Self-efficacy according to teachers' education background

	Education Background	n	\bar{X}	S.s.	sd	F	p
Self-Efficacy	Associate Degree	23	3.78	.50	3/345	.656	.580
	Bachelor's Degree	284	3.85	.68			
	Master's Degree	39	3.69	.69			
	Doktoral Degree	3	3.75	.54			
	Total:	349	3.82	.67			

As can be observed in Table 5, there is no significant difference between the teachers according to the teachers' education background ($F_{345}=.656$. $p=.580>.05$).

Table 6. Self-efficacy according to the school where they work

	The Schools	n	\bar{X}	S.s.	sd	F	p
Self-Efficacy	Primary	103	3.88	.67	2/346	2.221	.110
	Secondary	120	3.89	.50			
	HighSchool	126	3.72	.74			
	Total:	349	3.82	.74			

As can be observed in Table 6, there is no significant difference between the teachers according to the schools where they work ($F_{346}=2.221$. $p=.110>.05$).

Table 7. Self-efficacy according to the school type

	Type of High School	n	\bar{X}	S.s	sd	F	p	Significant Difference
Self-efficacy	Anatolian	39	3.83	.44	3/121	4.007	.009	A.H.S. A.V.H.S. S.H.S. A.V.H.S
	Vocational	40	3.53	.45				
	Social Science	20	3.65	.56				
	Science	26	3.90	.52				
	Total	125	3.72	.50				

As can be observed in Table 7, there is a significant difference between the teachers work in Anatolian High School, Social High School and Anatolian Vocational High School ($F_{121}=4.007$. $p=.009<.05$).

School Administrators' Self-Efficacy

Table 8. Self-efficacy according to teachers' administration experience

	Administration Experience	N	\bar{X}	S.s	t	p
Self-Efficacy	Yes	102	3.74	.76	-1.503	.134
	No	246	3.86	.62		

As can be observed in Table 8, there is no significant difference between the teachers according to the administration experience.

Table 9. Self-efficacy according to teachers' duration of administration experience

	Duration	n	\bar{X}	S.s.	sd	F	p	Significant Difference
Self-efficacy	1- 5	68	3.83	.84	4/100	.776	.543	---
	6-10	25	3.63	.54				
	11-15	8	3.79	.75				
	16-20	2	3.20	.17				
	21- +	6	3.50	.56				
	Total:	105	3.75	.75				

As can be observed in Table 9, there is no significant difference between the teachers according to the the duration administration experience ($F_{100}=776$. $p=.543>.05$)..

Table 10. Self-efficacy according to the common factor of teachers' years of teaching experience and the school they work

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean of squares	F	p	η^2
Years of teaching Experience	2.089	4	.522	1.165	.326	.014
The school they work	.722	2	.361	.806	.448	.005
Years*School	1.832	8	.229	.511	.848	.012
Error	149.718	334	.448			

As can be observed in Table 10, there is no significant difference between the teachers according to the years of teaching experience ($F_{334}=1.165$, $p=.326$, $p>.05$), and no significant difference between the teachers according to the schools they work ($F_{334}=.806$, $p=.448$, $p>.05$), and lastly, it is clear that there is no significant difference between the teachers according to the common factor of teachers' years of teaching experience and the school they work ($F_{334}=.511$, $p=.848$, $p>.05$).

5. Conclusion, Discussion and Suggestions

5.1 Conclusion and Discussion

Results based on the research findings may be summarised as follows;

- As mentioned before, the performance means for primary and secondary schools are found to be equal, however for high schools this mean is lower. The teachers working in primary and secondary schools think that the administrators have the perception of self-efficacy, the mean is $X=3.83$. The results are only just above average. It means they can only administer the existing situation. If it is taken into consideration, to administer an organization in an effective way, the administrator should have the leadership features which means a good level of self-efficacy. Even it is $X=3.72$ in high schools.
- The results of the research show that gender is critical for determining the self-efficacy. It is seen that female teachers think more than male teachers do and that the administrators have perception of self-efficacy. The relation between female and male can be an effective on thoughts. The female teachers may get on well the administrators.
- According to the results of the research the years of teaching experience, the teachers' education background, the schools where they work, working as an administration before and the duration of administration experience, are not a critical for determining the perception of the administrators' self-efficacy. The teachers, have been working from one year to 21 years and more years of experience, from associate degree to doctoral degree, working from primary to high school, have administration experience or not think in a similar manner about their administrators' perception of self-efficacy.
- The results of the study show that there is a significant difference between the teachers work in Anatolian High School, Social High School and Anatolian Vocational High School. The

School Administrators' Self-Efficacy

syllabuses are different in Anatolian High School, Social High School from Anatolian Vocational High School. Also the teachers' branches are different in Anatolian Vocational High School include generally vocational subjects. That can be a reason to think different about the administrators' perception of self-efficacy. They may see the administrators less capable of the vocational items.

- As it is seen above, there is no significant difference between the common factor of teachers' years of teaching experience and the school they work. It is not a critical for determining the perception of the administrators' self-efficacy.

5.2 Suggestions

Suggestions based on the research findings and results obtained are listed below;

- Considering the responsibilities that administrators are supposed to be, when administrators are assigned, they can take the responsibility of making their own self-efficacy.
- Administrators assigned to job better should have high self-efficacy.
- Administrators with more self-efficacy contribute more to good management, better organization, solving problems, etc.
- Organizations should achieve aims set through administrators, have high self efficacy, working together in harmony and teams.

6. References

- Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist*, 44, 1175-1184.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-Efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215
- Bandura, A. (1995). *Self-Efficacy in Changing Societies*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-Efficacy The Exercise of Control*. New York: Freeman.
- Cervone, D., (1989). Effects of envisioning future activities on self-efficacy judgements and motivation: An availability heuristic interpretation. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 13, 246-261.
- Gist, M. E., and Mitchell, T. (1987). Self-efficacy: Implications for organizational behaviour and human resource management. *Academy of Management Review*, 12, 472-485.
- Luszczynska, A., Gutierrez-Dona, B., and Schwarzer, R. (2005). General self-efficacy in various domains of human functioning: Evidence from five countries. *International Journal of Psychology*, 40(2), 80-89.
- Maddux, J. E. (1995). Self-Efficacy theory: An introduction. In: Maddux, J.E. (Ed.), *Self-Efficacy, adaptation, and adjustment: Theory, research, and application* (p. 3-33). New York: Plenum.
- Maddux, J. E. and Lewis J. (1995). *Self-efficacy, Adaptation, and Adjustment: Theory, Research, and Application*, edited by James E. Maddux. Plenum Press, New York, 1995.
- Smith, R. E. (1989). Effects of coping skills training on generalized self-efficacy and locus of control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56, 228-223.
- Williams, S. L., (1995). *Self-efficacy, Adaptation, and Adjustment: Theory, Research, and Application*, edited by James E. Maddux. Plenum Press, New York, 1995.

Europe of knowledge. Actors and contexts of lifelong learning policies in Italy and France.

Giuseppe Luca De Luca Picione, Lucia Fortini, Emanuele Madonia

1. Introduction

The emphasis of the new spirit of capitalism about “employability” has affected the European educational policies of the last decades (Boltanski & Chiapello, 2005). In particular, at Community level, the rhetoric of lifelong learning has always been linked to a strong neo-liberal mindset, emphasizing the presence of both winners and losers as the inevitable result of a changing economy (Holford, 2008). Moreover, globalization process has caused a fracture between the social system and the actors. Given these premises, how is it possible to re-think Adult Education policies aimed at people in need, especially immigrant people that is one of the main educational target in Europe?

In Europe (Bengston, 2012; Verdier, 2013; Milana, 2015; Volles, 2016) and in Italy (Landri, 2012; Alberici & Di Rienzo 2014; De Luca Picione, 2015), the large variety of studies and experimentation about adult learning highlights the gap between market requests (focused on competition and flexibility), and the capacity of the socio-economic system to ensure people’s rights and needs, two essential prerequisites for democracy and equity (Zarifis & Gravani 2014). The attainment of some opposite goals, the decrease in number of interventions and the needs of shared tools are some indicators of the challenges that must be overcome. In this regard, a new monitoring system, which gives us a more articulated reading of reality and a reliable evaluations of policies and practices (Milana & Holford, 2014), and the development of models which are able to understand the trajectories of social exclusion, giving the right consideration to “learner’s voices” (Formenti & Castiglioni 2014). How is the educational system responding to the new social protection needs that emerge as a consequence of the financial crisis? Following the new focus placed on building the human capital as a social investment, school might be one of the pillars of the welfare state despite its structural dysfunctions (Colombo, 2015).

Within a political agenda strongly oriented to conceive a new strategic vision for the realization of welfare measures, lifelong learning is actually the focus of the new social policies (Griffin, 2002). In this sense, if learnfare is the promotion of skills through lifelong learning (De Luca Picione, 2015), a reform of the educational system, concerning the whole period of formal studies (from the first years of school to the higher education experiences and lifelong training), is of primary importance (Giddens, 2014). How to rethink the policies of Adult education in the XXI century in the different national contexts? (Milana, 2017).

The study that is presented here is the result of a substantive curiosity about the mechanisms and processes that have guided the institutions, in Italy and France, toward the establishment of a national system of adult education in a lifelong learning perspective. This research also tries to emphasize the role of various actors in different local contexts in which policies are implemented.

2. Method

“High modernity lied on the central role of the national state of law that associates capitalist rationalism and bourgeois individualism. It subordinated social reality, manifold and different, to the unity of politics and law. This structure collapses, and nothing holds economic activity and personal and collective identity together” (Touraine, 1997, 165). These identities are shaped by individual choices “that can be seen several times during one’s life, and that may lead the subject to face resocialization processes in his adulthood and thus renegotiating roles and relationships” (Bichi, 2000, 10). For this reason, biographic methods gain a large use inside the narrative oriented evaluation about lifelong learning policies (Formenti & West, 2016).

What kind of education provided (type of courses, educational methodology) can develop social and cultural integration of immigrants and produce a real chance of educational success (that even today is expressed in school grades and not in certification of competences)? How is it possible to modify

adult education policies on *lifelong learning* planning? To formulate the first hypotheses consolidated in the social research methods: can an “empirical tool” for understanding the policy of interventions, bridge the gap between institutional evaluation and evaluation research? Can it be done at the same time of the real evaluation research that must include the actors involved in the plan in a participatory way (Palumbo & Torrigiani, 2009)?

From an operational point of view, an exploratory investigation on the field has started to identify the “social base” of immigrant population participating in the adult education programs. The discussion about data and information production is the very center of the scientific debate, especially in the methodological scope. The actors of the policies of welfare themselves are interested in the accuracy of the data. In the case of the “community of practice” (Wenger 1998), constituted by researchers, teachers of the courses and public decision makers, this issue is of staple importance since the designed phase of the evaluation research has been set the attention to the building of a solid informational base.

Taking the concept of “translation” of the Actor Network Theory (Callon & Law, 1986) we could interpret the process of establishing the Adult education system by local governments in a dynamic perspective, as a transition process of regulatory changes starting from the general guidelines given by the central government until the construction of networks across the country.

3. Findings

Adult education system in Italy

The change of paradigm involved in the transition from Adult education to lifelong learning involves the historical perspective and the institutional dimension within which interventions and policy targeting are located (De Luca Picione, 2010). In Italy in the early sixties, in full economic boom, the ambition of developing communities capable of facing the challenges of industrialization through social inclusion policies was very strong. To complete the path of school reform, the so-called “150-hour Courses” were set up in the new “unified” Middle School. These courses were meant to guarantee the “right to study” to adult workers who could benefit of a paid work permit (Capecchi, 1973). Subsequently these courses were extended to unemployed, housewives, drop outs and feminist movements (Balbo, 2008), alongside with “evening classes” for the graduation.

With the Maastricht Treaty, during the 90’s, in an attempt to adapt the education system to community standards, the Permanent Territorial Centers for education in the adulthood (CTP) were created. These Centers were designed as places for reading needs, planning, conciliation, activation and governance of adult education and training initiatives. The main purpose were collecting and disseminating documentation, coordinating education and training offers programmed on the territory, organized both vertically, in the school system, and horizontally, with other training agencies, to provide an adequate response to the demand from both the individual and the institutions and the world of work. It is the initial part of a national lifelong learning system that gives value to the role of human capital for development (TREELLLE, 2010). This process is framed within the background of the State-Regions Agreement with which local authorities are called upon to develop maximum integration of interventions, involving all stakeholders on the territory. In this system, the decisions regarding adult education policies are assigned to the State, and the decisions regarding professional training are assigned to Regions, thus creating a “gray zone” (Landri, 2010).

Currently, the institutional dimension and the goals of lifelong learning policies have the new feature of the Provincial Centres for Adult Education (CPIA), which are intended as a link between the education system – entrusted to the state – and the training system – entrusted to the Regions. CPIAs were set up in Piedmont, Lombardy, Veneto, Emilia Romagna, Tuscany, Lazio, Campania, Apulia and Sicily, underlining the strong role of local authorities called to make available educational facilities specifically dedicated to adult education, and to make a revision of their bureaucracies with the purpose of promoting employment and regional development.

The activation of some “nationally assisted” projects allowed the creation, in 2014, of the first 54 CPIAs distributed in 8 regions and, in 2015, the establishment of 126 CPIAs throughout the country.

The implementation of these Centers is an opportunity for all the actors involved, called to promote learning and knowledge as a premise for a truly democratic society. The true intention is not to call the old Evening Courses in a different way, but to experience a different model of governance through these new structures in order to integrate the services on the territory that so far have been fragmented between different subjects. These new Centers must be a stable institutional point of reference for a particularly heterogeneous adult audience, which differs by age and geographical origin, considered at risk of social exclusion, such as, for example, immigrant population. Moreover, they propose parallel actions for teaching methodologies and the definition of agreements for the construction of territorial service networks. How are educational institutions responding to the new social protection demands emerging because of the economic crisis? Who are the users who attend CPIAs? How is it possible to structure, in different local contexts, an adult education system in order to offset the profound social inequalities?

Adult education system in France

In 1971 after a passionate confrontation involving government institutions, association and the intellectual environment with the presentation of Delors Law an epochal change was made in the vision of educational process itself by the French public institution, placing it in the wider and more complex European context. Delors Law was intended to protect the most vulnerable segments of the world of work (women, poorly qualified young people, old employees). It identifies the adult education and professional training as a public priority involving national community in the working and social environment. The State have the task to manage lifelong education plan that must be implemented on an executive level by the territorial school institution and by the companies.

According to theoretical requirement of Delors, education have three main purpose: *correction* (correction), *complément* (increase) and *rattrapage* (recovery). Correction concerns the reorientation of workers considering economic and technological changes or individual wishes to develop; increase is the most specific training after general education; recovery is the many opportunities open to the individual to increase their cultural and professional (vocational) level. Then this compensation was translated into the concept of second chance. The combination of these three elements is a cultural and institutional turning point not only for French territory, in fact it is set to expand throughout the European area, also thanks to the political role played by the French politician in European Commission.

Even though the methodological and programmatic issues have been left unresolved, the Delors Law is still the indispensable reference for all the normative advances in lifelong learning in France. Already in 1974, soon after the approval of the law on vocational training, the first GRETA (*Groupements d'établissements*, groups of institute) rose: they are adult education public centers, composed of school institution (mostly *collèges* and *licées*), that gather their own human and material resources to achieve the maximization of cultural and educational goals.

In France, the Minister of French National Education faces the economic and social challenges by promoting the development of qualification and skills of each citizen in close collaboration with local authorities. Pursuant to Article L. 423-1 of the Education Code, local public education institutions combine into consortium of institutions to manage adult education activities (circular 009 of 2014/04/02). The rules of operation and governance of GRETA are based on a new connection between the public interest group, the lifelong learning system, the vocational integration system, other school and political institution to develop territorial collaboration at the academic structure that oversees the process.

The norms allowed universities and other higher education institution to gain degrees with other ways than training or learning. The recognition process of individual skills follows a very accurate way: in most cases, the candidate must complete a dossier detailing his professional experiences and skills. Then he submits his application to a committee that decides to validate all or just a part of the wanted degree. In case of partial validation of the achievement, the candidate is offered opportunity to attain the requirements for completing the full diploma. In higher education, degree validation

existed before the introduction of VAE. Still today, anyone can validate his or her professional and personal experience to get an education degree without having the required access qualification.

Empirical research

How much are the institutions, involved in implementing new lifelong learning policies, willing to learn from experience and outcomes? What was the “conscious” interaction between the various actors in the local sub-systems (that make up the public sphere) to which decisions on starting CPIAs have been referred? In order to formulate the first hypothesis, social research can become an “empirical tool” for understanding policy interventions (De Luca Picione, 2014), a prerequisite for the evaluation process that must necessarily include the actors involved in the action (Palumbo & Torrigiani, 2009). These are the premises of the case study that is presented here, relating to the “Ten Steps to CPIAs” project experimentation in Campania and to the path leading to the establishment of CPIAs.

In the first step, the General Directorate of the Regional School Office of Campania had to identify the institutes that formed the territorial service network for the project. They were the Centre placed in “Falcone School” in Pomigliano d'Arco, the Centre placed in “Berlinguer School” in Naples (with its detention center), the Centre placed in “Bordiga School” in Naples, the Centre placed in “Levi School” in Naples (with its detention center), the Evening Course at “Archimede School” in Naples, the Evening Course at “Europa School” in Pomigliano d'Arco. The choice was made with some specific criteria, starting with the presence of an operating network, created at least five years before, including a large number of CTPs, Evening Courses and Prison Schools of the same province, with a users' number at least of 400 “scrutinized” adults. Further requirements were: the past experience in the administrative management of a network among different institutional actors, the ability to innovate adult education through participation in European *lifelong learning* actions, a good level of interaction with existing local bodies and associations, aimed to participation in integrated projects and the conclusion of program agreements, memoranda of agreement and conventions. Last but not least, the possession of the necessary *know how* to organize an “assisted project”, from resources for managing various actions, to training/information initiatives, up to the monitoring.

School managers of the involved institutes have signed the Network Agreement for the implementation of the assisted project, identifying as the leader of CPIA of Naples the “Berlinguer School”, thus constituting the Conference of Managers, the Network Council and the Network Board as the management and operation bodies.

The new Centers, proposing themselves as a stable institutional point of reference to a particularly heterogeneous adult audience (many immigrants have been participating in lifelong learning activities in recent years), often at risk of social exclusion, have planned two parallel actions. The first one has been addressed to didactic methodologies (taking care of the specificities of prison education), the second one aimed at the definition of agreements for the construction of a “territorial service network”. Gradually, during 2014, flexibility tools for welcome and counseling, credit validation and personalization of study paths have been experimented, activating the new approaches to first level courses, literacy courses and Italian language learning, and second level paths.

During the implementation of the assisted project, the operators found some strengths and inevitable criticalities, because of the tight pace required by the implementation of these innovations. Among the positive elements, the presence of a Team composed exclusively of teachers who have been active for years in the field of adult education, with strong motivation and common goals, working methods and specific languages. This knowledge allowed the data sharing, among colleagues from different schools and territories, of past experience and good practices, and the collective construction of specific teaching procedures and tools (from the methodological path to the Individual Training Pact for Learning Units, to the *e-learning* experiences).

Some of the problems encountered were the delayed start of the assisted project at the beginning of the school year and the lack of specific financial resources to be assigned to the project. The latter problem did not allow the constitution of a more adequate balance of the workload since no new collaborators could be employed. This difficulty was ultimately overcome thanks to school workers

and teachers, who decided to do what had to be done without any economic incentive even providing the necessary instrumental features that some of the Centres and Evening Courses needed. There was a lack of literacy teachers in relation to the high number of foreign adults and Italian students with clear signs of “relapse into illiteracy” and it was often difficult for the teachers of the Evening Courses, also engaged in the morning shift, to attend to the Network Council.

Along with the obvious results achieved by the experimentation, the transient nature of the CPIAs of Naples Network has not favored the creation of new relations with the actors on the territory, so an extensive use of existing agreements and protocols has been made. Above all, after the great efforts of the school community, the delayed establishment of CPIAs, initially envisaged in the Regional Plan of Schooling, reflects the moment of stall that have experienced the policies of lifelong learning in Campania, and is paradoxical especially if compared with the experience of other Italian Regions. The technical and administrative support nucleus provided by the National Guidelines, which was formed by representatives of the School Directorate, the Region and the University, has not yet been established. This structure has “accompanied” the subsequent implementation of the CPIA by laying the groundwork for building an indispensable information base to formulate a complete reading of the “demand” for lifelong learning in Campania, responding to the need for knowledge of teachers and researchers. Its outcomes will bring citizens closer to the public sphere.

Starting from 2015, seven CPIAs were set up in Campania: two in the city of Naples; two in the Naples’ province; one in each province of Salerno and Caserta and one covering both Avellino and Benevento provinces.

4. Conclusion 5100

How much are the institutions, involved in implementing new lifelong learning policies, willing to learn from experience and outcomes? What was the “conscious” interaction between the various actors in the local sub-systems (that make up the public sphere) to which decisions on starting CPIAs have been referred?

The first results of our study show that, in Italy and in France, lifelong learning represents a “compensating chamber” of the institutional welfare systems dystonias, that result clearly observable through the mechanisms and processes that have led the social action of political decision-makers and bureaucracies in the path toward the not-reached-yet goal of implementing the CPIAs. From the reading of institutional data (INDIRE Report, 2012), the European goal of a shift from welfare to learnfare (Colasanto & Lodigiani, 2008) is still very far, in Italy. Even a wide range of training opportunities is not able to overcome the limits of a system that, in fact, create a division between a centralized state Adults Education and a local “training” system entrusted to the Regions.

In line with the initial hypothesis of research, there is also a high risk of dispersion of available Community resources due to the overlap of nationally funded interventions (PON funds) and those at local level (ESF funds), a matter directly linked to dichotomy which characterizes the State-Regions agreement. As in many areas of the country, the limited effectiveness of the “service networks” built up between the various territorial actors has prevented the implementation of operational solutions, vanishing locally the programming effort made by the MIUR at a central level. This explains all the delays in the majority of Italian regions: like Campania, Lazio and Sicily, who also participated in the experimentation part, and Piedmont, where an extraordinary CPIA Commissioner was appointed. It is not only a matter of numbers, as evidenced by the positive experience of Veneto, where the only two established CPIAs were closely linked to regional employment services. Or in the case of the different choice of Lombardy where they decided to start from the beginning with a network of nineteen structures. Finally, the attention shown in Puglia – with the organization of a national convention – to the delicate issue of prisons education.

Even from interviews to “privileged witnesses”, emerges that the orientation of public policies can be deeply remodeled. This especially in the sense of placing in the center of strategies a comprehensive action of lifelong learning closer to citizens, organized according to a model that is able to understand the specificity of the “demand” of each territory and provide an “offer” aimed to acquire additional agency skills (Law, 2012). Despite the presence of some positive signals, it is clear that

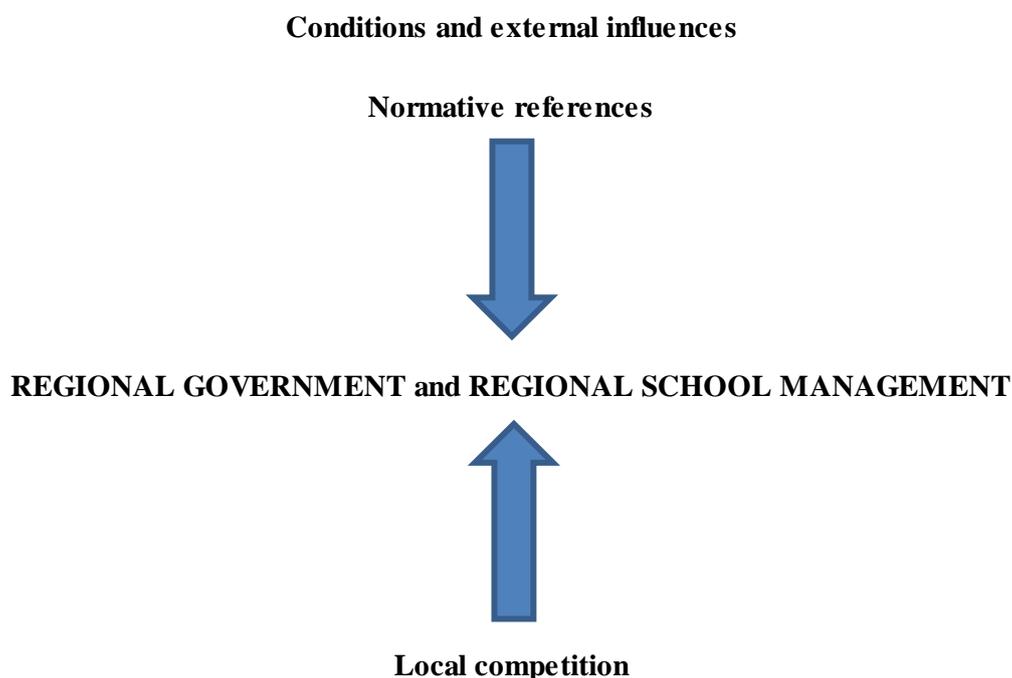
CPIAs implementation process is further weakened by the actual capacity to improve the active citizenship levels of the participants of the courses, to promote a certain degree of individual emancipation and to improve the relationship of citizens with the public sphere.

The overall picture of most of the policies at regional level seems to involve a bipolar relationship between public bodies and actors in the territory, even if the national framework outlined in the Work Reform goes in the opposite direction. Instead, it would be possible to experiment with a multipolar relationship between public bodies and other subjects (companies, universities, third sector...) that, from simple interlocutors, could become active actors and thus operate freely within agreements with administrations that are aimed at the general interest. The fulcrum of public action would become the citizen, inside his own social formation, reversing the flow of decisions that traditionally depart from public bodies. Thanks to this point of view, the implementation of the new Provincial Centers for Adult Education is an unmissable opportunity for all the institutions involved, the result of which is to promote learning and knowledge as a precondition for a truly democratic society, since "Intelligent local actions lead to success in a globalized world" (Longwort, 2003).

The issue of CPIAs is not irrelevant; it must not be a different way of defining the old Evening Courses. Conversely, the construction of a learnfare system, in Italy, goes far enough to establish these new structures where the integration of local services that were so far split between different actors, should take place in order to achieve effective results also in employment policies. It is no coincidence that the Ministry of Welfare and Ministry of Education have set up a national table to relaunch the theme. The participants are the representatives of the technical coordination of the Regions, the Tertiary Sector and the social partners with the purpose of making concrete proposals for building a national lifelong learning system from the organization of territorial networks between public and private entities and the definition of "minimum standards relating to the integration of education, training and work services". The central role of the CPIAs is reaffirmed as a landmark, structured and widespread reference point for co-ordinating and implementing welcome, counseling and accompanying actions aimed at the adult population, for the development of their own learning paths, for the acknowledgement of training credits and competence certification. It was also proposed to finance these interventions by also drawing funds from other activities such as "Young People Guarantee" and "Digital Agenda", and to rationalize the financial resources made available by the National Operative Program (PON) and the Regional Operative Program (POR).

Relatively to the different local context in which policy actions are implemented, the need to diversify the educational offer and to give a strong enthusiasm to the construction of territorial service Networks to involve various local actors also appears evident, ensuring everyone a real equality of rights and opportunities. An opportunity to test the path of the decision-makers through a careful evaluation process, which uses administrative procedures as both an "overall categorical picture" and as a specific "communication medium". In this way, in a constant process of administrative action review focused on trying to reach better performances, actors involved at various levels of implementation will be able to retrieve methods and tools for critical and conscious self-observation (Fig.1).

Figure 1. Governance system for Adult Educations institution in Italy and France



5. References

- Alberici, A., & Di Rienzo, P. (2014). Learning to learn for individual and society. *Learning to Learn. International perspectives from theory and practice*, 87-104.
- Appleby, Y., & Bathmaker, A. M. (2006). The new skills agenda: increased lifelong learning or new sites of inequality?. *British Educational Research Journal*, 32(5), pp. 703-717.
- Argyris, C., Shon, D. (1978). *Organizational learning: a theory of action perspective*. Addison Wesley, Boston.
- Bauman, Z. (1991). *Modernity and Ambivalence*. Polity, Cambridge.
- Balbo, L. (2008). *Il lavoro e la cura: imparare a cambiare*. Einaudi.
- Bichi, R. (2000). La società raccontata. *Metodi biografici e vite complesse*. Milano: Franco Angeli.
- Bengtson, V. L., Elder, G. H., & Putney, N. M. (2012). The life course perspective on ageing: linked lives, timing, and history. *Adult lives: A life course perspective*, 9-17.
- Boltanski, L., & Chiapello, E. (2005). The new spirit of capitalism. *International Journal of Politics, Culture, and Society*, 18(3-4), 161-188.
- Bradbury, H., Frost, N., Kilminster, S., & Zukas, M. (Eds.). (2012). *Beyond reflective practice: New approaches to professional lifelong learning*. Routledge.
- Callon, M., Rip, A., & Law, J. (Eds.). (1986). *Mapping the dynamics of science and technology: Sociology of science in the real world*. Springer.
- Capecchi V. (1973), *Le 150 ore. Suonata per I padroni*, in "Inchiesta", II, p.p. 7-8.
- Castells, M., Cardoso, G. (2006). *The network society: from knowledge to policy*. Center for Transatlantic Relations, Paul H. Nitze School of Advanced International Studies, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.
- Colasanto, M., Lodigiani, R. (2008). *Welfare possibili. Tra workfare e learnfare*. Vita e pensiero, Milano.
- Colombo, M. (2015). Abbandono scolastico in Italia: un problema serio, molti circoli viziosi e qualche strategia di prevenzione. *Scuola Democratica*, (2), 411-424.
- De Leonardis O. (2001). *Le istituzioni. Come e perché parlarne*. [Institutions. How and why talk about]. Carocci, Roma, p. 151.

- De Luca Picione G.L., (eds.), *La governance del lifelong learning nelle istituzioni campane. Gli attori sociali e le azioni di sistema*, Carocci, Roma, 2010.
- De Luca Picione, G.L. (2014). Learnfare. Nuove politiche sociali e promozione delle capacità attraverso l'apprendimento permanente. Attori ed utenti dei CPIA nei contesti locali. [Learnfare. New social policies and promotions of capabilities through lifelong learning]. Giappichelli.
- Douglas, M. (1990). Come pensano le istituzioni. [How Institutions Think]. Il Mulino, Milano.
- Edwards, R. (1995). Behind the banner. Whither the learner society?. in «Adults learning», VI, 6, 187-189.
- Elster, J. (1989). *The cement of society: A survey of social order*. Cambridge University Press.
- Ferrario, P. (2011). *Politica dei servizi sociali: strutture, trasformazioni, legislazione*. [Policy of social services structures, transformation, legislation]. Carocci, Roma.
- Field, J. (2005). *Social capital and lifelong learning*. Policy Press, Bristol.
- Flanagan, K., Uyarra, E., & Laranja, M. (2011). Reconceptualising the 'policy mix' for innovation. *Research Policy*, 40, 702-713.
- Florida, R. (1995). Toward the learning region. in «Futures», 27(5), pp. 527-536.
- Formenti, L., & Castiglioni, M. (2014). Focus on learners: A Search for Identity and Meaning in Autobiographical Practices. In *Challenging the European Area of Lifelong Learning* (pp. 239-248). Springer Netherlands.
- Formenti, L., West, L., & Horsdal, M. (2014). *Embodied narratives. Connecting stories, bodies, cultures and ecologies* (pp. 1-308). University Press of Southern Denmark.
- Formenti, L., & West, L. (2016). Stories that make a difference. Exploring the collective, social and political potential of narratives in adult education research. *PEDAGOGIA DELLA CURA. FAMIGLIE, COMUNITÀ, LEGAMI SOCIALI*, 9-407.
- Giddens, A. (2014). *Turbulent and Mighty Continent*. Policy Press Ltd.
- Giddens, A. (1991). *Modernity and Self-Identity: Self and Society in the Late Modern Age*. Polity Press, Oxford and Cambridge.
- Goodsell Love, A., Russo, P., Tinto, V. (1993). Building Community among New College Students. In «Liberal Education», 79 (4), 16-21.
- Goodson, I.F. (2013). *Developing Narrative Theory. Life histories and personal representation*. Routledge, New York.
- Gravani, M., & Zarifis, G. (2014). Challenging the 'European area of lifelong learning'. *A critical response*. Springer, Thessaloniki.
- Griffin, C. (1999). Lifelong learning and welfare reform. In «International Journal of Lifelong Education» 18 (6), pp. 431-452.
- Griffin, C. (2002). Lifelong learning and welfare reform. In Edwards, R., Miller, N., Smal, N., Tait, A. (Eds). *Supporting lifelong learning. Making policy work*. Routledge, New York.
- Jarvis, P. (2000). Globalisation, the learning society and comparative education. In «Comparative education», 36 (3), Taylor and Francis, Abingdon, 343-355.
- Jarvis, P., Holford, J., Milana, M., Waller, R., & Webb, S. (2015). Do we know enough about learning? Can we learn without knowing it?.
- Hodge, S., Holford, J., Milana, M., Waller, R., & Webb, S. (2017). Vocational education and the field of lifelong education.
- Holford, J. (2008). Hard Measures for Soft Stuff: citizenship indicators and educational policy under the Lisbon Strategy. *European Educational Research Journal*, 7(3), 331-343.
- Holford, J. (2014). The lost honour of the Social Dimension: Bologna, exports and the idea of the university. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 33(1), 7-25.
- Holford, J., Milana, M., Mohorčič Špolar, V. (2014). Adult and lifelong education: the European Union, its member states and the world.
- Kuhn, M. (2007). *New society models for a new millennium: the learning society in Europe and beyond*. Peter Lang, New York.

Europe of knowledge. Actors and contexts of lifelong learning policies in Italy and France.

- Landri, P. (2010). Visioni (future) dell'educazione: verso nuove prospettive sociologiche. *Scuola Democratica*, 1(1), 38-51.
- Landri, P. (2012). A return to practice: Practice-based studies of education. In *Practice, learning and change* (pp. 85-100). Springer Netherlands.
- Landri, P. (2014). Standard, dati e performance. La governance del sistema scolastico italiano in tempo di crisi. *Scuola democratica*, (1), 73-96. Law, 2012
- Lemmons, J., Saboski, E., Morgan, P., Carter, J., Grumbling, O., & Hylton, J. (1992). An integrated learning community to increase environmental awareness. *Environmental History Review*, 64-76.
- Lenning, O., Ebbers, L. (1998). The Powerful Potential of Learning Communities: Improving Education for the Future. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report Series 26 (6).
- Longworth, N. (2003). Learning cities, learning regions, learning communities: lifelong learning and local government, 1, 14, 16, Routledge, New York.
- Méhaut, P. (2006). Knowledge economy, learning society and lifelong learning: a review of the French literature, *New society models for a new millennium*, 117- 135.
- Milana, M. (2015). The European Union and the education of adults in times of crisis: Implications for social justice. *Civitas educationis. Education, Politics, and Culture*, 3(2).
- Milana, M., & Holford, J. (Eds.). (2014). *Adult education policy and the European Union: Theoretical and methodological perspectives*. Dordrecht: Sense Publishers.
- Milana, M., & Nesbit, T. (Eds.). (2015). *Global Perspectives on Adult Education and Learning Policy*. Springer.
- Nussbaum, M. C. (2001). Women and human development: The capabilities approach (Vol. 3). Cambridge University Press.
- Palumbo, M., & Torrigiani, C. (2009). La partecipazione fra ricerca e valutazione. *FrancoAngeli, Milano*.
- Selwyn, N., Gorard, S., Furlong, J. (2006). Adult learning in the digital age. Information technology and the learning society. Routledge, New York.
- Sen, A.K. (1999). Development as freedom. Oxford University Press, Oxford, trad. it di Rigamonti, G. (2000). Lo sviluppo è libertà. Mondadori, Milano.
- Simmons, J. (2013). Creating a learning society. *Incite*, 34(3), 27-37.
- Smith, B.L. (1991). Taking Structure Seriously: The Learning Community Model, «*Liberal Education*», 77 (2), 42-48.
- Touraine, A. (1997). *Pourrons-nous vivre ensemble?: égaux et différents*. Fayard.
- Treelle, A. (2010). Il LifeLong Learning e l'educazione degli adulti in Italia e in Europa. *Dati, confronti e proposte. numero dicembre*.
- Van Der Zee, H. (2006). The learning society. In P. Jarvis (Eds.). *From Adult Education to the Learning Society. XXI years from the International Journal of Lifelong Education*, Routledge.
- Verdier, E. (2013). Lifelong learning regimes versus vocational education and training systems in Europe: The growing hybridisation of national models. *The Dynamics and Social Outcomes of Education Systems, Houndmills, Palgrave MacMillan*, 70-93.
- Volles, N. (2016). Lifelong learning in the EU: changing conceptualisations, actors, and policies. *Studies in higher education*, 41(2), 343-363.
- Waller, R., Holford, J., Jarvis, P., Milana, M., & Webb, S. (2015). Neo-liberalism and the shifting discourse of 'educational fairness'.
- Webb, S., Hodge, S., Holford, J., Milana, M., & Waller, R. (2016). Refugee migration, lifelong education and forms of integration.
- Walters, S. (2009). Learning regions in lifelong learning. In P. Jarvis (Eds.). *The Routledge International Handbook of lifelong learning*. Routledge.
- Weidemann, D. (2009). A cultural psychological approach to analyze intercultural learning: potential and limits of the structure formation technique. In «*Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research*», vol. 10, n. 1, Berlin. Wenger, E.

Giuseppe Luca De Luca Picione, Lucia Fortini, Emanuele Madonia

(1998). *Communities of practice. Learning, meaning and identity*. Cambridge University Press, New York.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*. Cambridge university press.

A Comparison of The Higher Education of Turkey and Canada

Miray Doğan, Osman Ferda Beytekin

1. Introduction

Living in a different society, cultures and religious make education policies role critical in transforming the education landscape and outcomes of learning. An important feature of the successful educational transformation in many countries is that policy reform efforts and programs are guided by a clear goal and vision, implemented through a coherent planning, management and monitoring process. Educational systems and policies must address all the components of the system in a coordinated and coherent way so that changes, in turn, become mutually reinforcing and promote continuous improvement in the country. To a broaden development education system; we should widen our understanding of international education systems so that we are able to identify similarities and differences between educational systems as well as strengths and weaknesses within each system. Education system can vary from one country to another in view of teaching methods, administrative structures, content and skills. Despite of the differences in political systems, historical background and educational structures, countries generally share a common vision for higher education. Furthermore, young population is one of the most valuable resource to any given country in terms of it indicates development and growth in Higher Education. Universities have had more important place in society with economically, politically, socially and culturally ever than before. It emerges challenges and opportunities are important implications for educators, administrators and government. Because of this, Higher Education systems need to look over both national and international efforts. In addition, as countries move to knowledge based, creative economies, innovation now becomes central to national competitive advantage with significant implications for the kinds of work and jobs people will do, and the skills that education should provide for in the future (UNESCO, 2014).

Turkey is one of the key supporters of UNDP's (United Nations Development Program) regional program in Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), thanks to a USD 15 million contribution that has helped to boost sustainable growth, governance and resilience across the region (UNDP, 2017). In the latest Human Development Report of 2016, Human Development Index (HDI) indicates that with a value of 0.767, Turkey is listed among the "High Human Development" category, ranking 71th out of 188 countries. Canada's human development index is 0,920 and ranked 10th very high human development group" in the category (HDR, 2016). Turkey's performance since 2000 has been impressive. Macroeconomic and fiscal stability were at the heart of its performance, enabling increased employment and incomes and making Turkey an upper-middle-income country (The World Bank, 2017). Many developing countries perceive educational policies as an engine for development therefore educators and administrators should follow their models while establishing HE structures.

2. Higher Education

In a contemporary world, higher education is assumed unprecedented importance because it educates and prepare people nationally and internationally for a new global citizen. As knowledge becomes more significant, so does higher education. The quality of knowledge generated and transmitted within higher education system and its availability to the wider economy are very significant for boosting national competitiveness (Tekneci, 2016). It is no doubt that, higher education system is different from one country to another but the goal is the same. Educational systems aim is to increase benefits both of society and individuals in the society. Participation rates in HE across the world have improved for the last decade according to the OECD (2016) reports, Canada is the highest participation rates in the world. Most parts of the world have seen a dramatic rise in HE (higher education) participation rates over the last five decades, so much so that some countries might be described as having moved from an 'elite' to a 'mass' or even a 'universal' system of higher education

(Yang et al, 2015). With the rapid changes in societies, HE institutions are expected to maintain and improve their position. Therefore, societies and HE institutions need to work together to provide greater capacity for innovation. Especially young people make up large proportion of the population in Turkey, there is an acute need for access to HE institutions.

Turkey has taken important steps in recent years to strengthen internalization of its higher education system. To increase access, Turkey heavily invested in higher education and expanded the system rapidly during the last decade (Gür, 2016). The essence of higher education can be viewed as not being confined by borders (Teichler, 2012). That means, the process of supply and demand of knowledge in variety of area are universal, search for the new knowledge is not limited by borders. Universities are more international institutions than any other organizations. In this regard, HE is having vital important role to strengthening, development, leading social and transformation of knowledge. Countries are more connected with each other ever than before technological, knowledge and student mobility. The failure of HE imposes high costs on society. If HE system has a limited opportunity, it damages economy, grow, innovate and mobility of students among the others. For this reason, HE system and structures go hand in hand quality to meet individuals and society's needs. More importantly higher education is supposed to develop inquisitive and open minds in the search of truth. "truth" is an elusive term. From the traditional forms of higher education, we can discern specific features such as the partnership between students and professors (masters). There is also some degree of independence from society 'academic freedom (Kariwo et al., 2014).

Higher education faces many perennial challenges, including expanding and promoting equitable access, improving learning achievement, fostering educational quality and relevance, strengthening knowledge and technology transfer, and encouraging desired values, behaviors, and attitudes (World Bank, 2017). According to one of the Magna Carta Observatory principles; University is an autonomous institution at the heart of societies differently organized because of geography and historical heritage; it produces, examines, appraises and hands down culture by research and teaching. To meet the needs of the world around it, its research and teaching must be morally and intellectually independent of all political authority and economic power. Estermann et al. (2011) indicate that universities need strengthened autonomy to better serve society and specifically to ensure favorable regulatory frameworks which allow university leaders to design internal structures efficiently, select and train staff, shape academic programs and use financial resources, these in line with their specific institutional missions and profiles. In this context, university autonomy can very important in terms of freedom of financial issues and effective academic service.

3. Methodology

The purpose of this study is to compare the similarities and differences of HE Turkish educational policies and system with Canada. This study is a comparative educational research. With comparative researches, cross-cultural analysis provides broaden scope for understanding why an educational system performs better in a country than in another. Qualitative research design was conducted for the study. Document analysis technique is conducted while collecting documents and examine existing data's. The data has been collected and comparisons have been drawn from Council of Turkish Higher Education and Statistics of Canada. Conclusions are interpreted based on the comparative analysis of the educational issues of Turkey and Canada.

4. The Higher Education in Turkey and Canada

It is known that, Canada has an individualistic, low uncertainty avoidance, and low power distance culture and Turkey as a collectivist, high uncertainty avoidance, and high-power distance culture have markedly different cultural backgrounds (Arpaci, 2015). Being a developing country, education is core to development and contributes to the enhancement of well develop countries competitiveness. Turkey has come a long way in establishing an efficient system of higher education which is moving into a 'mass' system with institutions spanning the whole country (Hatakenaka, 2006). The administration of Turkish higher education was founded with the law (No. 2547) in 1981. Since then all higher education institutions have been come together under the umbrella of Council of Higher

A Comparison of The Higher Education of Turkey and Canada

Education (COHE). So, the system thereby became centralized. COHE is a fully autonomous corporate public body, which has no political or Governmental affiliation (YOK,2016).

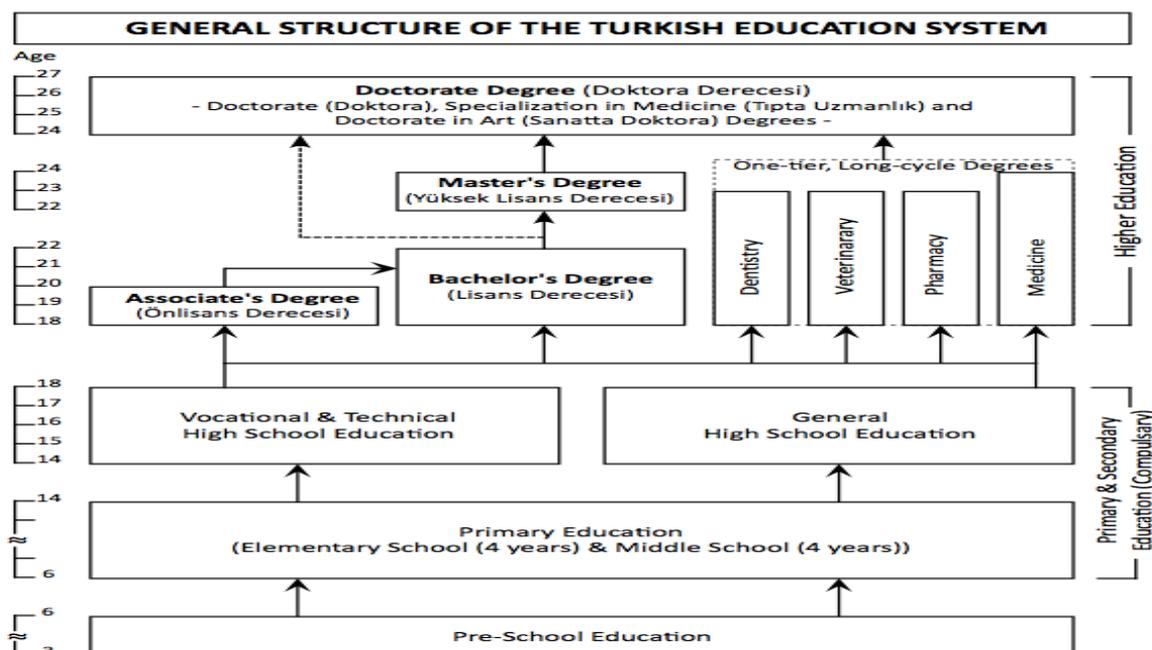
In Turkey, autonomous university governance would entail that – within a given national higher education strategy and defined responsibilities to ensure that education is accessible to all members of society – university leaders define the mission and aims of their institutions in accordance with national strategy, and take responsibility for meeting agreed targets. Expansion of higher education throughout the country was achieved, application to higher education was centralized, and a central university exam and placement were introduced. In addition to public universities, the first nonprofit foundation university in Turkey started to provide education for students in 1986. Universities are classified as public and non-profit foundation universities in Turkey (YOK, 2016).

Despite of having hierarchical system in Turkey, Canadian higher education system is highly decentralized. There is no national “system”, no national ministry of higher education, no national higher education policy and no national quality assessment or accreditation mechanisms for institutions of higher education (Jones, 2014). In Canada, the provinces and territories are individually responsible for primary, secondary and higher education. Every province has a Ministry/ Department of Education for educational policy, funding and quality assurance. Since 1967, the separate education departments have remained in regular contact through their participation in the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada. This module will deal with education in the different provinces, including the 2 most significant provinces, Ontario and Quebec. Overall, the education systems of the remaining provinces are like that of Ontario (Nuffic, 2015).

While many of the decisions on education are made by the provinces and territories, institutions hold a high degree of autonomy within higher education. Moreover, the federal government plays a significant role in supporting research in a range of areas. Comparisons taking the country as a unit of analysis are prominent in the field of comparative education, but the use of a nation-state as the dominant research framework has been continually challenged. There are regional variations in education within nation-states (Güven&Gürdal, 2011). The political economies and higher education policies in the individual Canadian provinces vary, but the various access reforms introduced in recent years collectively reveal many discernable common elements (Kirby, 2010).

The Turkish National Education System consists of 3 stages:

1. Preschool Education.
2. Primary and Secondary Education
3. Higher Education System: The higher education system in Turkey is supervised by the Council of Higher Education (COHE). The COHE is an autonomous institution which is responsible for the planning, coordination and governance of higher education system in Turkey in accordance with the Turkish Constitution and the Higher Education Laws. Universities decide upon their own academic calendars; however, academic year generally starts in September and ends in June. There are winter and summer breaks. Summer school is also available at some universities.

Table 1. General Structure of the Turkish Education System

As seen in Table 1, Turkish universities offer:

- * Associate's degree programs
- * Bachelor's degree programs
- * Graduate programs
- * Post-graduate programs.

Associate's Degree Programs:

Associate's degree programs take 2 years. Vocational high school graduates can qualify for associate's degree programs without taking any centralized exams.

Bachelor's Degree Programs:

Bachelor's degree programs generally take 4 years. Specialized bachelor's degree programs, such as medicine (6 years), may be longer.

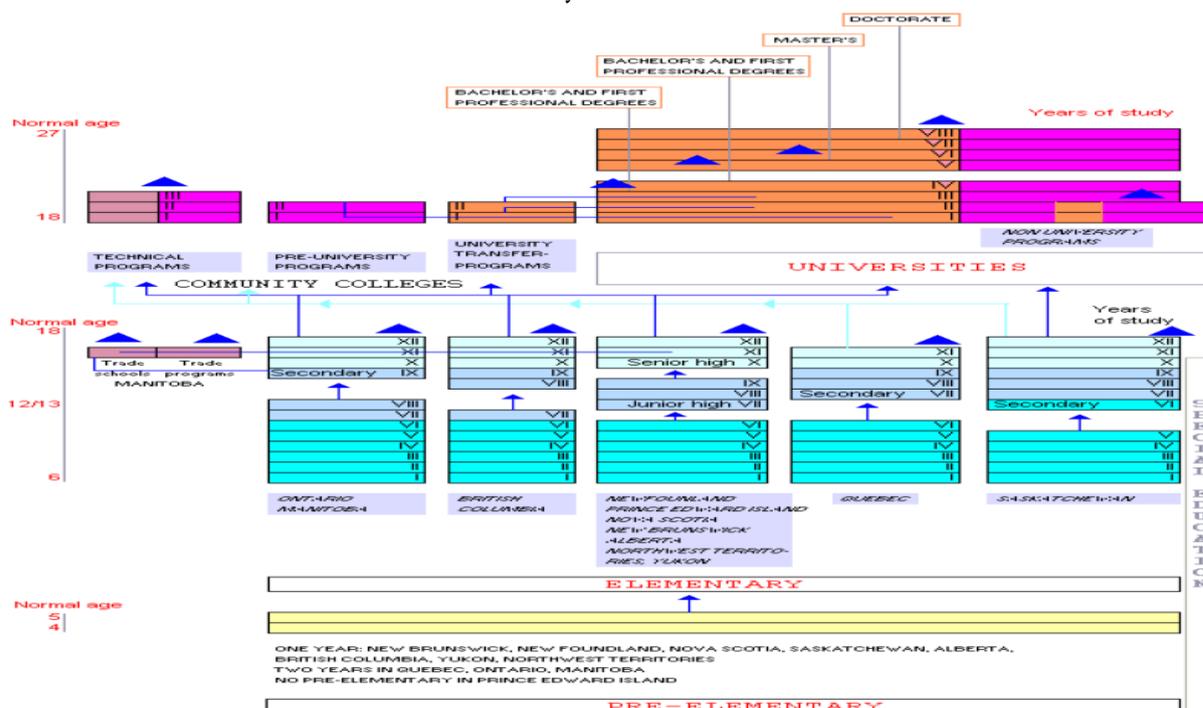
Graduate Programs:

Universities in Turkey offer a wide range of graduate programs. While master's programs take about 2 years (non-thesis master's programs generally take 1½ years), doctoral programs take about 4 years.

Post-graduate Programs:

Post-graduate opportunities are also available in universities in Turkey. Duration depends on the program and university (YOK, 2016).

A Comparison of The Higher Education of Turkey and Canada

Table 2. General Structure of Canada Education System

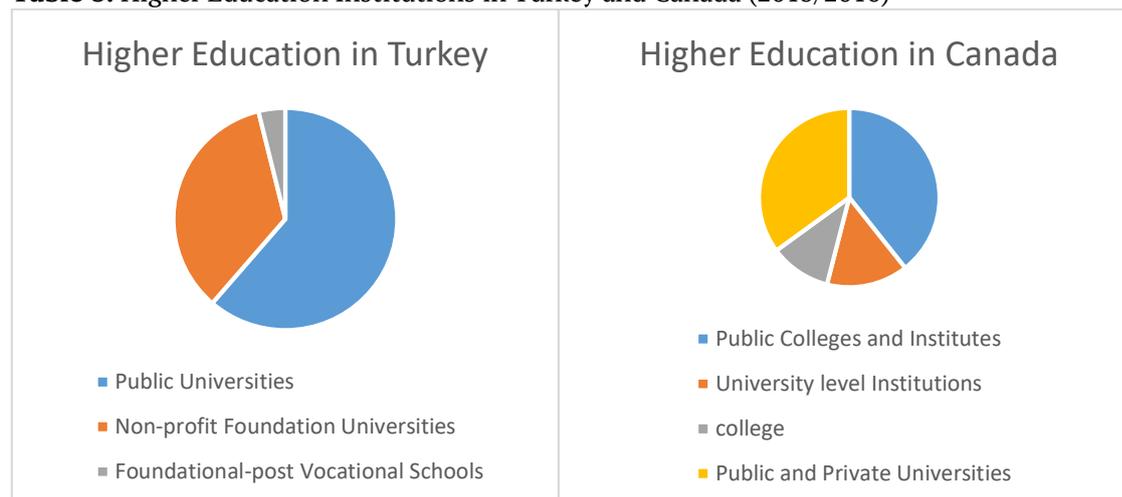
As seen in in Table 2, Postsecondary non-tertiary education straddles the boundary between upper secondary and postsecondary education, even though it might be considered upper secondary or postsecondary in a national context. Program content may not be significantly more advanced than that in upper secondary, but is not as advanced as that in tertiary programs. Duration usually the equivalent of between 6 months and 2 years of full-time study. Students tend to be older than those enrolled in upper secondary education.

Short-cycle tertiary education: short-cycle tertiary education, are often designed to provide participants with professional knowledge, skills and competencies. Typically, they are practically based, occupationally-specific and prepare students to enter the labor market.

Bachelor's or equivalent level: Largely theory-based programs designed to provide sufficient qualifications for entry to advanced research programs and professions with high skill requirements, such as medicine, dentistry or architecture. Duration at least 3 years full-time, though usually 4 or more years. They are traditionally offered by universities and can also be offered at some colleges.

Master's or equivalent level: Master's or equivalent level, are often designed to provide participants with advanced academic and/or professional knowledge, skills and competencies, leading to a second degree or equivalent qualification. Programs at this level may have a substantial research component but do not yet lead to the award of a doctoral qualification.

Doctoral or equivalent level: Programs that lead directly to the award of an advanced research qualification, e.g., Ph.D. The theoretical duration of these programs is 3 years, full-time, in most countries (for a cumulative total of at least 7 years full-time equivalent at the tertiary level), although the actual enrolment time is typically longer. Programs are devoted to advanced study and original research. (International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) classifications and descriptions Statistic Canada, 2016). French immersion programs are offered in most places throughout the provinces as Canada is officially a bilingual country.

Table 3. Higher Education Institutions in Turkey and Canada (2015/2016)

As seen in Table 3, between 2016/2017 education term there are 181 higher education institutions in Turkey. There are 63 non-profit foundation universities. In the last decade, the number of non-profit foundation universities has increased. There are 111 public universities and there are only 7 foundational-post vocational schools. Board of higher education (BHE) has encouraged to establish new foundation universities. Higher education institutions can be classified as follows: Universities, Foundation Post- Secondary Vocational Schools, Other Higher Education Institutions (YOK, 2016). In contrast to Turkey, Canada has 163 recognized public and private universities (including theological schools) and 183 recognized public colleges and institutes, including those granting applied and bachelor's degrees. In addition to the recognized institutions, there are 68 university-level institutions and 51 college-level ones operating as authorized institutions, at which only selected programs are approved under provincially established quality assurance programs (Jones, 2014). The expansion of higher education has been considerable rate and the people with higher education represent the largest share of 25-34 years old in many OECD countries. Canada has the highest rate of 25-64-year-olds with tertiary education is about 50%. Turkey has the lowest higher education rate among many countries. Although short-cycle tertiary education represents less than 10% of the attainment of adults in Turkey. Canada has the highest rate %26 Turkey has less than %20 master's and Doctoral degree. According to OECD Indicators (Education at a Glance, 2016) Between 2008 and 2013, Turkey increased its public expenditure on primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education by %63. During the same period, the number of public school students enrolled at these levels increased by %7, which translated into an increase of %52 in expenditure per student. Despite this increase, Turkey's total expenditure per student at primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary levels was the second lowest among OECD and partner countries at USD 3327 per year (OECD,2016).

4.1 Accessibility

Admission to undergraduate programs is carried out in accordance with the regulations determined by the University Senate within the framework of the Higher Education Act 2547 dated 4 November 1981 and of the regulations and decisions of the Higher Education Council.

To gain admission to an associate (2-year, short cycle) or undergraduate program (4-year, first cycle) in a higher education institution, Turkish students must take a university entrance exam administered by Student Selection and Placement Center (ÖSYM).

The examination consists of two stages. First stage is the Higher Education Entrance Exam (YGS). Students need to get 140 over 500 to enter the second exam called Bachelor Placement Exam (LYS). The second stage exam, LYS, is applied as 5 separate sessions. The placement into most of the first cycle degree programs is made by ÖSYM based on the scores students obtained from the exam and their grade point averages (GPA) of secondary education (high school in Turkish Education System). The placement of the students who want to study in an associate program is based on the scores from YGS. An exception, however, is recognized, by law, for vocational high school graduates to apply for placement in two-year vocational school programs which are compatible with their high school majors, without an entrance examination. These students are placed centrally by ÖSYM according to the type of vocational high schools they graduated and their grade point averages (ÖSYM, 2017). The number of Turkish students who sit for the admissions examinations has grown considerably in recent years and exceeds the number of available seats at Turkish universities. In March of 2017, more than 2.2 million students sat for the YGS examination compared to 1.85 students in 2013, an increase of almost 19 percent (Kamal, 2017). Most institutions in Canada select students according to their own criteria, although selection is usually less competitive and organized in a different manner than in the United States. In Canada, required high school grades, the prime currency for entrance into Canadian universities, have steadily risen over the past decade, particularly in fields like engineering (Davies & Hammack, 2005). The most important components in selection and admission are the subject list and the grades accompanying the diploma. The High School Diploma is the minimum requirement in all provinces. For example, a pupil with an Alberta High School Diploma who wishes to study in Ontario will need to satisfy certain criteria, such as specific subjects taken at a certain level. Centralized tests, such as the SAT in the United States, are not required for admission to university (Nuffic, 2015). Accessibility to higher education has been a key policy issue in every Canadian province. Canada's participation rates in higher education, if one includes both universities and colleges, are among the highest in the world, depending on which indicator is used. If one excludes college enrolment, Canada continues to have a high university participation rate, but its international ranking moves down considerably (Jones, 2014).

4.2 Accreditation

In Turkey, National Qualifications Framework, on the other side, expresses the qualifications for a national educational system and the relation between these. In other words, National Qualifications Framework is a system in which qualifications, which are recognized by national and international stakeholders and can be related, are structured within a certain organization.

National Qualifications Framework for Higher Education in Turkey (NQF-HETR). Inclusion of the higher education qualifications in TQF-HE through appropriate quality assurance procedures is initiated in 2014, coordinated under Vocational Qualifications Authority (VQA) and still in progress. Within the responsibilities set forth by the regulations in 2005, an independent Commission for Academic Assessment and Quality Improvement in Higher Education as called YODEK, comprising of ten members including nine representatives of the universities selected by the Inter-University Council and one student representative appointed by the Turkish Student Council, was established as being responsible of setting up and conducting the follow up processes (Turkish National Agency, 2016).

In Canada, each province is responsible the quality and accreditation of its own institutions. There is no national umbrella accreditation body. Although the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC) does play a guiding role in activities related to quality assurance and accreditation, it does not accredit itself (Nuffic, 2015).

4.3 Funding

Financial allocation to the education sector provides a clear indicator of government commitment to education. All HE almost has the experience of financial difficulty. Tuition fees are applied differently in public and non-profit foundation universities. In public universities, tuition fees are decided and announced by the Council of Ministers, taking into consideration the type and duration of study in different disciplines. In non-profit foundation universities, on the other hand, tuition fees are decided

by the Board of Trustees of the university (YOK, 2016). Tuition fees have been abolished for public universities in Turkey since 2013 to expand student participation in HE.

The two major sources of income for Canadian universities and colleges are government grants and tuition, but the balance between these two revenue sources varies by province and has changed dramatically over the last few decades. In most provinces, both revenue sources are effectively controlled by government. Provincial governments determine the amount of financial support that they will allocate to higher education, but they also, directly or indirectly, influence or control university decisions on the level of tuition fees (Jones, 2014). Government sources account for most of the revenue of Canadian public post-secondary Institutions, but in 2012 this funding was just slightly above 50% (*Financial Information of Universities and Colleges*). In Ontario, institutions are now described as publicly assisted rather than publicly funded. Non-government funding sources include tuition fees, and alumni and donor support (McBride et al. 2015).

5. Discussion and Conclusions

Giving all the citizens equal and quality education is fundamental duty of governments. Turkey is a developing country in variety of area. Turkish Government and higher education institutions need to improve system and make opportunities for young people. With the population grow rate in Turkey, the massification to higher education has increased. In this respect, educators and administrators make sufficient precautions towards planning, organization, resource management and financing of the system to meet the needs for citizens. Moreover, centralized university entrance exam which is done by the government supply limited access to HE. Therefore, it creates a barrier to access to university. Turkey is decided to become universal HE so the government has tried to meet the demands by doing reform attempts. Higher education is a vital important area of economic and social development of the Turkish government.

Canadian's decentralization system lead to complex arrangement of quite distinct provincial and territorial in higher education. Although Canada has not national higher education system, it has the highest participation rates and has one of the most educated populations. The other reason of high participation rates is mostly related to strong provincial schools' systems. To achieve an inspiration to the development of Turkey's HE system, Canada's HE strong merit of policies are looked over. There is widely consensus on the need that HE system in Turkey should be autonomy for effective service and catch the success. Ensuring equitable access in a country as diverse as Turkey will be a constant battle, especially as enrolment expectations rise within the population (Hatakenaka, 2006). There is pressure on students while preparing university entrance examination because it has been rising social demand towards universities. Turkey on the other hand still lacks an attempt to make changes required for both Bologna Process and other possible options for internationalization (Burçer & Kangro, 2016). Turkey should take a step-in order to improved language skills in education to achieve better on the internalization in higher education. High fees prevent eligible students to attend private universities in Turkey. To support these student, government should widen their grants and scholarships to cope with cost of education in Turkey. Clear and measurable targets regarding a better higher education system should be articulated in national higher education policy documents such as government programs, five-year development plans and annual programs. In addition, the related financial costs of these targets should be integrated in the policy documents to enhance the transparency and efficiency of future higher education funds (Tekneci, 2016). Turkey moved towards universal higher education only very recently and rapidly. Additionally, reforming higher education governance of Turkey has been a persistent issue for many years, but all reform attempts have been inconclusive up to now. Reforms are needed to increase the autonomy and accountability of universities (Gür, 2016).

6. References

- Arpaci, I. (2015). A comparative study of the effects of cultural differences on the adoption of mobile learning. *British Journal of Educational Technology* 46, 699-712 doi:10.1111/bjet.12160
- Burçer, S., & Kangro I. (2016). Internationalization of Higher Education Institutions in Latvia And Turkey. Its Management and Development during the Last Decade Education Provision to Everyone: Comparing Perspectives from around the World BCES conference books, 14 (1) Higher Education, Lifelong Learning Social Inclusion.
- Davies, S. & Hammack., (2005). The Channeling of Student Competition in Higher Education: Comparing Canada and the U.S. the journal of higher education, 76(1):89,106 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2005.11772276>
- Estermann, T., Nokkala T., &Steinel, M. (2011) University Autonomy in Europe II. Brussels: European University Association.
- ISCED (2016). Education indicators in Canada: International perspective 2016. Retrieved from <http://statcan.gc.ca/>
- Hatakenaka, S. (2006). Higher Education in Turkey for 21st Century: Size and Composition. World Bank Report.
- HDR (2016). Briefing note for countries on the 2016 Human Development Report and Index of Turkey & Canada.
- Gür, B.S. (2016). Democratization and Massification of Higher Education in Turkey challenges an ahead. Research & Occasional Paper Series: CSHE.3.16 University of California, Berkeley <http://cshe.berkeley.edu/>
- Güven, İ., & Gürdal, A. (2011). Türkiye ile Kanada Fen Eğitiminin Karşılaştırmalı Olarak İncelenmesi. *Türk Fen Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi* 8 (4).
- Jones, G. A. (2014). An Introduction to Higher Education in Canada. In K. M. Joshi and Sae Paivandi (eds.), *Higher education across nations* (vol. 1, pp. 1-38). Delhi: B. R. Publishing.
- Kevin, K. (2017) Senior Manager, Client Relations, Canada, with WES Staff, Education in Turkey World Education News & Reviews www.wenr.wes.org
- Kirby, D. (2010) Strategies for widening access in a quasi-market higher education environment: recent developments in Canada Published online:24 Springer Science Business Media B.V. DOI 10.1007/s10734-010-9386-7
- Magna Charta Observatory Principles. (2016). Retrieved at 05.2016 from [https:// www.magna-charta.org/magna-charta-observatory](https://www.magna-charta.org/magna-charta-observatory).
- McBride, K., Humphries, J., & Knight-Grofe, J. (2015). Directorate General for Internal Policies Policy Department, Structural and Cohesion Policies. Internalization of Higher Education.
- Kariwo, M., Gounko, T., & Nungu, M. (2014). A comparative analysis of higher education on systems issues, Challenges and dilemmas.
- Nuffic (2015). The Canadian education system described and compared with the Dutch system. The Dutch organization for internationalization in education & Education system Canada, version 3.
- OECD. (2016). Education at a Glance 2016 OECD indicators. Retrieved from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2016-en>
- ÖSYM (2017). Student selection and Placement. Retrieved from: [http:// www.osym.gov.tr](http://www.osym.gov.tr).
- Teichler, U. (2012). International Student Mobility in Europe in the Context of the Bologna Process Volume 2, Issue 1 Spring 2012 <http://www.jielusa.org/home>. ISSN:2161-7252
- The World Bank Report Turkey (2017). Higher Education for Development an Evaluation of the World Bank Group's Support.
- Tekneci, P. D. (2016) Evolution of Turkish Higher Education System in the Last Decade Türk Yükseköğretim Sisteminin Son Onyıldaki Dönüşümü DOI: 10.5961/jhes.2016.164
- Yükseköğretim ve Bilim Dergisi/*Journal of Higher Education and Science*.
- Turkish National Agency (2016). Turkish Higher Education Institutions Booklet, The Center for European Union Education and Youth Program (Turkish National Agency).

- UNESCO (2014). Bangkok Education Policy Research Series, Education Policy and Reform Discussion Document No. 5 Education Systems in ASEAN+6 Countries: A Comparative Analysis of Selected Educational Issue. Unit
- UNDP (2017). Turkey and UNDP reaffirm drive to fulfill Global Goals in Europe, Central Asia.
- Yang, Jin., Schneller, C., & Roche, S. (2015) *The Role of Higher Education in Promoting Lifelong Learning* 9. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002335/233592e.pdf>
- YÖK (2016). Statistics HE in Turkey. Retrieved from <https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>
- YÖK (2017). The law on higher Education law number: 2547. Retrieved from <http://yok.gov.tr/>
- YÖK (2016). Higher Education System in Turkey. Retrieved from <https://yok.gov.tr/>

Educational Institutions as Agents to Contrast the Social Inequalities

Lucia Fortini

1. Introduction

The relationship between educational institutions and social inequalities is a classic theme in sociology (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1972; Parsons, 1972), but it is particularly difficult to find an area of agreement between the various theories. To understand the social change through the morphogenesis of individual strategies in educational pathways, one must consider the “agency” (Giddens, 1984; Archer, 1995), and it is very easy to locate the main dimensions to be considered. This paper shows that the construction of a true welfare of the opportunities, which considers the “operations” and “capabilities” (Sen et al., 1986), must be built within education policies considering different territorial.

Is the early school leave the result of individual events attributable to individual life story paths, or the social structure in which those paths are developed and are entitled? Answering this question may allow the testing of specific programs that interrupt the social mechanisms of reproduction of marginalization and social exclusion.

The study looks at first grade schools with particular reference to students' attendance levels as it has become apparent that students with lower attendance records find it more difficult to progress and are therefore more likely to leave school earlier. Results show that this is particularly true whenever absence levels exceed 60 days, which may compromise successful completion of the school year. The empirical research suggests a strong link between irregular attendance during the first year and early school leaving. Therefore, it is important to investigate the possible causes and to find ways to prevent early school leaving and poor learning.

The process of socialization is defined as a process by which is possible to attain the set of values, behavioral norms and practical skills that enable individuals to actively participate in the community (Gallino, 1978; Grusec & Hastings, 2008). Moreover, modern society recognizes the importance of educational institutions as fundamental agents of socialization necessary for community development.

It is believed that school education increases national productivity and economic growth as well as enhancing human capital, which is crucial for social inclusion and to ensure the competitiveness of the states.

However whilst “education is viewed as essential to reproduction of the economic structure, yet feared as a potential source of individual empowerment.” (Dyke, 1997: 5).

In addition to the concept of *employability*, defined as the possession of all the formal skills, personal experiences and ability to productively work with others (Gallino, 2007), there is the important notion of *empowerment*, which involves active participation in democratic life within the *society of knowledge* (Rifkin, 2000).

Education, in fact, is first and foremost a value in itself, an indispensable instrument for the social inclusion of all citizens in what is now unanimously defined as a “knowledge society”. Human capital, in short, represents the unmistakable sum of knowledge, skills, capabilities and interpretative tools that allow individuals to be resident. This is the main reason why the most important international bodies recognize the importance of enhancing human capital.

Both education and training influence individual welfare and provide an array of new opportunities, which would be otherwise unavailable. Furthermore, formal education benefits the individual as well as the community. Even if, sometimes, “education that is based on a marketplace agenda may serve to perpetuate rather than eradicate inequalities. [...] For the elite to maintain existing power relations, workers must attain the skills required to function in a highly technical workplace. To go beyond that, however, may create dissatisfied populace” (Gouthro, 2006: 232).

Research shows that most educated people have better health and social life, they are affected by

lower levels of unemployment and engage in politics more actively. This demonstrates that education empowers individuals so that they can make better choices and gives them the freedom to lead a more active lifestyles (Sen, 1999).

Education and training represent human assets that individuals build throughout their lives and provide a set of skills and competencies to improve working life, living conditions and overall wellbeing (OECD, 2001). It can be therefore argued that the decision to discontinue formal education will adversely affect the individual later on in life.

Addressing the issue of early school leaving plays a strategic role in developing society as a whole. This in turn fosters equality intended as the ability for everyone to access the same resources, allowing positive discrimination amongst individuals from diverse socioeconomic contexts who have different talents and motivations (Sen, 1997; 1999).

If the problem becomes the "escape" from the school and those situations that make it uncomfortable, it is possible, like Lupoli (1999), to refer to the concept of dispersal as a "deficit of democracy".

The term 'School dropout' refers to those individuals aged 18 to 24 holding at most a lower secondary school qualification who never attended school nor completed more than 2 years of training.

Early school leaving in Italy concerns mainly 2nd grade students of secondary school.

The primary objective of the European strategy is to reduce early school leaving rates, which in Campania are very high, as shown in the table below (Tab. 1).

Tab. 1 – Percentage of early school leavers aged 18 to 24

Early school leavers	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Abruzzo	16,6	16,1	14,7	15,0	15,6	14,8	13,5	12,8	12,4	11,4
Molise	15,2	15,5	16,2	16,4	16,5	16,6	13,5	13,1	10,0	15,4
Campania	28,6	27,8	27,1	29,0	26,3	23,5	23,0	22,0	21,8	22,2
Puglia	30,2	29,2	27,0	25,1	24,3	24,7	23,4	19,5	19,7	19,9
Basilicata	16,8	18,1	15,2	14,1	13,9	12,0	15,1	14,5	13,8	15,4
Calabria	21,8	18,2	19,6	21,2	18,7	17,4	16,1	18,2	17,3	16,4
Sicilia	30,6	30,0	28,1	26,1	26,2	26,5	26,0	25,0	24,8	25,8
Sardegna	30,1	33,1	28,3	21,8	22,9	22,9	23,9	25,1	25,5	24,7
<i>Italia</i>	<i>22,9</i>	<i>22,3</i>	<i>20,6</i>	<i>19,7</i>	<i>19,7</i>	<i>19,2</i>	<i>18,8</i>	<i>18,2</i>	<i>17,6</i>	<i>17,0</i>

Reasons for early school leaving can be internal or external to the education system. External reasons include individual traits such as self-esteem, commitment, ability to focus, family background and general labor market conditions. In addition, contextual cultural and relational resources and the quality of infrastructures also play an important role.

Internal factors include school building conditions, number of classrooms available, teaching equipment, as well as economic factors like available funds, procedural factors such as teaching methods, student interactions in the classroom or interactions between teachers and students, the teachers' specific skills and motivation and finally educational aspects such as educational programs and approaches.

Often "our school have become instrument of repression: they reinforce social inequality, keep people dependent, stub out initiative and creativity, and impede common action. Moreover, what people most need to learn, schools seem least able to teach" (Van Der Zee, 2006: 333).

The European Union is aiming to reduce the current socioeconomic gap between different regions by improving infrastructures and education programs in certain areas to increase competitiveness and employability levels. Our data refer to these regions and show an alarming picture with early school living in Campania reaching 22,2% in 2013 (Tab.1).

Method

Is early school leaving the result of personal and social individual circumstances and life choices? Finding an answer to this question may allow the development of specific tools to prevent marginalization and social exclusion.

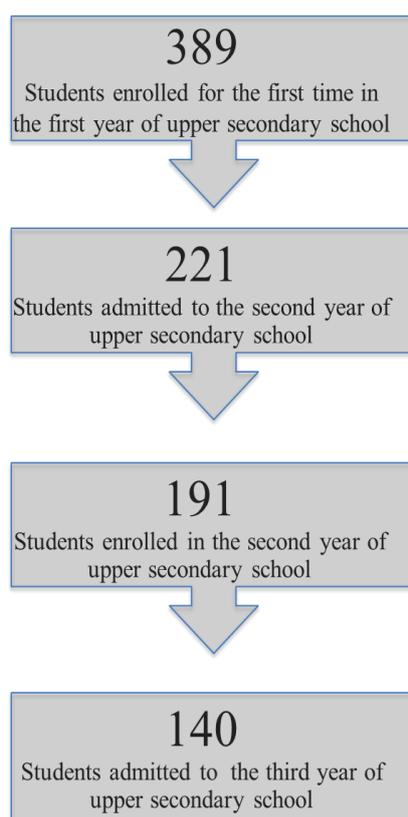
This study analyses dynamics specific to the most deprived areas of Southern Italy and examines school curriculum.

The starting assumption is that school success is an essential component to prevent or reduce unemployment whilst promoting social integration. As we are currently moving towards the society of knowledge, it is essential to achieve higher education levels and to invest increasingly in human capital, which can often be difficult to afford.

The study looks at first grade schools with particular reference to students' attendance levels as it has become apparent that students with lower attendance records find it more difficult to progress and are therefore more likely to leave school early.

Results show that this is particularly true whenever absence levels exceed 60 days, which may compromise successful completion of the school year. Nonetheless, the Italian education system allows derogating from this rule.

Fig. 1 – Number of lower secondary school students promoted to upper secondary school (zone VIII, Naples)



A survey undertaken¹ within disadvantaged socioeconomic contexts shows that irregular attendance, also referred to as “Hiccup Frequencies” (HF), which indicates absences exceeding 60 days per year, represents a good indicator to measure risks of early school leaving.

The study follows students enrolled in the three years 2007/2008 – 2008/2009 – 2009/2010.

Results show that 52% of first year upper secondary school students enrolled in 2008/09 have had an

¹ Statistics from the Campania Regional Education Office and “Virgilio IV” Institute.

absence average of over 60 days in the previous year (third year of lower secondary school) and 43% of these students were not admitted to the second year of upper secondary school. Only 36% of students enrolled in the first year 2008/2009 were admitted from second to third year of upper secondary school.

The data show that students with lower attendance levels throughout their formal education courses also have more absences in high school and face greater challenges with their studies.

82% of these 249 students had a number of absences exceeding 60 days per year! Based on the high "Hiccup Frequencies" for early school leaving, it is necessary to identify possible solutions in order to resolve this issue.

Discussion

The study suggests a strong link between irregular attendance during the first year and early school leaving. Therefore, HF is an important indicator of early school leaving and can be monitored in order to identify those students who may leave school early.

Based on the relationship between the high rates of HF and poor school performance, which in turn leads to early school leaving, it is important to investigate the possible causes and to find ways to prevent early school leaving and poor learning.

As we have seen, in highlighting the possible causes of early school leaving, literature shows some differences between exogenous and endogenous causes at school. With regard to the former, it is important to consider, in the first instance, inequalities outside the school system as it is universally acknowledged that these have a significant influence on school success. As some authors note, for example, a substantial part of the reduction in educational inequalities in some European countries (Sweden and the Netherlands) is ultimately dependent on the reduction of social inequalities and the highest level of security achieved by the poor in these countries (Shavit & Blossfeld, 1993).

In fact, it must be admitted that school can hardly compensate for a certain kind of social inequality since, for example, it is shown that young people who come from less disadvantaged classes have on average higher IQs (Lautrey, 1980, cit. Meuret, 2006). In addition, these children usually have different aspirations because they are less tied to the social, environmental, economic, and cultural conditions affecting the choice of the secondary school address (Giancola, 2006). In addition, undoubtedly enjoy better 'study' material conditions.

In short, one of the first causes of school failure and early school leaving lies in the socio-economic disadvantages of students. For example, we think of the underlying disadvantage of those students who suffer from severe cultural deprivation conditions that characterize their families where books and computers are virtually absent.

In any case, it should be added that the lack of books does not always depend solely on economic discomfort. In some cases, in fact, it can be determined by the low importance that families and their children acknowledge to this medium from the point of view of acquiring knowledge. In other words, it is possible that even where material conditions allow for the purchase of a computer, it is used for purely gaming purposes and the books are not purchased because they are considered useless.

Another aspect of cultural deprivation depends on the fact that some boys and girls, within their family or peers, speak solely in dialect. This, as it is easy to imagine, makes the relationship with the school institution and the daily interaction with classmates and classmates more difficult.

Numerous studies have also shown that parental education is one of the factors most affecting the performance levels of young students (Cecchi, 2006).

So far, we have referred to a number of conditions of objective disadvantage that literature indicates to us as possible causes of dispersal. In fact, as the analysis of second-degree secondary school data suggests, student motivations and their propensity to invest in culture and their families are also a major factor in exogenous causes.

Quantitative data analysis, unfortunately, can only provide an indication of the role played by individual motivations and how important they are in determining the continuation of studies and school success (see Gambetta, 1987). In fact, we must recognize that individual motivations exert some weight in deciding to pursue studies or, better, as we will see, in determining a degree of success

/ school failure. In other words, the lack of such motivations can ultimately be attributed to the scarcity of the ability of subjects to school education to ensure a stable and decorative work placement.

In short, if it is still true that in some cases the school is abandoned because of the need to obtain an immediate income, it is also true that, perhaps more often, such a decision is taken even when such a need is not so pressing.

In any case, the lack of strong motivations or concrete strategies regarding their own future may lead in some cases to a less weighty choice of higher education to follow and this can only increase the already strong discomfort experienced by Students at the beginning of a new cycle of studies, confirmed both in primary and secondary school.

Among other things, one must cite a certain tendency in Italy, which sees the choice of the upper secondary institution strongly related to the social origins of belonging (Giancola, 2006), with the students of professional institutes who, on average, score the worst performances record.

In any case, if the choice of the upper secondary school is ultimately the responsibility of young people and their families, it is important to consider the teacher guidance activities. These, in fact, may result in a set of secretive practices that may lead "to increase the social inequality of performance without improving the overall average level" (Duru-Bellat & Sauchaut, 2006, 112).

Regarding the possible endogenous causes of early school leaving, they have the effect of driving on the levels of success or school failure. For example, it has been shown that, in the same way as other conditions, "the classroom climate (quiet in the classroom, noise, wasted time, disturbances of any kind, negative behaviors by students) is a factor that is often indicated among the variables susceptible to influence school outcomes" (Demeuse & Baye & Straeten, 2006, 73).

That being said, we can only hypothesize that schools with strong discomforts struggle more than others to ensure more brilliant school performances or to involve and engage the younger students more effectively. In short, in a disadvantageous situation, the function of reducing school inequalities – as a welfare institution – cannot overcome the intended effects. There are several variables that can help to optimize the conditions in which the school's pedagogical function is performed: the quality and quantity of the infrastructure used, the level of teacher preparation, and the educational resources actually available.

Considering the simultaneous attention, at least in theory, to the exogenous endogenous causes, the study of dispersal in a given territorial context can become a concrete opportunity to reflect on the operation of the school in relation to the broader socio-economic system of which it is part.

But the opposite is also true. In fact, the study on dispersion can only benefit greatly from a wide range of land surveying practices and study and evaluation of the school institution. Practice, the latter that in the Italian school system still seems to find difficulties in affirmation.

The creation of a real welfare system must consider "operations" and "capabilities" (Sen, 1986) in addition to specific geographical characteristics to produce an education policy.

The relationship between early school leaving and social inequality is a classic topic for debate in sociology (Bourdieu, 1972; Parsons, 1972), although there is little consensus amongst experts. In addition, school education plays an even more important role when the labor market itself is facing serious imbalances. With the increase in the unemployment rate, in fact, it raises competition for available jobs, and it is obvious that under such conditions the weaker people (with less cultural and social capital) can make the most of their expenses.

It is essential to take into account the "agency" in order to comprehend social change through the morphogenesis of individual strategies in educational pathways (Giddens, 1991; Archer, 1995).

Differently from other models, which focus on economic development, the "human development paradigm" aims to provide everyone with access to the same opportunities (Nussbaum, 2012). Therefore, any change to the educational policy must consider the related socioeconomic context in which all stakeholders behave and justify their actions.

References

- Alheit, P. (2002). On a contradictory way to the learning society: a critical approach. In R. Edwards, N. Miller, N. Small & A. Tait (Eds.), *Supporting Lifelong Learning*, 3, (pp. 30-49), Routledge.
- Archer, M. S. (1995). *Realist social theory: The morphogenetic approach*. Cambridge university press.
- Argyris, C., & Schon, D. (1978). *Organizational learning: A theory of action approach*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Bourdieu, P., & Passeron, J. C. (1972). La reproduction. *Éléments pour une théorie du système d'enseignement*.
- Brint, S. (2013). The "Collective Mind" at Work A Decade in the Life of US Sociology of Education. *Sociology of Education*, 86(4), 273-279.
- Castells, M. (1996). *The rise of the network society*. Vol. I of The information age: Economy, society and culture. Massachusetts and Oxford: Blackwell.
- Checchi, D. (2006). Uguaglianza ed equità nel sistema scolastico italiano. *N. Bottani e L. Benadusi (a cura di), Uguaglianza e equità nella scuola, Erickson*.
- Demeuse, M., Baye, A., & Straeten, M. H. (2006). Lequità dei sistemi scolastici europei. *Uguaglianza e equità nella scuola*, 63-89.
- Douglas, M. (1986). *How institutions think*. Syracuse University Press.
- Suchaut, B., & Duru-Bellat, M. (2006). Organizzazione del sistema scolastico e disuguaglianze sociali di rendimento scolastico: gli insegnamenti dell'Indagine PISA 2000. *N. Bottani e L. Benadusi (a cura di), Uguaglianza ed equità nella scuola, Trento, Erickson*, 101-14.
- Dyke, M. (1997). Reflective learning as reflexive education in a risk society: empowerment and control?. *International journal of lifelong education*. 16(1), 2-17.
- Edwards, R. (1995). Behind the banner. Whither the learner society?. *Adults learning*, VI, 6, 187-189.
- Field, J. (2005). *Social capital and lifelong learning*. Policy Press.
- Flanagan, K., Uyarra, E., & Laranja, M. (2011). Reconceptualising the 'policy mix' for innovation. *Research Policy*, 40, 702-713.
- Florida, R. (1995). Toward the learning region. *Futures*, 27(5), 527-536.
- Gallino, L. (1978). *Dizionario di sociologia*. Unione Tipografico-Editrice Torinese.
- Gallino, L. (2007). *Il lavoro non è una merce. Contro la flessibilità*. Roma-Bari, Laterza.
- Gambetta, D. (1987). *Were they pushed or did they jump?: Individual decision mechanisms in education*. Cambridge University Press.
- Giancola, O. (2006). Indicatori dell'equità dell'istruzione in Italia. *N. Bottani & L. Benadusi (A cura di), Uguaglianza ed equità nella scuola*, 129-140.
- Giddens, A. (1984). *The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*. Univ of California Press.
- Goodson, I.F. (2013). *Developing Narrative Theory*, Routledge.
- Gouthro, P.A. (2006). Education for sale – at what cost?. In P. Jarvis (Eds.). *From Adult Education to the Learning Society*. XXI years from the International Journal of Lifelong Education, Routledge.
- Grusec, J.E., & Hastings, P.D. (2008). *Handbook of socialization: theory and research*. New York, Guilford.
- Griessler, E. (2014). Experts, policymakers and citizens: actor constellations and xenotransplantation policies in international comparison. *Xenotransplantation*, 21(2), 188-188.
- Jarvis, P. (Eds.) (2006). *From Adult Education to the Learning Society*. Routledge.
- Kuhn, M. (Eds.). (2007). *New society models for a new millennium: The learning society in Europe and beyond*. Peter Lang.
- Lautrey, J. (1980). *Classe sociale, milieu familial, intelligence* (Vol. 7). Presses universitaires de France.
- Law, G. (2012). Piaceri macchinici e interpellanze. *Tecnoscienza, Italian Journal of Science & Technology Studies*, 3(1), 95-118.
- Lemmonns, J., Carter, J., Grumblin, O., Morgan P. & Sabowski, E. (1992). An Integrated Learning Community to Increase Environmental Awareness. *Environmental History Review*, 16(1), 64-76.
- Longworth, N. (2006). *Learning cities, learning regions, learning communities: lifelong learning and local government*. Routledge.

Educational Institutions as Agents to Contrast the Social Inequalities

- Lupoli, N., (1999). Insuccesso scolastico e percezione di autoefficacia dei docenti. Un contributo di ricerca in un'area a rischio educativo. Cunti, A (a cura di). *La dispersione scolastica*, Pensa multimedia, Lecce 1999.
- Magro, E. & Wilson, J.R. (2013), Complex innovation policy system: Towards an evaluation mix. *Research Policy*, 42, 1647-1656.
- O. E. C. D. (2001). *OECD economic outlook*. OECD.
- Parsons, T. (1972). Culture and social system revisited. *Social Science Quarterly*, 253-266.
- Pawson, R. & Tilley, N. (1997). *Realistic Evaluation*, Sage.
- Rifkin, J. (2000). *The age of access: The new culture of hypercapitalism. Where All of Life is a Paid-For Experience*, Tarcher, New York.
- Sen, A. K., Delbono, F., & Zamagni, S. (1986). *Scelta, benessere, equità*. Il mulino.
- Sen, A.K. (1999). *Development as freedom*. Oxford University Press.
- Sen, A.K. (1997). *Choice, welfare and measurement*. Harvard University Press.
- Shavit, Y., & Blossfeld, H. P. (1993). *Persistent Inequality: Changing Educational Attainment in Thirteen Countries*. *Social Inequality Series*. Westview Press, 5500 Central Avenue, Boulder, CO 80301-2847.
- Simmons, J. (2013). Creating a learning society. *Incite*, 34(3), 27.
- Smith, B.L. (1991). Taking Structure Seriously: The Learning Community Model. *Liberal Education*, 77(2), 42-48.
- Tuijnman, A.B. (2002). Changing Notions of Lifelong Education and Lifelong Learning. *International Review of Education*, 48(1-2), 93-110.
- Van Der Zee, H. (2006). The learning society. In P. Jarvis (Eds.). *From Adult Education to the Learning Society*. XXI years from the International Journal of Lifelong Education, Routledge.
- Walters, S. (2009). Learning regions in lifelong learning. In P. Jarvis (Eds.). *The Routledge International Handbook of lifelong learning*. Routledge.
- Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice. Learning, meaning and identity*. Cambridge University Press.

Teaching at an internationalising UK university in the face of the marketisation of higher education*

Zeynep Gülşah Kani

1. Introduction

This paper deals with the mismatch between institutional and personal aims in the ‘international’ academics’ professional lives affected by the marketisation of the UK higher education (HE). This single overarching theme emerged in response to the research question: “What are academics’ perceptions about their experiences and challenges of teaching as ‘international’ staff who are speakers of English as an additional language (EAL) at an internationalising UK university?” Fifteen academics who were interviewed with a semi-structured format shared their professional stories and experiences of the phenomenon “being an ‘international’ academic/lecturer”. Participants found the factors related to the in-class experiences easier than the demands of broader university policies. The most cited factor affecting their teaching environment was the complex system of commercialising within universities at the institutional and broader levels. The points that were related to this challenge could be classified under three sub-headings: financial dependence on students and its impact on the demands on the academics, the imbalance between teaching and research and other administrative restrictions affecting their academic freedom. Before presenting the academics’ accounts, I discuss both the UK HE policy context and the evolution of internationalisation through a historical analysis. Then, I present the findings of this study in line with the concerns discussed in the backdrop and offer appropriate measures and suggestions to overcome the threats and to preserve the virtues of universities under the new dispensation of commercial aims.

2. A Historical Analysis of the UK HE Policy Context

In this section, I will first discuss both the UK higher education (HE) policy context and the evolution of internationalisation through a historical analysis. Consequently, I will elaborate the requirements placed on those responsible for teaching and learning so that the academics’ professional experiences in the sample institution coming through in the explicitation of data could be situated.

Internationalisation has come to be believed as being synonymous with the quest for quality and status in the UK HE, and evidence suggests that this issue is more dependent on government policy than is any other response to change (Humfrey, 2011: 649). This dominant discourse appears to be supported by the UK government, who emphasise the economic benefits of internationalising higher education, as evidenced by the two Prime Minister’s Initiatives (Fielden, 2011; DIUS, House of Commons Education and Skills Committee, as cited in Willis, 2010). Haigh makes the point brutally: “In theory, internationalisation is a process for the education of planetary citizens ... In practice, internationalisation is about income generation for cash-strapped higher education institutes” (2008: 427). In other words, the higher education sector is subsumed into the global economy as “Higher Education Inc. (ibid.). This resulted in teaching and learning in the university sector to be more closely aligned to national policy at present than may have been the case in recent times (ibid.), and this is the policy context in which the findings of this study regarding the international academics’ professional experiences are presented.

The very nature of HE learning and academic work is on both local or national and global levels (Sadlak, as cited in Humfrey, 2011). That is why the university is, of its essence, international (ibid.). Nevertheless, what tells much about the social, political and economic environment in which the university exists is the manner in which this international aspect is defined and valued (ibid.: 650). The stage that HE has now reached is described as the rise of a new kind of free trade. However, this free trade is in minds (Wildavsky, as cited in ibid.), for it is viewed as both a commodity and a service and is included in the general agreement on trade in services (GATS) (WTO, as cited in ibid.).

The history of the UK HE sector began some eight centuries earlier with the medieval universities drawing students from beyond the immediate region. It subsequently evolved from guild

organisations of teachers and scholars, with all the advantages of peripatetic autonomy, to institutions receiving patronage and material endowment, codified privileges and finally permanent accommodation in or near towns (Humfrey, 2011: 650). With the rapid increase in the numbers of universities in Europe, these institutions were already part of the interacting organisations which composed the emerging force of nationalism (Cobban, as cited in *ibid.*). Since then, the universities must have realised that “academic freedom, in any purist sense, was a chimera and that society would not tolerate or financially support academic groupings without exacting some kind of quantitative return” (*ibid.*).

After the growth in the number of civic universities, which were identified as national assets with the evolution and development of the industrial revolution during the following five centuries, the debate on the function of the university within the society ranged more widely to less specific and instrumental outcomes such as “raising the intellectual tone of society, cultivating the public mind, ... supplying true principles to popular enthusiasm” (Newman, as cited in Humfrey, 2011: 650). At this point, the expansion, and indeed continuation of emergent universities depended on a source of public sector income regularly and properly distributed by government. This led to the establishment of the University Grants Committee (UGC) in 1919, and this meant that “HE was recognised as a public, as well as an individual, economic benefit” (Humfrey, 2011: 651). In the 1970s, because of universities being significantly dependent on the taxpayer/electorate contribution from 1946 onwards, the government focussed on rising HE expenditure in line with the number of UK students and introduced an increase in fees for non-UK students, the presence of which has been recognised as a vital income stream just over 30 years later (*ibid.*). In 1980, the government and the universities faced off in a battle of political ideology when the former deemed “immigration caps to be both necessary for security and national manpower management”, while the universities saw them “as restricting academic mobility, university income and research ranking” (Humfrey, 2011: 652). With the strength of the government challenge, there was a clear shift in the concept of the role of universities from creations of the state to creatures of the nation state, or from the supported by the government to the supporters of the government (Newby 1999; Scott, as cited in *ibid.*: 653). With the introduction of the international fee for all non-EU students including Commonwealth members by the government legislation in 1981, Humfrey (*ibid.*) noted that:

The British universities, who had never suggested differential fees, and indeed had argued passionately against them, were now left to face a future with declining international student numbers and a reduced public sector subvention. It is possible that this was the moment that the UK HE system woke up to the importance of marketing and the idea of recruitment for, rather than selection of, international students.

The top priority for the universities to build the number of well-qualified international students back to the pre-1981 figure was achieved with their new marketing and promotion role (*ibid.*). This was followed by the Polytechnics, reaching the branding advantage of the ‘university’ in 1992, when they also secured the status and the income generation that international student recruitment provided (*ibid.*). In 1997, concerns were now about responsible recruitment and the commoditisation of HE; “institutional managers are beginning now to wake up to overseas students’ value as fee fodder” (Niven, as cited in *ibid.*: 656). There is a growing concern of the narrow focus of internationalisation activity, which is also related to the concept of “open commercialism” in the British universities, which is “a shift from “classical” internationalisation, stressing ideas of mutual understanding, towards a frankly cash benefit motive” (Chandler, as cited in *ibid.*: 657).

While government, “having in some sense compelled the universities to take this route, was little in evidence in this context over the next decade”, the work of the British Council was at arm’s length, yet connected to the government through the Foreign Office (*ibid.*: 654). In order to attract potential students in competition with the recruiters such as the USA, the government supported a dispensation that allowed international students in the UK HE sector to engage in valuable work experience in 1999 (*ibid.*). The universities demanding the amendment of this legal circumstance from the government were successful in that “the financial needs of these students were alleviated but many academics considered that students would have been better served, especially at Ph.D.

level, had they been free of the need to seek paid employment” (ibid.). All of the government interventions, centred on visas, UK Border Agency (UKBA) regulations, work permits and other immigration issues over the next eleven years, indicated that “the universities were national organisations although with international dimensions” (ibid.: 655) such as “international terrorism, pandemics, currency volatility and competition for services” (ibid.: 658). This is the stage where all students, academics and stakeholders share their experiences within the reality of the sample UK HE institution, and I hope that the accounts of participants in this study will provide remarkable feedback to such institutions as long as primary importance is given to “the acceptance of feedback and the willingness of institutions to work with that feedback to improve provision” (ibid.).

In a climate of increasing budgetary constraints due to the decline in government funding and the consequent need to generate income of their own, most UK universities have been transformed “from largely state-sponsored status into semi-independent institutions with a substantial responsibility for covering their own running costs” (Taylor & Braddock, 2005-6: 361). They are responding to the expanding demand from industry for commercially usable research through research partnerships; this trend as well as the worldwide increase in student demand is supported by government research funding policies (ibid.). In this commercialisation process, “internationalisation has been driven largely by the marketisation discourse that has come to prevail in HE over the past couple of decades” (De Vita & Case, 2003: 384-5). The marketisation discourse, based on a purchaser/provider model, requires treating education as a commodity to be packaged and sold on open national and international markets by institutions acting as enterprises (ibid.: 384). There are two problems which can be said to arise from the commercialisation process in each of the two main areas of university business- research and teaching (Taylor & Braddock, 2005-6: 361): “One problem concerns its effect on academic freedom and its consequent effect on the quality of university research. The other concerns the commercialisation of university teaching”. This has given rise to:

a major shift in UK HE towards increased accountability and greater managerialism and surveillance enforced ‘in the name of students’ through quality assurance systems. These procedures are designed to measure the performance, effectiveness or ‘efficiency’ of teachers as ‘sellers’ and the ‘quality’ of the ‘commodity’ with reference to the satisfaction of students as ‘customers’. Although rationalised in terms of ‘satisfying customer needs’, such standardisation results in a diminution of educational experience as overworked teaching staff struggle to deliver programmes over which they have less and less professional discretion in terms of content and modes of delivery (De Vita & Case, 2003: 392).

The marketisation discourse of internationalisation outdoes the academic-cultural climate of the UK policy statements whether explicitly stated or otherwise (Bolsmann & Miller, 2008; Koutsantoni, 2006; Naidoo, 2003; Naidoo & Jamieson, 2005; Yang, 2002; Walker, 2001). This is driven by the fact that universities need to establish their economic viability and place in university rankings in an era of funding cuts (Tian & Lowe, 2009). The findings of this study regarding international academics’ professional experiences are compatible with these concerns and views offered in a spirit of realism in the literature. Taylor and Braddock (2005-6: 361) assumed that the trend towards commercialisation is irreversible; however, they argued that:

(i) commercialisation can threaten academic freedom and, thereby, the quality of university research, (ii) that it can promote a false and damaging market-based conception of a university education, but (iii) that these are not inevitable effects of commercialisation, provided appropriate measures are taken by education leaders.

After presenting the findings of this study about the academics’ professional experiences in line with the concerns discussed in the backdrop here, I will offer appropriate suggestions to overcome the threats and to preserve the virtues of universities under the new dispensation of commercial aims lastly.

3. My Phenomenological Research Journey

My research aimed to explore the meaning several individuals attached to their lived experience of the phenomenon of being an international lecturer and to re-interpret these associated meanings. In

this sense, the phenomenon of interest identified in the present study is what it means to be an international lecturer as a speaker of EAL. Therefore, I have drawn on phenomenology both as a philosophy and a research methodology. I have adopted the philosophical notions of pure phenomenology while pondering on ontological and epistemological assumptions as a first-person experience. Methodologically, my research is in line with the “new” phenomenological tradition from the North American context, which came to be applied to the study of other people’s experience, and which is reported in the third person. As the new version of phenomenology is suited to my research questions, it has guided my methodological choice.

I have been inspired by Heidegger and Merleau-Ponty, who frequently invoke the idea that there is a “world always already there”, but who are also far from being objectivists (Crotty, 1998: 10-44). I have come to know constructionism and phenomenology as: “so intertwined that one could hardly be phenomenological while espousing either an objectivist or a subjectivist epistemology” (Crotty, 1998: 12). Both constructionism and phenomenology were in line with the thought that “objectivity and subjectivity need to be brought together and held together indissolubly”, and this is precisely what constructionism argues too, mirroring the concept of intentionality in phenomenology (ibid.: 44). To embrace this notion of intentionality means to reject both objectivism and subjectivism equally and to bring to the fore the “interaction between subject and object”, in and out of which meaning is born (Crotty, 1998: 44; van Manen, 1997: 20). Drawing on these notions of philosophical phenomenology, I too see the interaction between subject and object as inseparable.

The fifteen individual interviews were conducted over a period of approximately nine weeks. The academics who teach in various disciplines with different years of experience in their field at one university in the south of the UK were chosen according to a common point of selection criterion: speaking English as a second or an additional language. The reason why I focused on international staff in different disciplines is that the challenges that international teachers as speakers of EAL face in intercultural contexts may not be exclusive to one field, but common to all disciplines at internationalising universities.

Considering their profiles, they mostly had teaching experience both in their country of origin and in the UK, and from a wide range of disciplines, including both hard and soft sciences such as Computer Science, Engineering, Education, Business Studies, Languages, Politics, Law, Sociology. They were from various countries in Western, Southern and Eastern Europe, the Middle East, Africa, Southern Asia and the Far East. The participants included four women and eleven men. Ethical approval for the research study was granted by the Graduate School of Education’s Ethics Committee.

My main research instrument was in-depth semi-structured interviews concerned exclusively with the experiences and challenges of international academics. These were specifically about the meanings they describe as emerging from their pre-programme, current experiences of both in class and out of class lives and future plans relevant to their present lives. Such interviews particularly seemed suitable to investigate each participant’s lived experience -- of understanding and making sense of their positioning and being positioned as an ‘international’ staff. The processes of data collection included the piloting and main stages. I followed the guidelines that Hycner (as cited in Groenewald, 2004) suggested for the explicitation/analysis process, which has five “steps” or phases:

- 1) Bracketing and phenomenological reduction.
- 2) Delineating units of meaning.
- 3) Clustering of units of meaning to form themes.
- 4) Summarising each interview, validating it and where necessary modifying it.
- 5) Extracting general and unique themes from all the interviews and making a composite summary.

Now, what follows is the results of the thematic analysis of the 15 participants’ (international academics) accounts of professional experiences and encounters during their life and teaching journey in the UK.

4. Professional Experiences

Participants found the factors related to the in-class experiences easier than the demands of broader university policies. The most cited factor affecting their teaching environment was the complex system of commercialising within universities at the institutional and broader levels. The points that were related to this challenge could be classified under three sub-headings: financial dependence on students and its impact on the demands on the academics, the imbalance between teaching and research and other administrative restrictions affecting their academic freedom.

A dimension that impacted the way in which academics teach was the amount of fees paid by the students and the role given to the teachers. Anna commented on this in the context of D, her home country, and in England:

In D, you don't pay fees. Here we talk about consumers, and we talk about very specific expectations students have. They frighten me like "I'll come with my father or my lawyer if my marks are not what they expect". Things like "I have paid my fee, and I can't fail the course" is nothing you can argue in D because you are not - you pay a couple of hundreds of pounds for the bureaucratic organisation of course, but you don't pay fees for the study- Everybody can study in D.

She mentioned another factor associated with her teaching context and job stability: the power of student evaluations which stems from the financial dependence on students and the criterion of the government including student voice for supporting universities. Relating this to her past learning experiences as well as her current teaching context, she said:

When I was taught, there was no sense that the lecturer really thought about how I can support you on your learning- for example, here this is part of what we do because it is also part of what we are assessed to do so students' feedback goes to our feedback as the lecturer, so if I get a feedback that students can't follow what I am talking about, I have to justify that and it goes onto my records kind of thing. It has an implication on how I progress as a lecturer etc.

Concluding that universities are more independent of many concerns in her home country, she also highlighted that it does not mean that they do not care about their students; rather, that it provided the academics with more freedom to take initiatives in the class, such as asking a student who has not read the article to leave. She said she cannot ask people to leave here because it is much more "school-like" than a university. She then spoke about the 'additional role' of the lecturer in the UK to 'bring' students through the course, and also revealed what students expect here of a lecturer: 'a good and effective one' as "probably somebody who gets you through assignments as well but also who engages you or who finds ways for you to be able to follow". She differentiated between the university system in her own view and the current system which she likened to that of a high or secondary school, where teachers take a step-by-step guided approach towards fulfilling a set of goals or intended learning outcomes. In her own view, the university should be a much more open and, moneywise, independent space where creativity and agency are valued so that critical learners and educators who are willing to be within that system can construct or sometimes deconstruct knowledge and practice.

On prompting her about her thoughts as to whether an effective teacher can be defined differently in different places, Sara remarked that it really depends on one's perspective:

To me effective is effective, and from the teacher's perspective what they are teaching the student is exactly the same in every country; however, here everything is money. They DON'T CARE (with a highly rising tone) what the students are learning. All they care is 'ARE THEY GONNA GET ENOUGH MONEY?' They don't care about the rest. So, effectiveness is something they don't care. I'm stupid that I'm still teaching effectively. Half of the staff here have no motivation. They don't want to teach, and they do the minimum. Students are all aware of it, and they are saying this. That's why this department is not gonna survive for too long. It's going down now already.

This situation is the reverse of what Koz said, as his department was getting bigger in terms of the number of students each year, no matter how much the fees had risen. Therefore, it is important to be

mindful that each lecturer talked about the specific context of the department s/he worked in, while they had common experiences regarding the broader system of higher education.

Comparing and contrasting the systems in his country and in England, Paul also mentioned the controlling mechanism of the university which does not allow much space for the lecturer to take initiative about the time of classes – such as when he has a problem or a conference to go to, which requires the delay of the class. Under such a circumstance, he said:

Here you have to communicate this to many people and then you have to organise and get another lecturer instead temporarily, whereas in G (his country) you can just put a small note outside your door and you don't do the lecture or compensate it another time and nobody will complain more or less while here if you don't do a lecture there will be a lot of complaints, so you have to plan this much in advance here.

In a similar vein to Anna, Paul added that here the focus is on the university as an industrial sector; he related this to commercial purposes and the export of the education:

Everything is as a service for the students who are like customers. It is a huge difference for example between G and English Universities because here it is an industry you can say and you can feel the difference in this case. You see how here the university is considered an industry that you have to sell mainly abroad because it is a sector that is really important for Great Britain in general.

Supporting Anna, Sara and Paul, Julia clearly expressed how the commercialisation of universities decreases the quality of education:

That affects it a lot I think, the fact that it is all about getting in more students, more money and I find that students have to pay a lot more so they think they can buy their education and it is quite difficult sometimes to deal with students that think that they can come in and don't really have to do a lot of work but they will just get a diploma or a certificate because they have paid £9,000 for education and I don't like the fact that PhD students are paying students here. Yeah I think that is not a very good development.

She mentioned she would prefer the model in her country where a person doing a PhD gets paid as a member of staff- s/he is not a student. As a result of this system, she added: "There is a strong competition, and you get better PhDs for it, so the government pays a lot for universities and students pay less. It is therefore seen as more of a right rather than a commodity which you can buy." Thus, Julia identified two ways she could see of how a university functions:

There are two issues. There are the universities as a sort of academic place in a very romantic way. Because you are looking at global knowledge, it needs to be international "by definition" as a very romantic way. On the other hand, it is quite good at being a business, so you know internationally it is bringing in money and that's why on a business level that's their international strategy.

While Sylvia displayed how the university system -- with high fees -- plays a role in people's decision to get a higher education, Omar drew a comprehensive picture from the administrators' perspective, revealing how the business-like universities affect all the stakeholders, including teachers and students. He mentioned that universities have become a commercial environment with managers and administrators brought in to run the university instead of academics. Indeed, academics only make decisions based on numbers and statistics. As he elaborated:

If there are 5-10 students on a programme then it is deemed not economically viable from the administrative point of view to teach students 4 hours of lectures a week. It is not economical due to the amount of time that I give them because the return is less than what the university is putting in terms of staff salaries, rent for the rooms, the electricity bill, the gas bill and so on, so what the administrator will then come and tell me is that you should now reduce your teaching hour to do 2 hours per week instead of 4 because what you are doing is not economical, so they start...

Omar continued to tell more about the commercialised administrative system which also resulted in the centralisation of timetabling for the last few years. He recounted that timetabling used to be done locally, and the academics in his department would have all local rooms they could book as they

wished in the building. As the timetable was local, they could control it, and all academics of the department were within the building. He told that later the central timetabling was eventually run by a private external company on behalf of the university, so that they could optimise the efficient use of any rooms in the building. In addition to the changes in administration, Omar observed that there was another change about the academic voice and freedom:

The board of the members of academics is now diminishing and all the instructions are coming from higher up and propagated down to members of staff rather than the other way round, so it's a one way communication.

Similar to Omar, Julia demanded the university staff to have a higher-stake status within policy makers. She stated:

What good universities would do is to give people more academic freedom to develop interesting ideas without saying "Oh, no, we should do this" because it is a business, if you need to have blue sky thinking.

She illustrated how some of the brightest people working in universities in the country are often portrayed as "being deranged, sitting in their offices with their big hair and like that 'urgh' (imitating)". She discovered that the amount of money that the government is spending on academic research "very very little" compared to a lot of other countries in the world. She considered telling academics "Oh we want you to study this because it is for our economic benefit" as a very short sighted idea. In parallel to Julia's concerns, Omar gave an interesting answer to my question as to whether he is finding the work he has to do okay: "Yes, it is enjoyable if I am allowed to do it". He talked about how he is not sometimes allowed to do it because of administrative restrictions, such as the contact hours with the students, the lack of resources or facilities for teaching -- sometimes because of the limited amount of money available for teaching as most of it goes towards research equipment for example. He said that he would like to spend more time teaching students but he cannot because his time is limited, and he has to teach a set number of hours that are prescribed by the administrators. This, he said, was the same in all institutions because of the emphasis on research, especially for the top 20 universities.

A lack of trust is another issue within the managerial system of the commercialised university. Relationships in this system are based on the implementations of the predetermined sets of missions, which leads to a tight controlling mechanism. Saroj attributed this to the lack of internal motivation and care in response to the demands of the system and, instead, the driving force of administration with monetary interests and said experiments have shown the lack of trust leads to untrustworthy behaviour: "If you don't trust anyone and monitor me, then I am more likely to not be trustworthy." He exemplified the signs of the lack of trust by the procedures followed for the double-grading and checking of exams that have to be tested by two people, even if you are a professor. He said that there is a lack of trust at every level where "people are monitoring people who are monitoring people" and that no one is doing their job. Another example he gave was related to the influence administrators have on the selection of staff to join the university, despite their lack of expertise within any given academic department and the lack of knowledge about the candidate's work or research, or research or how s/he interacts with the department:

The dean played a bigger role in hiring senior faculty than the senior professors which is bizarre, which is one of the reasons amongst the few things that upset me in my previous university. It is a question of more efficiency or of what works. How can a person who does physics make decisions or evaluate choices on behalf of another department? It doesn't make sense.

Samir made a critique of the whole education system about the role of the universities today, and it invoked the question as to whether universities have a philosophy of education beyond the concern of meeting the demands of the economy. When it comes to the start of the commercial universities, Omar recounted how he felt this all began when the university realised that the government had started cutting research funding to universities and that the limited funding forced universities that want to remain as a top 20 or a top 10 university to fight for survival so that money from the government will continue to come in for research within the next 5-10 years. At the same time, it

gave universities an opportunity to ask for tuition fees to be increased up to £9,000 for them to survive. So, as Omar said, “they took something and gave them something else to try and balance it, and the only thing they probably needed to do to survive was to ignore teaching, so teaching started to slowly go down and then it started picking up” as he said. He associated this change with the effect of the research assessment system at the university. Samir, Sylvia and Joe also referred to the difficulty of finding a balance between teaching and research, as promoted by the universities, and the way in which they are forced to work in this performative culture of the neo-liberal university.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Considering the challenges academics encountered according to the analysis of their accounts, it can be concluded that there is a conflict between what the academics think a university or an effective lecturer should be for or do, and the current university system, which is dependent on economic-centred governmental policies. These economic concerns reflect on the amount of student fees. As a result, these perpetuate the hierarchy among the universities in the ranking tables. On the other side, it is understood from an international academic perspective that they feel pressurised under these demands from the institutions -- the policies of which are reinforced by the global economic forces -- and that they feel themselves like voiceless implementers who are supposed to play the game according to the rules stated by Omar, Sara, Anna and Julia. The problem they detected stems from the one-way communication which excludes the voice of academics and puts them under the pressures of bringing more research income and leading the students through their degree program. In addition to the challenges participants expressed in the earlier sections, there was a strong emphasis on the following aspects of the higher education system to be dealt with in order to be more efficient: the status and the academic freedom that university teachers and researchers have in policy-making, too much emphasis on the business model rather than quality, the imbalance between teaching and research for the sake of ranking tables, the administrative restrictions, the lack of trust resulting in heavy bureaucracies. All academics from both hard and soft sciences inevitably felt forced to allocate teaching a second priority to their research, as they struggled to meet increasing demands and respond to the implementation of the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) rating system. Nevertheless, they wished to conduct teaching effectively hand-in-hand with their research interests, and many found that their research experiences and knowledge largely informed the content and style of their teaching practice. Overall, the effects of the marketised university system on academic freedom, research, teaching and administration were obvious in all academics’ interviews, regardless of the disciplinary differences.

The challenges related to the professional experiences of academics are not exclusive to the sample institution but common in today’s universities; however, there are possible measures to be taken to overcome such difficulties, which might be suggested to the Vice-Chancellor of the sample institution. There is a noteworthy proposal about moving from “internationalisation” to an approach called global perspectives, which means, as Schoorman (2000) suggests, an approach that challenges dominant notions of learning and encourages a balanced representation of perspectives from around the world. This approach includes the following perspectives (Bourn, Mackenzie, & Shiel, as cited in Bourn, 2011: 566): “understanding our situation in a wider context, making connections between local and global events, developing skills and knowledge to interpret events affecting our lives, learning from experiences elsewhere in the world and identifying common interests and exploring wider horizons”. Appropriate measures are also needed to be taken *for a stronger emphasis on* the status and the academic freedom that university teachers and researchers have in policy-making, transformative/ personal/ strong internationalisation in which communities are genuinely open to debate without prejudice the knowledge & ideas of all members *rather than too much emphasis on* the business model instead of quality, teaching and research for the sake of ranking tables, weak/ institutional internationalisation which invites those from ‘outside’ to accept the host’s knowledge and ethics (Sanderson, 2004; Turner and Robson, 2008; Appadurai, as cited in Tian and Lowe, 2009). I would suggest the current HE policies and strategies be revised in line with further critical research on the responses of the stakeholders, including both “home and international” academics and

students through both large-scale studies that identify possible cause-effect relationships and major trends, and micro-scale inquiries into the personal stories, lived experiences and wider discourses that penetrate below the surface.

6. References

- Bolsmann, C. & Miller, H. (2008). International student recruitment to universities in England: discourse, rationales and globalization. *Globalization, Societies and Education*, 6(1), 75-88. doi: [10.1080/14767720701855634](https://doi.org/10.1080/14767720701855634)
- Bourn, D. (2011). From internationalisation to global perspectives. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 30(5), 559-571. doi: [10.1080/07294360.2011.598447](https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2011.598447)
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research meaning and perspective in the research process*. London: Sage.
- de Vita, G., & Case, P. (2003). Rethinking the internationalisation agenda in UK higher education. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 27(4), 383-398. doi: [10.1080/0309877032000128082](https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877032000128082)
- Fielden, J. (2011). *Getting to grips with internationalisation: Resources for UK Higher Education Institutions*. London: LEFHE and the Committee of University Chairs.
- Groenewald, T. (2004). A phenomenological research design illustrated. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 3(1), Article 4.
- Haigh, M. (2008). Internationalisation, planetary citizenship and higher education. *Compare*, 38, 427-40. doi: [10.1080/03057920701582731](https://doi.org/10.1080/03057920701582731)
- Humfrey, C. (2011). The long and winding road: a review of the policy, practice and development of the internationalisation of higher education in the UK. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and practice*, 17(6), 649-661. doi: [10.1080/13540602.2011.625140](https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2011.625140)
- Koutsantoni, D. (2006). What is Internationalization? In Fielden, J. & Koutsantoni, D. London (Eds.), *The Leadership and Development Challenges of Globalisation and Internationalisation* (pp. 10-14). Leadership Foundation for Higher Education, UK.
- Naidoo, R. (2003). Repositioning higher education as a global commodity: Opportunities and challenges for future sociology of education work. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 24, 249-59. doi: [10.1080/01425690301902](https://doi.org/10.1080/01425690301902)
- Naidoo, R. & Jamieson, I. (2005). Empowering participants or corroding learning? Towards a research agenda on the impact of student consumerism in higher education. *Journal of Educational Policy*, 20, 276-281. doi: [10.1080/02680930500108585](https://doi.org/10.1080/02680930500108585)
- Sanderson, G. (2004). Existentialism, globalisation and the cultural other. *International Education Journal*, 4(4), 1-20.
- Schoorman, D. (2000). What really do we mean by 'internationalisation'? *Contemporary Education*, 71(4), 1-7.
- Taylor, P. A. & Braddock, R. (2005/2006). Commercialisation and the function of the university: Two problems. *International Journal of Learning*, 12(8), 361-367.
- Tian, M. & Lowe, J. (2009). Existentialist internationalisation and the Chinese student experience in English universities. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 39(5), 659-676. doi: [10.1080/03057920903125693](https://doi.org/10.1080/03057920903125693)
- Turner, Y. & Robson, S. (2008). *Internationalising the university*. London: Continuum.
- van Manen, M. (1997). *Researching lived experience: human science for an action sensitive pedagogy* (2nd Edition). London, Ontario: The Athlone Press.
- Walker, P. (2001). Market or circus? Reflections on the commodification of British Higher Education from the international student experience. *Education and Social Justice*, 3(2), 33-39.
- Willis, I. (2010). *How important is the local when thinking global? Internationalisation at a research-led university* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Lancaster University, Lancaster, United Kingdom.
- Yang, R. (2002). University internationalisation: Its meanings, rationales and implications. *International Education*, 13(1), 81-95. doi: [10.1080/14675980120112968](https://doi.org/10.1080/14675980120112968)

The Impact Of Bureaucratic Culture On Educational Innovations In Higher Education: Views Of Turkish Academicians

Aysun Çalışkan, Chang Zhu

Introduction

In today's world, higher education is the most important dynamic which makes a contribution to both social and local mobility in the world (Çetinsaya, 2014). Kuh ve Witt (2000) defines culture in higher education as the norms, values, beliefs, customs, traditions that are transferred, communicated or passed along in or outside the university. One of the problems that could arise in universities is bureaucratic culture which limits the flow of information. So, a subordinate employee has to decide on information without taking the initiative and refer the situation to the superior in terms of risks posed, as a result he has to apply legislation completely. To be able to develop themselves, individuals and organizations are required to access to accurate, current and timely information and take decisions on the basis of this information (Senge, 2006). The relations between bureaucracy and educational innovation are very tight because universities have the capacity of being in the center of innovation activities all over the world. Hypothetically, under less formality, and fewer rules and procedures, academic staff will turn out to be more innovative. So organizations are attempting to discharge the imaginative soul through battling bureaucracy and centralization. If the bureaucracy is left aside, creativity and innovation should boom. (Eriş, 2013).

The current changes in the twenty-first-century university provide the relevance of the research projects as issues of interest to stakeholders. Relative to the many types of higher education institutions, higher education institutions face extreme operating conditions in Turkey. Turkish higher education institutions have been vigorously administered and directed since a military overthrow in 1980 through the Higher Education Council have been heavily supervised and regulated (COHE). Under these circumstances, it is profoundly difficult for universities in Turkey to become innovative and separate themselves. University academicians and innovation activities are important instruments of higher education that have indispensable characters.

This study is focused on examining the impact of bureaucratic organizational culture on educational innovations in higher educational institutions from the point of academic staff's views. Below, are first introduced the concepts of organizational culture, bureaucratic culture and educational innovations, and then the conceptual relationship between bureaucratic culture and educational innovations will be presented.

Organizational Culture

Culture in an organization characterizes the variables for alluring, advanced and undesirable practices. Social limits in an association backtrack to the organizers of the association and their profound convictions, suppositions and demeanor towards clients, contenders, society, workers, and so forth (Koç, 2014). The idea is that organizational culture helps understanding and examining the triggers that make an instructive association such as a college or a school to get organized, create, and perform. It additionally permits recognition of conceivable courses for colleges and schools to enhance administration, fabricate improvement and change techniques(Lacatus, 2013).

According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), there are four types of organizational culture: Clan, Adhocracy, Market, and Bureaucracy.

- Clan cultures are like family which focus on "doing things together."
- Adhocracy cultures are dynamic which focus on "doing things first."
- Market cultures are goal oriented which focus on "getting the job done."
- Bureaucratic cultures are formalized by rules which focus on "doing things right."

This study deals with bureaucratic organizational culture.

Bureaucratic Organizational Culture

Bureaucratic organizational culture is hierarchically structured and logics oriented. Roles in the organization are more important than the staff in these positions and the staff are defined according to their determined roles. The organizations engage people who are suitable for the defined roles. So the organization tries to protect its being. Staff are expected to submit to the rules and superiors. Staff should just accomplish whatever the superior expects. There is no need for the staff to add something from themselves (Ergün, 2007). The most important proficiency in bureaucratic organizations is organizational performance. This means that the more bureaucratic an organization is, the more effective it becomes. (Cameron ve Whetten, 1996)

Bureaucracy concentrates on the objectives and purposes of the establishment, qualities proficiency, viable supervisory attitudes, and financial obligation. (Kezar& Eckel, 2000). The communication and the chain of command are hierarchically located from top to bottom. Many of the subordinates keep the information from the superiors and do not have a part in the decision process (Gökçe, 2008). In bureaucratic organizations, because of the division of labor all the tasks have been turned into a detailed business. This way everyone knows their limits of the tasks and concentrates on them. This division reduces innovations and decreases struggle in many jobs (Birnbaum, 1988). Everything is determined by the rules in the bureaucratic structure. This feature predetermines who is going to do the tasks, when to do the tasks and how to find the solutions to problems. Such issues make the organizations get routinized. It is assumed that these routines bring openness, certainty, continuity in action to organizations (Eryılmaz, 2002). Individuals cannot be treated personally and the personality of the officer and his position are separated from each other. Legal powers are used to carry out just for works within certain office tasks (San,1971).

Centralism, hierarchical control, coordination, and communication are used to achieve the objectives set out in the official form. The biggest weakness of the system is its being closed and introverted. The main focus is to deal with what is going on inside instead of what is out. Bureaucratic affairs, naturally, affect academicians and their time in a negative way (Odabaşı, 2010).

Innovation and Educational Innovation

Innovation is defined as the process of making changes (Towndrow, Silver & Albright, 2010). According to Damanpour (1991), innovation is a new idea starting with creativity and involving practices which are adopted to a team by an organization

Educational innovations are expected to face up to many conceptual and practical issues surrounding effective educational change. Innovation design, the process of implementing an idea or program, structures new to the people can be among educational innovations (Fullan, 1991). According to Cohen and Ball (2007), educational innovation is a journey from current practice to a new strategy which means innovation in educational policies, practices, curriculum design and implementation, assessment regimes, pedagogical technologies and resources, teacher capacities.

The Impact of Bureaucratic Culture on Educational Innovations

To have the capacity to make educational innovations, universities need to give careful consideration to the innovation orientation, objective improvement of the organization, the community oriented environment among the individuals, and the leadership to structure and support innovations (Zhu &Engels, 2014). However, the conditions in bureaucracy are discovered to be controlled by a drive for efficiency and control, and improper for innovativeness. In bureaucratic structure; expanded professionalization, decentralization, more liberated correspondences, pivot of assignments, endeavors at constant rebuilding, adjustment of the motivating force framework, and changes in numerous administration rehearsals are applied to expand creativity (Thompson, 1965).

Higher Education in Turkey

In Turkey, higher education institutions include the following: Universities, Institutes of High Technology, Post Secondary Vocational Schools, Other Higher Education Institutions (Military and

The Impact Of Bureaucratic Culture On Educational Innovations In Higher Education

Police Academies). There are two types of universities in Turkey, namely State and Non-profit Foundation Universities. The number of higher education institutions in Turkey is 190 in total.

In 1981, the organization of higher education in Turkey was extensively rebuilt with the new Higher Education Law (No.2547). The system accordingly got centralized with all higher education institutions being attached to the Council of Higher Education extension of higher education all through the nation was accomplished, application to advanced education was centralized and a central university exam and placement were presented (COHE, 2014). As a result, the system became complicated. In these days, the system is more or less the same.

Ideological conflicts in the system add more complexity and difficulty on top of inefficiencies in universities (Koç, 2014). There is an existence of troubled university autonomy understanding and universities do not make themselves accountable to the public. They have a strengthened attitude that universities are accountable to Council of Higher Education (COHE) and other bureaucratic institutions. So universities are losing strong relations with the community that makes it impossible to do something for the sake of the community. The current system is quite centralized in terms of authority and responsibility. In many parts of the world the responsibilities of planning, regulation and supervision are given to university itself not to a bureaucratic institution like Council of Higher Education in Turkey (Özer, Gür & Küçükcan, 2010). As part of the bureaucratic structures, universities have a tight network of relations with the government of each period. The democratization of academic studies is indispensable to quality higher education. However, it is impossible to provide the scientific transformation in a bureaucratic environment that is involved in the internal affairs, constitutes a huge flood of documents and creates unnecessary workload. To become innovative, universities should be supportive, creative, flexible for both academicians and other staff (Odabaşı, 2013).

Research Questions

It is attempted to examine the impacts of bureaucratic organizational cultural variables on educational innovations in higher education. The main research questions are:

RQ1: What are bureaucratic organizational cultural features as perceived by Turkish academicians?

RQ2: What are the teachers' views about the implementation of educational innovations?

RQ3: How does bureaucratic organizational culture affect teachers' views about educational innovations?

Method

Participants

In this research purposive sampling model was used. In purposive sampling, the sample is thus consisted of people who are interested and exclude those who do not suit the purpose in the beginning of this sampling (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2013). So, the sample is intended to be selected from different types and levels of universities in Turkey. In this study, maximum variation sampling is used. In this technique, a small number of people or cases that maximize -not generalize- the diversity relevant to the research question are selected (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2013). So, the sample of this research comprises 15 Turkish academic staff working in 10 different state universities in Turkey. The staff participating the interview is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Information

Lec.	Title			Tenure of Office			Age		Sex	
	Res. Ass.	Ass. Prof.	Asso. Prof.	2-10	10-25	30-39	40-49	50-59	Female	Male
5	4	5	1	11	4	12	2	1	10	5

Interview

In the study, research data has been collected through interview by a semi- structured interview form which has been prepared by the researchers. The interview form is both in English and Turkish. Turkish language experts who know English and Turkish have checked the questions. The pilot interview has been made with two Turkish academic to see whether questions serve for the aim of the study. Then answers have been generated from the responses.

In terms of reliability, the study has been sustained by two measurement and evaluation experts, similar researches are mentioned and methods have been clarified in a detailed way In terms of validity, approval of participants and colleagues have been received, direct quotes have been included in the report.

Data Collection

According to academic staff's availability, researchers have had interviews. Academicians have first answered the main question and to be able to refine the main questions, sondas have been delivered. In the interviews, audio and note-taking methods are used together.

Data Analysis

Data gathered by qualitative methods have been determined with descriptive analysis and content analysis. In descriptive analysis, direct quotes are offered habitually to mirror the perspectives of the participants' views (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). First of all, the records and notes have been deciphered by the researchers in frame creation phase. One of the interviews in written forms has been chosen through impartial assignment and the field expert has drawn a correlation between audio recording and written forms. The composed expressions are sent to the participants to acquire that written words belong to them and the last format to composed expression has been concluded as indicated by the participants.

Content analysis is a procedure for categorisation which is supposed to classify, summarize and tabulate the verbal data (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2013). In the content analysis phase, the researchers and two measurement and evaluation experts have read and grouped the interview data. Later, they have arranged the interview data under the same theme. The direct quotations and opinions of the participants are set in order to mirror the views of the participants. Moreover, absolute frequency of the views according to themes and percentages have been ascertained.

Results

The findings are presented in four sections. In each one, there are questions, tables and quotations.

Results regarding the organizational culture and the bureaucratic culture

Q_{1.1}: How do you think of your university's organizational culture?

Table 2. *Organizational culture in the participants' university*

Views	f	%
There is a supportive, creative organizational culture in my university	2	13,3
There is not a supportive, creative organizational culture in my university	13	86,6
There is no partnership in values, norms, principles	12	79,9
There is a presence of alignment (cliques).	8	53,3

When the Table 2 is analyzed, it can be seen that there is not a supportive, creative culture in universities studied. Academic staff do not have an association with values, norms and principles. So, informal groups among academic staff are created. This result may be because of organizational culture's being unproductive. The opinions of P₂ regarding this question are given below:

The Impact Of Bureaucratic Culture On Educational Innovations In Higher Education

(P_Z): “...If the organizational culture is not supportive, staff in the organization doesn't speak the same language. There isn't agreement in values and norms. ...”

Q_{1.2}: Is there a bureaucratic culture? If you think your university is bureaucratic, How and why?

Table 3. Bureaucratic organizational culture in the participants' university

Views	f	%
There is a bureaucratic culture in my university	13	86,6
There is not a bureaucratic culture in my university	2	13,3
There is not a successful superior/subordinate relationships	12	79,9
Organization is adjusted according to rules, hierarchy	10	66,6

When the Table 3 is analyzed, it can be seen that organizational culture in most universities is bureaucratic. It may become possible for universities to have rules, hierarchy and closed communication in their organizational culture according to the findings. The opinions of P_H regarding this question are given below:

P_H: “... The relations between subordinates and superiors are weak. The existence of hierarchy is visible. If staff is ideologically close to subordinates, they are given privileges. The relations with executives are distant. ...”

Results regarding educational innovations

Q₂: What is your opinion on educational innovations in your university? What is the current status of educational innovations in your university?

Table 4. Educational innovation in the universities

Views	f	%
Educational innovations mean technological innovation	12	79,9
Supports to innovation is not continuous	8	53,3

When the Table 4 is analyzed, it can be seen that educational innovation means technological innovation in Turkish universities. However, according to Cohen and Ball (2007), educational innovation is a journey from current practice to a new strategy which means innovation in educational policies, practices, curriculum design and implementation, assessment regimes, pedagogical technologies and resources, teacher capacities. So, bureaucratic organizational culture in universities does not give any opportunities to academic staff to make innovations. According to the table, academic staff can not get supports to innovations consistently, so academic staff may lose motivation. The opinions of P_E regarding this question are given below:

P_E: “...Innovations made are the pursuits of technological innovations and they are all imported versions. ...”

Results regarding the relationship between bureaucratic organizational culture and teachers' views about and implementation of educational innovations

Q_{3.1}: What is the relationship between organizational culture and educational innovations? In what ways do bureaucratic organizational culture affect educational innovations?

Table 5. Relationship between organizational culture and educational innovation

Views	f	%
Organizational culture's being productive and open affect the level of educational innovation.	12	79,9
Relationship between subordinate and superior is weak	10	66,6
Division of labor facilitates the progress of the work	8	53,3
Rules determine everything and facilitate innovation	6	39,9
Rules do not determine everything and prevent educational innovations	7	46,6

When the Table 5 is analyzed, it can be seen that in a productive and open organizational culture, it may become easier for academic staff to be more innovative. As seen on the table, relationships between superior and subordinate is weak which may cause close communication. In organizations staff should know what to do; however, while dividing labor superiors should be fair. According to findings, there are rules in bureaucratic organizations. %46,6 of the participants state that rules are not necessary while %39,9 state that rules are necessary. The percentages of two views are very close. Academic staff may have some doubts about rules. It may be essential to set rules, but rules shouldn't control every part of the organization. It should just determine routine regulations and give space to the staff for being able to decide on their own. The opinions of P_D and P_R regarding this question are given below:

PD: "... If values are given to education, innovation is supported in an organization, it gets really hard to unsettle this organization but easy to make innovations. Everyone should be fair while dividing labor. All mentioned above can be just achieved with a qualified manager. ..."

PR: "... People who are setting and applying rules are different, which makes climate get differential. ..."

Q_{3.2}: What does your university do to support your educational innovations?

Table 6. Difficulties in educational innovations process

Views	f	%
I cannot find the support for educational innovations	6	39,9
Needs are determined from top to bottom	9	59,9
We are losing our motivations	9	59,9
We create informal groups	9	59,9
I do not encounter difficulties	1	6,6

When Table 6 is analyzed, it can be seen that there is not a balance in division of needs. The most importance is first given to superior's needs. Subordinates cannot find the support they require for educational innovations. So, they lose their motivation and form informal groups. It is thought that bureaucratic organizations may cause people encounter difficulties in educational innovations because of limited support. The opinions of P_N, P_S regarding this question are given below:

P_N: "... Administrators should be persuaded and people who are not following them have to use a language according to their expectations. ..."

P_S: "... We are forming informal groups to be able solve this problem and increase motivation. Thus, we are removing intimidation.. ..."

Q_{3.3}. : What are the opportunities for educational innovations in your university?

Table 7. *The opportunities for educational innovations in their university*

Views	f	%
The number of library resources is sufficient	10	66,6
The number of library resources should be increased	5	33,3

When table 7 is analyzed, it can be seen that there are enough resources in libraries which may be a good path to be able to make educational innovations. The opinions of P_H regarding this question are given below:

P_H: "... In my university, research databases , resources and library facilities are in good case, which advantages in the sense to follow the cases in educational innovations nationally/ internationally. ..."

Discussion and Conclusion

University organizations have a complex structure consisting of people from different subcultures. There is a unique culture in this organization consisting of administrators, teachers and students. However, these organizations depending on the differences in purpose and input have various features. In general, universities are set up to do educational and scientific researches. Universities should have a creative and supportive culture to be able to achieve their aim. Here are some significant organizational culture elements that a university must have: scientific work environment, scientific competition, non-scientific relations and multi-faceted communication channels, teamwork, cooperation and coordination with management, flexibility, adaptability to change and mutual relations with students (Bakan, 2004). These elements make it easier for organizations to research, share, save and transfer the information to concerned groups in complex, unstable and uncertain situations. However, bureaucratic organizations that are forced to work under the rules set beforehand, rationality, impersonality, objectivity and productivity principles instead of change or innovation and to save the status quo create intellectual models opposite to learning and innovation.

Results in this study show that there is not a creative, supportive organizational culture in Turkish higher education because of bureaucratic organizational culture. Some of the featured properties are hierarchical relations, unsuccessful superior/subordinate communication, a central control, being full of rules. The decisions are taken according to time and individual and those who set the rules and apply are different, which lowers motivation among academic staff. So, this culture prevents educational innovations. In Turkish higher education educational innovations means technological innovations, which means educational change in educational policies, practises implementations in literature. It is promising for educational innovations that libraries in Turkish universities are efficient in terms of resources and databases.

Organization culture of universities should be reflected by an innovative culture and be able to increase academic staff's motivation, job satisfaction and ability to make innovations. In an innovative culture, organizational commitment increase and as a result, performance, research and development capacity arise.

References

- Bakan, D. (2004). *Örgüt Kültürü Teorik ve Ampirik Yaklaşım*. İstanbul: Aktüel.
 Birnbaum, R. (1988). *How Colleges Work: The Cybernetics of Academic Organization and Leadership*. San Francisco: The Jossey-Bass.

- Cameron, K. & Whetten, D. (1996). Organizational Effectiveness and Quality: The Second Generation. *Handbook of Theory and Research*, 11, ss. 265–306.
- Cameron, K., & Quinn, R., (1999). *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture*. New York: Addison-Wesley.
- COHE (2014). Higher Education System in Turkey. <http://www.yok.gov.tr/Documents>.
- Cohen, D. K., & Ball, D. L. (2007). Educational Innovation And The Problem Of Scale. In Schneider & S.-K. McDonald (Eds.), *Scale-Up In Education: Ideas In Principle* (1, 19–36). Plymouth: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Çetinsaya, G. (2014). *Büyüme, Kalite, Uluslararasılaşma: Türkiye Yükseköğretimi için Bir Yol Haritası, Yükseköğretim Kurulu Yayın No: 2014/2*. Eskişehir: Anadolu Üniversitesi.
- Eriş, A. 2013, *Legal And Administrative Constraints to Innovation in Universities*. International Seminar “Innovative Approaches To Education in The Private Higher Education Sector” Universidad Europea, Madrid, Spain.
- Ergün, E. (2007). *Kurum Kültürünü Analiz Etmede Quinn Ve Cameron’un Rekabetçi Değerler Analizi*, 15. Yönetim Ve Organizasyon Kongresi, 266–271.
- Eryılmaz, B. (2002). *Kamu Yönetimi*. İstanbul: Erkam.
- Fullan, M. G. (1991). *The New Meaning of Educational Change*. London: Cassel Education.
- Gökçe, A. T. (2008). Bürokrasi Üzerine Düşünceler. *Üniversite ve Toplum*, 8,4.
- Kezar, A. and Eckel, P. (2000), *The Effect of Institutional Culture on Change Strategies in Higher Education: Universal Principles or Culturally Responsive Concepts*, Report No. HE 033 574, ERIC ED 446 719.
- Kuh, D. & Witt, J. (2000). Culture in American Colleges and Universities. In Brown II, M. C. (Edt.). *Organization And Governance in Higher Education ASHE Reader Series*, Boston: Pearson Custom.
- Lacatus, L. (2013). Organizational Culture in Contemporary University. *Social And Behavioral Sciences*, 76, 421 – 425.
- Odabaşı, Y. (2010). Bürokratik Üniversiteden Girişimci Üniversiteye. *Cumhuriyet Bilim-Teknoloji Dergisi*, 24, 1238,19.
- Odabaşı, Y.(2013). Demokratik Yapıda Üniversite Düş Mü?. <http://www.koseyazisioku.Com/Milliyet/Dusunenlerin-Dusuncesi/>.
- San, C.(1971). *Max Weber’de Hukukun Ve Meşru Otoritenin Sosyolojik Analizi*. Ankara : İktisadi ve İdari İlimler Akademisi.
- Senge, P. (2006). *The Fifth Discipline*. USA: Crown Business.
- Thompson, V.A. (1965). Bureaucracy And Innovation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 10, 1, 1-20.
- Yıldırım, A. & Şimşek, H. (2013). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin.
- Zhu, C. & Engels, N. (2014). Organizational Culture And Instructional Innovations in Higher Education: Perceptions and Reactions of Teachers and Students. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 42(1) 136–158.

Validity And Reliability Study Of The Scale Of Managerial Effectiveness

Serap Özdemir, Nejat İra, Hasan Arslan, Aynur Geçer

1. Introduction

Political, social, cultural, economic or technological changes that society has experienced over time have also forced organizations to change to meet people's need. It is clear that the change in the organizations must be or should be much faster in our times when people are able to access information without knowing time and place, and science and technology are moving at a dizzying pace. Organizational structures need to be brought to the top of their managerial effectiveness and order to keep pace with the evolving developments and to operate effectively and efficiently. This is fairly important in terms of training organizations that provide human resources for gathering.

It is possible to realize objectives set for the organization and use the management processes effectively (Pirson and Lawrence, 2010, s.53). This is the job of the manager. Effective management takes place with effective managers. Organizations have to be open to innovations to develop self-discipline to be effective (Mullins, 2010, s. 475).

According to Karlı (2004, s.93); the manager who has to be influential on his organization before all else must be a good model for those who work with right behaviours. The level of effectiveness of the manager is what the organizational presence means for the organization. Another feature that makes the effective manager unobtainable is that the manager has a vision. Through the vision of the manager, employees who are aware of the goal to be achieved will be more productive.

In order for the organization to achieve success, managers need to use managerial functions such as supervision, communication, influence, planning and decision making effectively (Olum, 2004, s.3).

1.1. Managerial Effectiveness In School Administration

The transformations of organizational effectiveness into a concept status of the structure has been realized in the 1980's (Henry, 2011, s.25). This concept related to issues such as accessing the necessary resources for the organizations, absorbing them, and realizing the goals as a result (Federman, 2006; cited by Ashraf and Kadir, 2012, s.80). The organizational effectiveness of the manager has become more prominent than others in many of the variables that allow an organization to be effective. In an organization that does not have an effective role, it is not possible to argue for organizational effectiveness (Madan and Jain, 2015, s.47). Because he is primarily responsible for the effective and efficient use of the organization executives and the organization resources for the purposes of the organization. (Govender and Parumasur, 2010, s.1).

The managerial effectiveness will ensure that the administrators do develop themselves, the effective administrators who develop themselves influence the development of the organizations, while developed organizations will realize and maintain the modern society. In this respect, managerial effectiveness has a vital significance (Mahajan, Bishop and Scott, 2012, s.181; Karatepe, 2005, s.307). Managerial effectiveness is provided by administrative functions such as communication, influence, planning, decision making and supervision (McDonald, 2010, s.630, Leung and Kleiner, 2004, s.74).

Schools like other organizations must also be "efficient" and "productive" in order to survive (Aydın, 1994, s.15). The only factor that determines school effectiveness is the managerial effectiveness. Factors such as social circle, student profile, school expectation of the student and his/her family at school, goals and social inputs that the student puts at the beginning of the school are also important in school effectiveness (Edmonds, 1979, s. 17; Mortimore, 1991, s.217) because they include many contextual variables such as school, teaching, learning, management, student motivation and community participation. (Scheerens, 2004, s.11).

In an effective school, the main aim of the education and training process is to be able to effectively learn with effective teaching methods. A sense of education can only be realized in effective education-teaching processes and environments, where the student is active, has the ability to improve the learning level, and has the possibility of transforming what he or she has learned.. From this point of view , the effective teaching-learning process is the determining factor in the formation of an effective school and the success of the students in this school (Baştape, 2009 ,s. 80) .

The organizational structure, effectiveness and qualifications of an effective school are different from other schools (Sammons and Bakkum,2011,s.13). It is not possible to reveal the difference of these schools with their educational purposes alone (Baştape, 2009,s.77). Effective management of schools can be ensured by effective use of resources at the disposal of schools principals. Research in this area shows that principals play critical role in school effectiveness. While schools with some educational institutions make a difference in the learning level of their student (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2000,s.194; Thomas, 2001,s.286), principals are able to take their schools apart from other schools with their performances (Balci, 2002,s.137; Tanrıöğen, 1988,s.5).

The main factor that will determine when effectiveness is determined for schools is the effective school principal thereby effective school management (Everard and Morris, 1999,s.143; Arslantaş ve Özkan, 2014,s.183). Increasing school effectiveness is also of great importance for the creation of effective, and on-the-spot solutions to the educational and administrative problems in the schools (Çelik ve Semerci ,2002,s.205).

The personality traits of the principal are important to ensure that the education process at the school continues in good way. The features such as the manager's listening to the employees' desires , the organization's attitudes while they set their goals, their opinions, the positive attitudes and good relations with the employees are the behaviours expected from an effective principal (Lal „Arya“, 2014,s.1).

One of the most influential features of the principal is the quality of communication between employees. It is possible to maintain a principal -teacher relationship on a healthy and productive basis, which should be based on mutual trust, with good communication. In particular, it is important for the school culture that the manager is sincere in this relationship and works to improve communication skills (Wahlstrom, 2008,s.467; Şahin, 2010,s.73) .

When faced with many problems while performing managerial work, the stress and work intensity experienced by him can reduce the effectiveness of the manager. In these situations, one of the things that emotional and emotionally strong and calm is the personal relationships with the people they work with is crucial. The management of the executives' crises is characterized as one of the most important characteristics of the effective executive in research conducted in this field (Lal Arya“, 2014,s.1).

Many researchers have emphasized the importance of co-operation between principals, teachers and parents in effective school management. The school principal is the orchestra conductor. His mission is to manage his teammates and teachers as a maestro and to create an effective working environment(Clifford, Behrstock-Sherratt and Fetters, 2012,s.13).

The school is not expected to be effective by a principal who has been sitting in the room. The school principal is also a strong education leader. It is a principal that motivates and cooperates with the pupils to improve their understanding and learning skills, if necessary, by informing their teachers about the innovative approaches in education (Wahlstrom and Louis, 2008,s.460; Hintz, 2014,s.16) .

2.Method

2.1. Work Group

The researcher's universe constitutes 13.248 teachers working in 328 primary and 310 secondary schools in Kocaeli province center district and 11 other districts in 2016-2017 academic year.

The sample group consists of 281 teachers who are working in 137 primary and 144 secondary schools from Kocaeli central district Izmit 55, Gebze 11, Karamürsel 10, Gölcük 11, Kandira

Validity And Reliability Study Of The Scale Of Managerial Effectiveness

17, Dilovasi 10, Darıca 10, Körfez 15, Derince 12 and Başiskele 96 in 2016-2017 academic year. 61.6% of the study group was male and 38.4% was female. 8.2% for 50 and over, 19.6% for 45-49 years, 18.9% for 44-40 years, 23.1% for 39-35 years, 30.2% for 34 and below; 80.4% are graduated, 13.5% are graduate, 1.4% are doctoral, 2.1% are teacher graduate, 2.5% are associate degree graduates; 51.2% are in secondary school and 48.8% are in primary school.

2.2. Measuring Instrument Used In Research

The adaptation study of the ‘Managerial Effectiveness Scale ‘ was carried out by İra and Şahin(2011). Before adaptation, permissions were obtained via e-mail from the person developed the scale. Experts were asked for their advice about the scope and appearance validity of the scale and positive opinion was obtained. The language validity of the ‘Managerial Effectiveness Scale ‘ was based on a reversal method. It was translated into Turkish by four English-speaking translators, and the necessary corrections were made . At this stage, the administrative structure of universities and education faculties in Turkey has been taken into consideration sensitively. The scale which has the content validity consists of 81 items and the management functions that are planning, organizing, supervising, human resources management, communication , team work, problem solving and decision making.

‘The Managerial Effectiveness Scale ‘ was used by the researcher to collect the data .The questionnaire consists of two parts . In the first part , questions about the personal characteristics of the teachers participating in the research such as gender, age, duration of service, school level studied were included the second part of the questionnaire consists of the ‘Managerial Effectiveness Part’. The scale used in the research consists of the items aimed at measuring teacher perceptions. Participants were asked about their participation in these items in terms of the schools they were working at. Expressions are : 1. Absolutely disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Partially Agree, 4 Agree, 5. Totally Agree .

2.3. Data Collection Process

The e-mail addresses of the teachers working in primary and secondary schools in Kocaeli, which constitute the universe, were determined and then the research scale was sent to these addresses online by mail. Teachers who participated voluntarily in the research were included in the scope of the study. It was sent to teachers' e-mail addresses in April 2017 and 281 were returned.

2.4. Analysis Of Research Data

The validity and reliability study of the scale in the form adapted to the universities was carried out by İra and Şahin(2011). The same scale was used to provide the validity of the form adapted to primary and secondary schools and for the purpose of creating subscales , exploratory factor analysis were used. SPSS 18.0 programme was used in analysis of data. Arithmetic mean, percent, KMO, Barlett test, factor analysis and reliability analyzes were performed.. In the case of an exploratory factor analysis when forming a factor pattern, the factor loadings ranging from 0.30 to 0.40 can be taken as the lower cut-off point . It is accepted that the factors whose eigenvalues equal to or are greater than 1 are considered as important factors in analysis (Büyükoztürk, 2009, s.135).

3. Findings

The Kaiser Mayer Olkin (KMO) coefficient was found ‘.954’ which was calculated to determine sample appropriateness. This value is acceptable for factor analysis. The Chi-Square value obtained from the Barlett Test was found to be significant : 6426,284, df:351, p: .000. These results show that there is sufficient correlations between the items to carry out factor analysis on the sample.

Table 1 shows the result of KMO and Bartlett Test for Managerial Effectiveness Scale.

Table 1: The results of KMO and Bartlett Test for Managerial Effectiveness Scale

KMO		,954
Bartlett Test	Chi-Square	6426,284
	df	351
	p	,000

Basic component analysis and varimax vertical rotation were performed to determine the validity of the structure of the scale (Gülbahar ve Büyüköztürk, 2008; Usluel ve Vural, 2009). As a result of the factor analysis carried out in Table 1, a structure with a factor of 5, has been obtained, which explains 73,104% of the total variance and has an eigenvalue of 1.00.

In Table 2, the results of the factor analysis result of the factors on the eigenvalue and explained variance are given.

Table 2: The Factor Analysis Result On The Eigenvalue And Explained Variance

Factors	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance	Total Variance
1	14,578	25,849	25,849
2	2,122	16,684	42,533
3	1,221	14,535	57,068
4	,967	8,287	65,355
5	,850	7,749	73,104

As a result of Varimax transformation, 10 items with factor load values and other factor load values below “.10” were subtracted from the scale. Removing these items from the scale, they were re-rotated and 2 items were removed from the scale. After these items were removed from the the scale, 3rd factor analysis was performed and re-rotated gain and 1 item was removed. The factor analysis was continued again and by subtracting 5 more items due to the lower factor load of 4 items and the factor load of the items in the 4th analysis and further analysis was continued. In the final analysis, the scale factor loads were high and reached the final form. Similar statistical analysis techniques and applications were used by Gülbahar and Büyüköztürk (2008); Usluel and Vural (2009); Kılıçer and Odabaşı (2010) in scale adaptation studies.

Factor loadings are the basic criterion for evaluating the results of factor analysis. The factor loadings of the items in the scale range from “.814” to “.521”.

Table 3 shows the results of the Managerial Effectiveness Scale Factor Loads and Item Total Correlations of “Team Work” Factor Items.

Table 3: The Managerial Effectiveness Scale Factor Loads And Item Total Correlations of "Team Work" Factor Items

Maddeler	Faktör Yüğü	Madde-Toplam Korelasyon ları
Teachers are working both for the school and for the success of their field	,814	,965
Teachers are committed to the aims of their field	,805	,965
Teachers strive for quality and excellence in their duties	,793	,964
Teachers work in cooperation	,777	,964
Teachers respect each other's professional competence in their areas of expertise	,752	,965
Teachers like to work together	,752	,964
Teachers are involved in the solution of problems affecting their fields	,724	,964
Teachers know that they will contribute to their colleagues' performance	,693	,964
There is a balance between the aims of school and the aims of school teachers	,613	,964
Teachers have clearly defined responsibilities	,587	,965

The factor loadings of the items in the first factor are between .814 and .587 . According to Tabachnick and Fidell(2001) , each variable on the scale should have a load value of .32 and above (cited by Çokluk, Şekercioğlu and Öztürk,2010) .

The items in the first factor were collected under the heading "team work" . The alpha internal consistency coefficient calculated for the scores obtained from the "team work" subscale is .96 .

Table 4 gives the results of factor loadings and item total correlations of "planning and decision making "factors.

Table 4: Factor Loadings And Item Total Correlations Of "Planning And Decision Making" Factors

Maddeler	Faktör Yüğü	Madde-Toplam Korelasyon ları
The distribution of budget funds in the school is fair	,792	,965
The school has policies and regulations to guide its actions	,770	,965
The decisions taken about the budget are sufficient to realize the goals of the school	,716	,965
School teachers are involved in the preparation of the school budget	,714	,965
The school is adequately inform the teachers about the budget of school	,669	,965
A sufficient number of teachers are employed in the school	,521	,966

The factor loadings of the items in the second factor are between .792 and .521. The items in the second factor were found to be under the heading of "planning and decision making".The alpha internal consistency coefficient calculated for the scores obtained from the "Planning and Decision Making "subscale is .96 .

In Table 5, the managerial efficacy scale factor loadings of "leadership" factor items and item total correlations are given.

Table 5 :Factor Loadings And Item Total Correlations Of "Leadership" Factors

Maddeler	Faktör Yüğü	Madde-Toplam Korelasyon ları
The principal of the school volunteers to change the decisions taken when necessary	,794	,964
The principal of the school volunteers to develop the decisions taken when necessary	,794	,964
In the school, the principal is trusted	,732	,964
The teachers can easily reach to the school principal to exchange ideas	,691	,965
The school principal creates a positive work environment for the individuals to operate performance effectively	,544	,964

Load values in the third factor are between .794 and .544. The items in the third factor were observed under the heading "leadership". The alpha internal consistency coefficient calculated for the scores obtained from the "leadership" subscale is .96.

Table 6 gives the results of the factor loadings and item total correlations of the "organizing" factors of the managerial effectiveness scale.

Table 6: Factor Loadings And Item Total Correlations Of " Organizing " Factors

Maddeler	Faktör Yüğü	Madde-Toplam Korelasyon ları
The school is assessing the performance of teachers at least once a year	,566	,965
School policies and regulations are consistent with the policies and regulations of the Ministry	,770	,965
The school has a plan to achieve the aim of the school	,543	,964

The items in the fourth factor were observed to be collected under the heading of "organizing". The alpha internal consistency coefficient calculated for the scores obtained from the "organizing" subscale is .96.

Table 7 gives the results of the factor loadings and item total correlations of the "human resources" factor of the managerial effectiveness scale.

Table 7: The Factor Loadings And Item Total Correlations Of The "Human Resources" Factor Of The Managerial Effectiveness Scale

Maddeler	Faktör Yüğü	Madde-Toplam Korelasyon ları
The relevant teachers are participated to the process of assignment of new teachers	,798	,965
Teachers participating in the new school , school areas and promotional activities are carried out	,527	,964
Support services are adequate in school	,473	,964

The factor loadings of the items in the fifth factor range from .798 to .473. The items in the fifth factor were observed under the heading "human resources". The alpha internal consistency coefficient calculated for the scores obtained from the "human resources" subscale is .96.

4. Discussion And Conclusions

The definition of efficiency as having an effective state, it was expressed in various forms by the researchers. According to MacBeth (1998) the achievement provided on the outputs; According to Hoy and Miskel achievement is the level of realizing an objective and the ability of adapting to different environments; according to Grossa achievement provided by the outputs. (Akt. Karşlı, 2004: 24).

Organisations must use their resources efficiently in order to achieve their goals. For this reason, it is necessary to obtain high magnifications from the inputs in the hand with the correct methods and techniques. The ratio between input and output will show the degree of effectiveness (Analoui et al., 2010: 58; Abdul-Azeem and Fatima, 2012: 20).

Organisations consist of many subsystems with different functions and tasks. The method itself, which is a subsystem, is responsible for the effective operation of the other subsystems. The executive officer in charge of the organisation or the unit affiliated with it is responsible for the success of the organisations. It is important for organizational leaders to be able to achieve success and to be the first to know that the organizers are willing, talented and open to development, and that they are not in the right place at the right time (Banerjee, 2012: 557).

Organizational effectiveness is measured by the performance of the organizations. Performance is related to how well the goals are achieved as a result of the activities undertaken (Horngren, Foster ve Dater, 2000: 27; Karatepe, 2005: 28). Motivating individuals in the organization and providing them with opportunities while fulfilling their roles is an important step in an organizational effectiveness (Nwadukwe & Timinepere, 2012: 198). If the effectiveness of the organization is to end, the desire to contribute to the common purpose of the individuals will also disappear. This would put the existence of the organization in jeopardy as well as away from the purpose of the organization. If the endeavor of the individuals shows that the satisfaction they have achieved at the end can overcome the commitment they show, the common purpose will be to increase the desire for inclusion and organizational effectiveness (Aydın, 1991: 6; Aslantaş ve Özkan, 2014: 182).

The most important task of the organisation administrations is to be able to keep their vorganizations in purpose. The multilateral definitions made on the administration show that the principals have a lot of responsibilities and authorities. Schools, are a strategic part of the education system and even of other organisations. Because of this, the administration of schools has a great appeal.

Development organisations such as all organizations should also be open for development. The fact that the structure of the organization is open to new ideas is important for the development of the school. The ability of the workers to express their ideas comfortably will ensure a positive climate in the school. It is a great task for the principals to be able to create this climate and be permanent (Aydoğan, 1999: 216). An effective manager keeps his personnel characteristics, interests and talents in check as he performs his mission. The executive needs a good understanding of their staff in order to be able to do them (Yetim, 1992: 51).

Many researchers emphasize the importance of working with teachers, staff and especially with the family in effective school management. The executives achievement is based on the necessity of using the administrative processes effectively such as; 'planing and decision making', organisation and human resources, 'teamwork', 'communication' and leadership (İra, 2011).

In this study, a valid and reliable measuring instrument was developed that could determine teachers' perceptions on managerial effectiveness in public schools. For the purpose of providing the validity and creating the subscales of the Managerial effectiveness scale which was adapted for primary and secondary schools, exploratory factor analysis was used.

SPSS 18.0 programme was used in analysis of data. arithmetic mean, percent, KMO, Barlett Test, factor analysis and reliability analyzes were performed. Kaiser Mayer Olkin (MKO) coefficient was found to be '.924'. the Chi-Square value obtained from the Barlett Test was found to be significant : .6426,284, df: 351, p: .000. These results show that there is sufficient correlations between the items to make factor analysis on the sample.

An exploratory factor analysis was performed to determine the validity of the structure of the scale. Five dimensions were determined as the result of factor analysis. These are "team work", "planning and decision making", "leadership", "organizing" and "human resources".

In the analyzes made with the scale scores, the factor loadings are between ".814" and ".521", the reliability of the factors "team work" .96, "planning and decision making" .96, "leadership" .96, "organizing" "Human resources" .96, for all of the scale the score is .95 which is seen as evidence for the validity and reliability of the scale.

As a result, it can be said that the 'Managerial Effectiveness Scale' can be used to determine the managerial effectiveness levels of elementary and junior high school principals.

Research on the validity and reliability of the managerial effectiveness scale can be repeated by creating a sample group of different levels of educational institutions.

References :

- Abdul-Azeem, M., Fatima, S., (2012). Factors Favoring Managerial Effectiveness: A Study Of Select Public & Private Sector Organizations. *International Journal Of Business Economics & Management Research*, 2(1), s.1-27.
- Analoui, F., Ahmed, A. A. & Kakabadse, N.(2010). Parameters Of Managerial Effectiveness: The Case Of Senior Managers İn The Muscat Municipality, Oman. *Journal Of Management Development*. 29(1). s.56-78.
- Arslantaş, H. İ., & Özkan, M. (2014). Defining Qualities Of School Administrators İn Effective Schools From Teachers And Administrators Point Of View. *International Journal Of Social Science*, 26, s. 181-193.
- Ashraf, G; Kadir, Suhaida B. A.(2012) . A Review On The Models Of Organizational Effectiveness: A Look At Cameron's Model İn Higher Education . *International Education Studies*. Vol.5, No: 2.
- Aydın,M. (1994) .Eğitim-Yönetimi. Hatiboğlu Yayınları..
- Aydoğan,İ. , Helvacı,M.(2011). "Etkili Okul ve Etkili Okul Mudurune İlişkin Öğretmen Görüşleri", Uşak Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, Cilt.4, ss.42-61.
- Balcı, A. (2002). Implementation of TQM in Public Sector: An Empirical Analysis of a Turkish Case, Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi, ODTÜ Siyaset Bilimi ve Kamu Yönetimi Anabilim Dalı.
- Banerjee, J. D.(2012). Managerial Effectiveness: A Function Of Personality Type Ve Organizational Components. *International Journal Of Business and Management Research*, 2(11), s.555-558.
- Baştepe İ. (2009). Etkili Okulun Eğitim Öğretim Süreci Ve Ortamı Boyutlarının Nitelikleri. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*.
- Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2009). Sosyal Bilimler İçin Veri Analizi El Kitabı. (10.Baskı). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Clifford, M., Behrstock-Sherratt, E., & Feters, J. (2012). The Ripple Effect: A Synthesis Of Research On Principal Influence To Inform Performance Evaluation Design. A Quality School Leadership Issue Brief. *American Institutes For Research*, May 2012, 1-24. Retrieved July 10, 2012, From [Http://www.citeulike.org/user/Meramos/Article/10883200](http://www.citeulike.org/user/Meramos/Article/10883200)
- Çelik, V. ve Semerci, N. (2002). İlköğretimde Problemler Ve Çözüm Yolları. Kuram Ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi, 30, s. 205-218.
- Çokluk Ö, Şekercioğlu G, Büyüköztürk Ş. Sosyal Bilimler İçin Çok Değişkenli İstatistik SPSS ve LISREL Uygulamaları. Ankara: Pegem.Net; 2010. p.275-85.
- Edmonds, R. (1979). Effective schools for the urban poor. *Educational Leadership*, 37, pp 15-27
- Everard, K., & Morris, G. (1999). Effective School Management. [Αποτελεσματική Εκπαιδευτική Διοίκηση. Πάτρα: Πελληνικό Ανοικτό Πανεπιστήμιο.] English Language Edition Published By Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

- Govender P, Parumasur S (2010). Evaluating The Roles And Competencies That Are Critical Considerations For Management Development. SA. J. Ind. Psychol., 36(1).
- Gülbahar, Y., Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2008). "Değerlendirme Tercihleri Ölçeğinin Türkçeye Uyarlanması". Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 35,148-161.
- Henry, E. A. (2011). Is The Influence Of Organizational Culture On Organizational Effectiveness Universal? An Examination Of The Relationship In The Electronic Media (Radio) Service Sector In The English Speaking Caribbean.
- Horngren, Charles T. & Foster, George & Datar, Srikant M. (2000) .Cost Accounting: A Managerial Emphasis (Prentice Hall International Editions). Published By *Pearson Education* (US) .ISBN 10: 0135712173 ISBN 13: 9780135712177.
- Hintz, C. M. (2014). Principal Effectiveness. (Master's Thesis), Available Online Through The Martin Luther College Library Website. Retrieved From <https://Mlc-Wels.Edu/Library/Search-Find-2/Specialcollections/Pdf-Files/Principal-Effectiveness-By-Christopher-M-Hintz>.
- İra, N. (2011). *Eğitim Fakültelerinde Örgütsel Kültür ve Yönetmel Etkililik*. Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İzmir.
- Karatepe, S. (2005). "Yönetmel Etkililik: Okul Yönetiminde Yönetmel Etkililiğın Astlarla İlişkiler Boyutu". Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi. İİBF Dergisi. C:10.S:2.s:307-326.
- Karslı, M. D.(2004). Yönetmel Etkililik. (İkinci Baskı). Ankara: Pegem Yayıncılık.
- Kılıçer, K., Odabaşı, H.F. (2010). Bireysel Yenilikçilik Ölçeği: Türkçeye Uyarlama, Geçerlik ve Güvenirlik Çalışması. Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 38, 150-164.
- Lal „Arya“. M. Teacher“S Perception Of Principal“S Administrative Effectiveness İn Government And Public Secondary Schools İn Moradabad District. International Journal of Education and Science Research. Volume-1, Issue-5. 2014
- Leung,J.,Kleiner,B.H.(2004) "Effective Management İn The Food İndustry", *Management Research News*, Vol. 27 Issue: 4/5, Pp.72-81, Doi: 10.1108/01409170410784491
- Macbeth ,A. (1989) Involving Parents, Effective Parent-Teacher Relations; Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., Halley Court Jordan Hill, Oxford OX2 8EJ.
- Madan ,M., Jain ,E.(2015).Impact Of Organizational Culture & Climate On Managerial Effectiveness. *Delhi Business Review* ∓ Vol. 16, No. 2 (July - December 2015)
- Mahajan, A., Bishop, J. W., & Scott, D. (2012). Does Trust İn Top Management Mediate Top Management Communication, Employee İnvolvement And Organizational Commitment Relationships?. *Journal Of Managerial Issues*, 24(2), 173-190.
- McDonald, P. (2010). Teaching the concept of management: Perspectives from 'six honest serving men.' *Journal of Management and Organization*, 16(5), 626-640
- Mortimore, P. (1991) ` Effective Schools From A British Perspective: Research And Practice ` , in Blis, J. and Firestone, W. (eds), *Creating Effective Schools*, London: Prentice Hall.
- Mullins, L. J., & Christy, G. (2010). *Management & organisational behaviour*. Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall.
- Murry, J. (1993). "Development Of Assessment Criteria to Determine The Managrial Effectiveness of Comunnity and Technical College Administrators". Unpublished Doctoral Dissertasion. University of Arkansas.
- Nwadukwe, Uche .C And Court Ogele Timinepere. (2012). Management Styles And Organizational Effectiveness: An Appraisal Of Private Enterprises İn East Nigeria. *American International Journal Of Contemporary Research*, 198-203.
- Olum, Y. (2004). Modern Management Theories And Practices. Retrieved From <http://Theory1.Net/Modern-Management-Theories-And-Practices-Download-W1.Pdf>. On17/06/2014.
- Opdenakker, M.-C., & Van Damme, J. (2000). Effects Of Schools, Teaching Staff And Classes On Achievement And Well-Being İn Secondary Education: Similarities And Differences Between School Outcomes. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 11, 165-196.

- Pirson, M.A., & Lawrence, P.R. (2010). Humanism in business-towards a paradigm shift?. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 93, 553-565.
- Sammons,P and Bakkum . (2011). Effective Schools, Equity And Teacher Effectiveness: A Review To The Literature.Profeserado . VOL. 15, N° 3 (Diciembre 2011.)
- Scheerens,J. (2004). Review Of School And Instructional Effectiveness Research. Background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2005
- Şahin,A.(2010).*Örgüt Kültürü-Yönetim İlişkisi Ve Yönetmelik Etkinlik*.
https://Dergiler.Sgb.Gov.Tr/Calismalar/Maliye_Dergisi/Yayinlar/Md/159/Al%C5%9EAH%C4%B0N.Pdf
- Şahin, S. (2013). *İlköğretim Okulu Müdürlerinin Yönetmelik Etkinlik Düzeyine İlişkin Öğretmen Görüşleri (İzmit İlçesi Örneği)*.Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.Ankara,
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). Using Multivariate Statistics. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Tanrıoğen, A. (1988). Okul Müdürlerinin Etkinliği İle Öğretmen Morali Arasındaki İlişkiler. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi. Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü. Ankara.
- Thomas, S. (2001). Dimensions Of Secondary School Effectiveness: Comparative Analyses Across Regions. *School Effectiveness And School Improvement*, 12, 285-322.
- Usluel, Y.K., Vural, F.K. (2009). “Bilişsel Kapılma Ölçeğinin Türkçeye Uyarlama Çalışması”. Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 42(2), 77-92.
- Wahlstrom,K.L. , Louis, K.S.(2008). How Teachers Experience Principal Leadership: The Roles Of Professional Community ,Trust, Efficacy, And Shared Responsibility. *Educational Administration Quarterly* Vol.44.No.4(October 2008) 458-495
- Yetim, A. (1992). ”Yönetimde Başarı İçin Yönetici Ve Özellikleri ‘ *Eğitim Dergisi*. Sayı : 2. 1992 .

The Management of Conflicts among Teams in the School and the Leader's Impact on the Conflict Process

Ismail Erol, Ismail Karsantik

1. Introduction

When looking at the dictionary of the Turkish Language Institution, the words; disagreement, confrontation, conflict and antgoism seems as war (TDK, 2015). In **the** language used in current and academic studies in terms of English, the word "conflict" is not exactly named in Turkish language. Conflict has been seen to be counteracted in the form of conflict, contradiction, disagreement, friction, controversy (Gümüşeli, 1994). Forced conflicts are of an opposite meaning with negative expressions which overturns the balances that the employee creates in the institutional environment during conflicts, and force the employee to balance again (Başaran, 1991). The first meaning that the concept of conflict generally refers to negativities such as fighting, war, fighting in organizations. For this reason, extraordinary efforts are being made to ensure that the feelings of unity and solidarity between the individuals and the organizations are dominant in the societies. However, conflict is constantly present both in society and in nature. Conflict should not be mentioned with always negative expressions in organizations. If conflicts are well organized and managed within the organization, the quality of the organization may increase (Fleetwood, 1987, p.6).

Organizational conflict is the confusion that arises as the result of perceiving and reaching the targets of the individual as an obstruction of others (Robbins, 2005, p.422). Since education organizations are a small model of society, conflict is also present in these organizations. Moreover, the conflict in education organizations which have human beings in its input, in process and in its output is more concrete and real. Therefore, we should not learn to escape uninvolvedly, but to learn the methods and techniques of managing it, realizing that there are conflicts in organizations and in society in some extent also in nature (Sarpkaya, 2002). Zembat (2012) stated that conflicts in education organizations are inevitable. Since forces and groups are more fluent in the school environment, even unimportant friction can be transformed into unexpected conflict situations (Bursalıoğlu, 2008, p.157). While teachers, students, civil servants, and other staff are defined as internal components of the school; the stakeholders such as the leaders of these groups, the management structure and the business organizations are defined as external components constituting the school (Bursalıoğlu, 2008, p.39).

Relations between the school staff and the school's external environment (family, etc.), as well as administrator-teacher and teacher-teacher relationships, are factors that affect the educational quality of schools (Çınkır and Çetin, 2010). These relationships are likely to involve conflict. Conflict management within the context of organizational culture requires effective leadership. In any case, leadership affects, directs and controls the activity of a person or group in order to achieve the goal, while at the same time ensuring the group by bringing the group members together (Tevruz et al., 1999: 189, Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Many factors, such as organizational characteristics, priorities, organizational culture, the characteristics of the individuals forming the organization, affect and diversify the leadership style in achieving the goals of the organization (Özmen and Aküzüm, 2010). It is important for organizational leaders to be knowledgeable and competent about effective conflict management strategies to manage the conflict effectively and effectively. Rahim (1992) developed conflict management styles based on conflict management styles developed by Blake and Mouton. According to the dedication of the persons to meet their interests or the interests of others Rahim (1992, pp. 23-25) set a model which is classified as; integration (where the interests of both sides of the conflict are protected), avoidance (conflict is ignored), reconciliation (conflicting parties have met in the middle way at a certain rate), concessions (one of the crossing parties has given up in favor of the other) and domination (resulted in the loss of one side and the acquisition of the other side).

The aim of this research is to examine conflict situations between teams in Turkey and determine the effect of school leaders on these conflict processes. Despite the fact that teachers, administrators and educational leaders are among the most strategic parts of schools (Bursalıoğlu, 2008, p. 42) it is seen that there is limited research on conflict situations that they have experienced as one of the parties to the school and the solutions they have proposed regarding these situations. It is important to know the conflict situations experienced by the leaders in these institutions and the solutions they use in these conflict situations, especially in terms of educational quality, as conflict situations in educational institutions can affect the work productivity of employees as they are in other institutions. All this information reveals that conflicts are effective in realizing the aims of organizations. Therefore, in this research it is aimed to determine the conflict situations of the leaders and the solutions they have applied in these situations.

2. Data Collection and Data Analysis

Content analysis method was used in this study in which research (articles and theses) on conflict management applied in schools in Turkey were examined through content analysis. Content analysis, which is often used in the social sciences and qualitative research, is a systematic, repeatable technique in which certain words of a text are summarized with smaller content categories with certain rules-based coding (Büyüköztürk et al., 2013). The basic process of content analysis is to bring together similar data within the framework of specific concepts and themes and to interpret them in a way that the reader can understand. (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011, p 227). Content analysis is a method that helps to evaluate literature in a specific field (Falkingham and Reeves, 1998).

Twenty (20) articles on "conflict management", "conflict management in schools" and "conflict management in educational organizations" in the field of educational sciences in Turkey and ten (10) postgraduate theses on "conflict management" covering 2010 and later constitute the focus of this study. Since leaders are concerned with conflict management, these articles and theses have been examined. In Turkey, especially in the field of educational sciences, education management and supervision, it has been concentrated on the last 10 years since it has been working rapidly in the last 10 years. The information about the selected studies are demonstrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Selected Studies

Years	Number of Articles	Masters Degree	Doctorate Degree
2010	2	1	
2011	3	-	1
2012	2	-	
2013	4	3	1
2014	4	1	1
2015	3	2	
2016	1		
2017	1		
Total	20	7	3

In this study, expert opinion was obtained from 1 professor, 2 assistant professors and 1 research assistant who have already conducted studies on conflict management. The opinions of these experts have been taken in determining the scope of years for the validity of the work. 25% of the experts, believe that it is needed to examine academic studies in 2005 and later while 75% of them think that academic studies in 2010 and later are needed to examine. The title restriction on the collection of data within the scope of the study has also been made by taking expert opinions. 50% of the experts stated that "conflict management", 25% "conflict management in schools" and 25% "conflict management in educational organizations" would make the data of the study more sound and accurate.

In this study, twenty (20) articles covering "conflict management", "conflict management in schools" and "conflict management in educational organizations" published in academic journals and 10 postgraduate dissertations reached from the National Thesis Center were classified and analyzed under eight (8) headings. When analyzing, each article and dissertation is carefully examined and classified according to the topics, years and leaders' conflict resolution methods. When these stages are implemented, especially in some articles it has been observed that there is not enough descriptive information about subject, content, method, data collection tools and data analysis methods. After this situation is discussed among the researchers, a common idea is reached and the data is coded accordingly.

3. Findings

3.1. Conflict Management Strategies

As a result of analyzing the data; it is found out that Rahim (2000) considered the conflict as a positive process for the organization and set out the following conflict management strategies for leaders:

- Integration
- Compromise
- Establishing dominance
- Avoidance
- Compromise

The appropriateness of conflict management strategies varies according to the situation of conflict. Some conflict management processes are appropriate and effective for the conflict process, while others are ineffective. The following are examples of situations in which the use of conflict management strategies by Rahim (2000) is appropriate or not:

3.1.1. Integration: One of the effective solutions that can be used to solve complex problems. It is a suitable strategy for the problems that need more knowledge and skills of different people to resolve. It is not appropriate to use this strategy when it is necessary to resolve the emerging problem urgently and where there are simple and insignificant problems.

3.1.2. Compromise: It is a strategy that is appropriate in situations where the person himself regards it as unfair, that it is more important in terms of the other side, where the person is in a weak position and the protection of relations is important. It is a solution strategy that is important for the individual and is not appropriate for situations where the person feels right or the other side is unethical.

3.1.3. Domination: It is appropriate to use it in situations where it is necessary to make quick decisions and in trivial situations while it is not appropriate to use in situations which are complex, insignificant, and both sides are equally powerful.

3.1.4. Avoidance: It is appropriate for simple and time-consuming tasks; yet it is not an appropriate strategy for situations where decision-making responsibility is on one person, matters that are important, and situations that require quick decision-making.

3.1.5. Reconciliation: The use of this strategy is appropriate if the issue is specific for both sides, the parties are of equal strength, an agreement can not be reached, domination and integration do not work. However, it is not a suitable strategy when one of the parties is strong.

3.2. Team-to-Team Conflicts on Schools

When analyzing the data, it is indicated that there are some teams (teachers, school administrators, parents, service workers, students, health workers, etc.) in schools. From time to time, there is a

conflict between these teams and leaders need to manage these conflicts in the best way for the benefit of the institution.

The following conflict situations lead to the frequent conflicts in schools:

1. Teacher-teacher conflicts
2. Teacher-parent conflicts
3. Conflicts between teacher and school administrators
4. Conflicts between teacher and health care workers
5. Teacher-servant conflicts
6. Teacher-student conflicts
7. School administration-parent conflicts
8. School administration student conflicts
9. School administration-servant conflicts

3.2.1. Teacher-teacher conflicts: In schools, it is at the top of the most common conflict situations. Teachers can be teams even according to their clan, class, branch, gender, age, floor, even neighborhood ties. Another teacher may be in conflict with the team. This process can often make educational situations difficult. A qualified training leader must intervene.

3.2.2. Teacher-parent conflicts: Some teachers act together against various parents' teams. It is often found in schools, especially with school-family units. Increasing demands of the parents, over-followers of their students and their desire to supervise the teacher are pushing the teachers to be a team against the parents. In order for the school and its students not to be affected, a training leader is a must for the process.

3.2.3. Conflicts between teacher and school administrators: Teachers can organize and form teams with attitudes towards overpowering school administrations. This situation can be seen in two teams of teachers that are close to school management and not. Teacher attitudes that the administration dislikes or does not approve of, cause this conflict situation. This is the result of administration that can not manage the conflict process.

3.2.4. Teacher - healthcare workers conflicts: Especially in private education institutions and pre-school education institutions, it is a conflict situation experienced by healthcare workers. The fact that healthcare workers do not perform their duties, the efforts of teachers and healthcare workers to manage each other and faults in speaking and making a job done lead to this conflict situation. In this conflict, the mediator role of the education leader is also important.

3.2.5. Teacher-servant conflicts: Especially after the employment of part-time and contracted personnel by İŞKUR (Turkish Employment Agency) in the schools, there has been a conflict between school staff and school teachers. It constitutes the basis for conflict situations in which no work is undertaken, forced labor, job interruption and not doing the job properly. In this case responsibility lies with school leaders and administrators.

3.2.6. Teacher-student conflicts: It is one of the conflicts that are often encountered at schools. The overwhelming attitudes of the teachers, frequent and intense assignments, authoritarian behavior, disrespectful and irrational behavior of students are the main elements of these conflicts. In these conflict situations, it may not be possible to benefit from educational opportunities. Conflicts must be resolved with a good strategy and method.

3.2.7. School administration-parent conflicts: It is a conflict that is carried to a higher level as a result of teacher-student, teacher-parent conflicts at schools. Apart from these processes, the parents who cannot get the benefit from the school or who are not satisfied with the school administrators

The Management of Conflicts among Teams

may also be a conflict element. In the same way, the fact that the school administration can not meet the expectations of the parents is also the basis of this conflict.

3.2.8. School administration-student conflicts: School administrations are often not in close contact with students. In fact, administrators of institutions based on student need to pay more attention to their students and take their needs into account. The most important factor that triggers this conflict situation is social and cultural expectations of students and school activities. A good education leader should manage these processes well.

3.2.9. School administration-servant conflicts: These conflicts are arising from the school administrators' passive attitudes, their inability to speak to their servants, and their idle servant attitudes. School management is also the basis for these conflict situations. If the staff cannot be managed well, it is likely that there will be conflict situations. Teacher-servant conflicts are also triggering this conflict.

3.3. Types and Levels of Conflict in Schools

When analyzing the research data, it is seen that the most common conflict type in schools is "cultural", followed by "ideological" and "conflicts of interest". Individual cultural differences and social activities include school culture conflicts that are created by school rules such as course entry, course schedules and school vigilance. Some of the research data suggested that there were moderate conflicts in their schools (15 studies), that there were low levels of conflict in 8 studies and a high level of conflict in 7 studies. In fact, the literature of the field also points to the necessity of moderate conflicts in terms of ensuring development and change in organizations.

It is seen that the causes of conflict in schools are mostly "cultural and ideological".

Other reasons are;

- Gossip,
- Environmental factors,
- Socio-economic situation
- It is seen that there are other reasons given in descending order.

3.4. School Leaders and Conflict Situations

When examining the conflict situations arising from school leaders, 16 studies conclude that conflicts originate from school leaders, and 14 studies put forward that conflicts originate from other reasons. The management style of the school leader leads to the "school culture" and "school management-staff" conflicts. It is also seen that this situation causes the conflicts of "teacher-teacher", "teacher-student", "teacher-guardian" and "interest" to occur. It appears that there are also school administrators who are "positive" (fair, constructive, restorative, corrective), "analytical", but in a "reactive" and "avoidant" attitude to conflict.

3.5. School Leaders' Attitudes Towards Teams

School administrators are most likely to be in a "positive (listening, constructive)" attitude to the conflicting parties, while attitudes including official procedures such as "legislator", "negative (punitive, harsh, stimulating)", "neutral" are also exhibited. The elements that determine school administrators' conflict management style are "desire for continuous learning for learning-teaching purposes, professional development, collecting information, analyzing conflict situations, sharing the solutions, participating in the decision making" and "gaining experience and sharing it". It is also important to develop and cultivate school cultures, to ensure cultural integration, to strengthen communication, and to ensure compliance with school rules. It is also important for school administrators to determine the manner of conflict management (situational leadership) according to the elements of conflicting sides (conflict initiation, maintenance or termination, prejudice, obeying school rules) and subject of conflict (school culture, personal issues, environmental factors). Considering the suggestions of school administrators on conflict management to ensure that conflicts

contribute positively to school culture, administrators emphasize the importance of analyzing and synthesizing conflicts primarily and emphasize the importance of keeping people's morale high and the necessity of implementing the legislation in order to fairly deal with conflicting parties, to establish empathy and to end conflict.

3.6. Leaders' Conflict Solutions Between Teams

According to the findings of the studies; school leaders often use "integration and reconciliation" styles to resolve conflicts, while "concession" and "avoiding" styles are occasionally used and "dominant" styles are used less frequently. In the study conducted by Özmen (1997), it was concluded that the administrators used the "ruling" style to a lesser extent. In another study (Niederauer, 2006), it was understood that senior administrators at universities used integration styles first, compromise secondly, compromise and domination thirdly, and avoidance conflict styles in the last place to solve conflicts. Similarly, in Ural's (1997) doctoral dissertation, "Methods of Directing Conflicts between Primary School Administrators and Teachers", methods used in managing conflicts between administrators and teachers in primary schools are found as problem solving, compromise, avoidance and domination. In a study conducted by Gümüşeli (1994), it was observed that school administrators used the style of integration in managing conflicts with teachers, followed by compromise, compromise, avoidance and domination styles respectively.

3.7. Leaders' Conflict Management Choices

Three basic questions need to be answered in determining which style of conflict management is appropriate and which style should be preferred (Karip, 2003, p. 69):

- a) Which conflict management style will contribute more to organizational effectiveness?
- b) Which conflict management style will contribute more to satisfying social needs?
- c) Which conflict management style will contribute more to meeting the ethical and moral needs of the members of the organization?

3.8. Conflict Management Ways of Leaders

3.8.1. "Keeping Busy" Method: The administrator who applies this way tries to keep conflicting parties busy by giving more jobs. Organizations with too much workload may not have time for conflict, as they will give their energy and time to their jobs. This path will reduce the conflict but will not remove it. The conflict is brought to a temporary solution (Eren, 1991, p. 443).

3.8.2. Changing Contacts: When conflict occurs, administrators try to solve the conflict by assigning persons who are parties to the conflict to other units or by assigning them to other places. This way, however, should be used when conflicts occur which cause harm (Genç, 2004, p.260).

3.8.3. Drawing Method: This method may be preferred if the conflicting parties or groups are deemed to be justified and the consent of the person or groups is required. The losing side in the result of the draw has to accept the result. But on the losing side; morale, motivation, and organizational commitment may decrease and may lead to more severe conflicts in the coming days. Frequent use of this method can cause profound internal injuries within the organization. (Can, 2005, pp. 385).

3.8.4. Referee Application: Conflicting parties can be referred to this way when they can not find a solution to the problem they are experiencing in conflict, and when they are not satisfied with the solution offered to them. In this case, a third person or group, which has earned the respect and trust of both parties, is referred to. The referee makes the decision after hearing the views of both parties. (Eren, 1991, pp. 441).

3.8.5. Identification of Common Goals: Using this method, the administrator identifies common goals for conflicting groups or individuals and may enable them to collaborate on specific issues. These goals must be at the level that a single group or person can not succeed. Thus, these groups or individuals will need the help and cooperation of other groups or individuals (Can, 2005, pp. 384). For example, in a school, English and German teachers with conflicts can be assigned to prepare an EU project.

3.8.6. Changing Organizational Relationships: Administrators who use this method try to reduce organizational conflict by reorganizing organizational relationships or by developing existing relationships (Genç, 2004, p. 260).

3.8.7. Finding New Possibilities: Scarce sources are at the most common cause of conflict. The aim of this method is to find conflict solutions by increasing scarce material and human resources in organizations. In this way, the financing opportunities of the organizations can be increased, the number of jobs can be attracted to a sufficient level, the needs such as machinery and goods necessary for the organization can be met. With the creation of new resources, departments and people will have less conflict with each other (Eren, 1991, p. 443).

Discussion and Conclusion

For school leaders to manage conflicts in the best way, it is important to understand the nature of the conflict and to identify the factors that influence the administrators' conflict management style preferences. In this study, conflict situations, conflict management styles used by school administrators in resolving conflicts were examined, and conflict management style preferences of school administrators were investigated. The results obtained are as follows:

The data reveal that school administrators always use the integration style. According to this, it can be stated that the administrators of schools are meeting with the parties of the conflict in the event of a conflict, continuing to negotiate until a solution satisfying all the parties is found, and making all parties of the conflict a part of the solution. The style of conflict management style that our administrators use frequently in our schools is style of integration. Secondary conflict management style is compromise. Research data show that school administrators use the style of integration often, occasionally use compromise style and rarely use avoidance styles. This result shows that school administrators only choose to escape without conflict when they are in very difficult situations or to make concessions for a solution. The conflict management style, which is used least by the school administrators participating in the research when resolving conflicts, is the style of domination. The domination style requires that the administrators use his power and authority to resolve conflicts. School administrators' conflict management style preferences also overlap with other research results. Previous studies have found that school administrators use the most integration style and then use consensus, compromise, avoidance, and governance styles, respectively (Oğuz, 2007, p.54). As an organization, each school administrators who makes up a school has different backgrounds, values, truths, philosophical insights and cultures. There are occasional conflicts in the schools as indicated in the studies examined. In this sense, it is inevitable that there will be some disagreements in every school environment by starting from the thought of "There is always a problem in where the person is". What is important here is to be able to direct these conflict situations to the benefit of the school within the framework of the school's common goals.

Situations in which teachers conflict with administrators:

- a) The fact that the administrators ask the teachers to prepare and present the activities that are attended by all the children in the ceremonies,
- b) The fact that the administrators are insensitive to the physical conditions of the material and classroom, such as auxiliary staff,
- c) The use of dues from children to cover the cost of the class is under administrative control and these dues are used to address other school needs,

- d) The lack of information on preschool education by administrators and parents,
- e) The administrators are not equal to the teachers.

The conflicts that teachers have with their colleagues:

- a) The co-operation of teachers from different disciplines and levels of education,
- b) Lack of information sharing,
- c) The fact that half-day institutions must use the same classroom,
- d) Competition and burnout,
- e) Not being able to act jointly and grouping among teachers.

The conflict situations in which teachers live with their parents:

- a) The lack of information about the importance of pre-school education,
- b) Teacher distrust,
- c) Intervention to the subjects that fall within the authority of the teacher,
- d) Not considering the school's program hours
- e) Perception of teacher as a carer instead of an educator.

When the results of the research are evaluated, it can not be stated that there is a healthy communication between school administrators, teachers and the environment. By acting in this interpretation, it can be suggested that school administrators will be able to negotiate existing problems together and produce alternative solutions in cooperation, if more negotiations can be made with the parties in conflict. Opportunities may be drawn up by meeting with the school administrator, the teacher, and the school community frequently. In order to effectively manage the types of conflicts that arise in educational organizations, it is necessary to know the sources of the conflicts very well. For this reason, research should concentrate on finding out sources of conflict at schools. For school administrators (whether experienced or new school head), in-service training activities related to conflict management should be organized. People in school management must accept that conflict is natural. For the resolution of conflicts, school administrators must use more than one method, sometimes at the same time and sometimes with the order.

5. References

- Başaran, İ. E. (1991). *Örgütsel davranış. İnsanın üretim gücü*. Ankara: Ekinoks Yay.
- Bursalıoğlu, Z. (2008). *Okul yönetiminde yeni yapı ve davranış*. (14. baskı). Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayınları.
- Büyüköztürk, Ş., Kılıç Çakmak, E., Akgün, Ö. A., Karadeniz, Ş. ve Demirel, F. (2013). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.
- Can, H. (2005). *Organizasyon ve yönetim* (7. baskı). Ankara: Siyasal Kitabevi.
- Çınkır, Ş., & Çetin, S. K. (2010). Öğretmenlerin okullarda mesleki çalışma ilişkileri hakkındaki görüşleri. *Educational Administration: Theory and Practice*, 16(3), 351-376.
- Eren, E. (1991). *Yönetim ve organizasyon*. İstanbul: İÜ İşletme Fakültesi Yayınları.
- Falkingham, L. T., & Reeves, R. (1998). Context analysis a technique for analysing research in a field, applied to literature on the management of R & D at the section level. *Scientometrics*, 42(2), 97-120.
- Fleetwood, K. L., (1987). *The conflict management styles and strategies of educational managers* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Delaware, Newark.
- Genç, N. (2004). *Yönetim ve organizasyon: Çağdaş sistemler ve yaklaşımlar*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayınevi.
- Gümüşeli A. İ. (1994). *İzmir ortaöğretim okulları yöneticilerinin öğretmenler ile aralarındaki çatışmaları yönetme biçimleri*. (Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi). Ankara: A.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Gümüşeli, A. İ. (1994). *İzmir Ortaöğretim Okulları Yöneticilerinin Öğretmenler İle Aralarındaki Çatışma Yönetme Biçimleri*. Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi. Ankara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara.
- Karip, E. (2003). *Çatışma yönetimi*. Ankara: Pegem A Yayıncılık.

- Oğuz, Y. (2007). *Okul müdürlerinin demografik değişkenler ve kişilik özellikleri ile çatışma yönetimi stili tercihleri arasındaki farklılıklar ve ilişkiler*. (Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi). Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İstanbul.
- Özmen, F. (1997). *Fırat ve İnönü Üniversitelerinde örgütsel çatışmalar ve çatışma yönetimi yaklaşımları*. (Yayımlanmamış doktora tezi). Fırat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Elazığ.
- Özmen, F., & Aküzüm, C. (2010). Okulların kültürel yapısı içinde çatışmalara bakış açısı ve çatışma çözümünde okul yöneticilerinin liderlik davranışları. *Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Dergisi*, 2(2), 65-75.
- Rahim, M. A. (2000). *Managing conflict in organizations*, Westport, USA: Greenwood Press. Retrieved from <http://site.ebrary.com.onelog.marmara.edu.tr>.
- Robbins, S. P. (2005). *Organizational behavior*. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Sarpkaya, R. (2002). Eğitim örgütlerinde çatışma yönetimi ve bir örnek olay. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi Dergisi*, 8(3), 414-429.
- Türk Dil Kurumu [TDK] (2015). *Türk dil kurumu sözlüğü*. <http://www.tdk.gov.tr/>
- Tevruz, S., Artan, İ., & Bozkurt, T. (1999). *Davranışlarımızdan seçmeler (örgütsel yaklaşım)*. İstanbul: Beta Basım yayın Dağıtım.
- Ural, A. (1997). *İlköğretim okulu yöneticilerinin öğretmenlerle aralarındaki çatışmaları yönetme yöntemleri*. (Yayımlanmamış doktora tezi). Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Bolu.
- Yıldırım, A. ve Şimşek, H. (2011). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Zembat, R. (2012). Okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin okul yöneticisi, meslektaşları ve aileler bağlamında algıladıkları çatışma durumlarının incelenmesi. *Eğitim ve Bilim*, 37(163), 1300-1337.

Obsessive-Compulsive Symptoms In Youth And Its Relation With Religious Education †

Muhammet Mustafa Bayraktar**

Introduction

Individuals usually go through the periods defined as babyhood, childhood, youth, adulthood and old age from birth till death that are not strictly separated from each other. Just as every period influences the next, each period has its own physical, mental, social, social and psychological characteristics. The most remarkable one among the stages of human life which is complex in all aspects, is undoubtedly youth.

The youth is regarded as a dynamic and variable age period, beginning with puberty, involving the physiological and psychological changes, socializing the individual (Perşembe, 1999: 8). This process is a period which involves the period between 15-22 years on average and in which the spiritual life begins to be balanced, certain personality traits begin to acquire a permanent character and the bodily development begins to be completed. Youth, which is considered as the most complicated period of either physiological or psychological needs, is the most problematic period of humankind. As the vast majority of these problems are solved over time automatically, some of these problems need serious measures to be taken (Gülbağçe, 1996: 69). Because, psychological symptoms in the youth affect the integration of the individuals with the society, undermine their relations and restrain them from studying by causing unusual deviations in emotions, thoughts and behaviors (İçmeli, 1996: 82).

It is known that suicide, substance abuse, intergenerational conflict and sexual problems increase in the youth (Ekşi, 1999a: 142). However, mania, depression, anxiety, social phobia, attention deficit disorder, personality and sleep disorders, tic disorders, eating disorders and impulse control disorders are also seen among some psychological symptoms in the youth (Bayraktar, 2007).

One of the most common psychological symptoms in young people is Obsessive-Compulsive Symptoms that manifest themselves with obsessive thoughts and compulsive behaviors. Obsessive thoughts and compulsive behaviors are the constant thoughts that stick to individual's mind and individual's repeating some certain movements to defeat them (Koptagel, 1991: 360).

Obsessive Compulsive Symptoms

Obsession that comes from the word *obsidere* in Latin in the meaning of disturbing, pressing, bothering and boring (Karabulut, 1998: 2) is the thought, impulse, word or imagination that comes to the individual's mind unconsciously and misinterpreted, is egodystonic (Tükel, 1998: 96), and is often considered meaningless (Güvendeğer, 1998: 11), which individual cannot get rid of consciously although it bothers himself/herself and create anxiety, that is repetitive, persistent, compelling, ego dystonic, obsessive and annoying (Koç, 2002: 130). Compulsions are the movements that one cannot help themselves doing and repeats involuntarily in order to neutralize and unload the obsessional thoughts and to reduce anxiety (Ekşi, 1999b: 327).

Some researchers ascertained that the age of onset of Obsessive Compulsive Disorder was 15 for men and 23 for women; and some researchers found this age as 21 for men and 24 for women (Karabulut,

† This paper is an extended version of the master's thesis "Some Psychological Symptoms in Relation to Religion and Education in Youth - A Case of Obsessive Compulsive Symptoms prepared by the author under the supervision of assistant professor H. Suphi Erdem in the Department of Philosophy and Religious Studies, Institute of Social Sciences, Yüzüncü Yıl University in 2007.

** MEB, Ankara, Turkey.

e-mail: mmustafabayraktar@gmail.com

1998: 39). It may also begin in childhood as it emerges in the early stages of adolescence. Symptoms start in two-thirds of patients before age 25. And it was found to start after the age of 35 in less than 15% of the cases. It was determined that the average age of onset is 20, it is 19 in males and 22 in females. Obsessive Compulsive Disorder can start at any age, but ages 10-24 are the most risky (Bayraktar, 1997: 26).

Obsessive Compulsive Disorder may lead to serious impaired social, academic and occupational functioning in adolescents. Most of the adolescents tend to hide their rituals at the beginning not to be criticized and excluded by others. This partial control remains incapable as the severity of the disease increases. Thus, the symptoms put the adolescent in a difficult situation, disturb the person's surroundings and spoil their social relations (Aras, 1996: 19).

Compulsive behaviors are usually accompanied by feelings of disgust and hate; patients appear to be in a state of being nervous and a small disaster. Patients try to rationalize their behavior in order to decathect their obsessional thoughts. They lose their sense of totality, experience a feeling of fragmentation, and also a kind of distraction. The behavioral memory is distorted in patients, and they may have difficulty in distinguishing between the behaviors done and the anticipated behaviors. They experience an inner clarity that they are doing their behavior from beginning to end and they continue to repeat their behavior until relaxation occurs. (Karabulut, 1998: 13). Functionality of patients worsens in all areas. Especially, because of their compulsions they may develop a discomfort and intolerance that develop over time (Bauer ve Bosh, 1985: 125).

Obsessive Compulsive Disorder is very rich in terms of symptoms and this diversity in symptoms makes us think the disorder is heterogeneous. According to epidemiological data, only about 40% of patients are obsessed, 30% are only compulsions, and the remaining 30% are both obsessive and compulsive. According to their frequency, obsessions are in the form of contagion (50%), suspicion (40%), somatic (30%), symmetry (30%), aggressive (30%), sexual (25%) and religious (10%) obsessions. Compulsions are listed as checking(60%), washing (50%), counting (35%), asking question, talking or praying (35%), symmetry (30%) and accumulation of belongings (20%) (Şahin, 1997: 499).

Religious Obsessions and Compulsions

Obsessive-compulsive Symptoms may appear in the individual's religious thoughts and behaviors as well as occur in different forms within the individual's life (Koç, 2002: 129). Religious obsessions and compulsions are seen close to metaphysical (haunted ideas) and mystical obsessions (delusions) (Armaner, 1973: 114).

Abandoning the faith, the validity of the worship, suspicions about ablutions (partial, full) and cleanliness, sinful thoughts, insinuating thoughts (waswasa) about the foods and drinks whether they are lawful (halal) or forbidden (haram) and about disgrace and sin; perfectionism in faith, worship and morality, and fear of death and hereafter worries are evaluated in the frames of obsession and compulsion.

It was seen in the researches conducted by Armaner (1973: 205) in order to examine the religious symptoms in psycho-pathology that the idea of worshipping perfectly were common in some of these cases.

Religious obsessions and compulsions can lead to deviations, anxiety and psychopathological situations in religious life as well as it can be severe enough to paralyse the individual's social, professional and academic life (Bayraktar, 2007: 98).

It is considered that it is important for the people and the institutions to take the responsibility of raising individuals to know the reasons of these symptoms and to take necessary precautions in advance for the development of a positive personality and a healthy religious life. So, the Obsessive-Compulsive Symptoms were examined both in general and with a religious approach in this study. Then, the topic of our study is to present the Obsessive-Compulsive Symptom levels belonging to 5 groups of young university students and to determine in what directions their religious education levels influence the Obsessive-Compulsive Symptom levels by distinguishing them. The main problem of our study is to investigate how factual identities, levels of religious attitude, levels of

Obsessive-Compulsive Symptoms In Youth And Its Relation With Religious Education

subjective religious knowledge, frequencies of performing worship of young people affect the symptom levels of obsessive compulsive. In this context, our study is associated with the problems about the symptoms of religious obsessive-compulsive disorder resulting from religious education methods in youth.

The Population and the Sample of the Survey

Considering certain developmental periods, young people, who are the most dynamic element of society socioculturally, were determined as the target mass of the study. In this framework, a total of 151 graduate students, studying in the spring semester in 2006-2007 academic year, constitute the population of our study. As a result of our application to the Dean's Offices, we received positive responses from the Faculty of Education, The Faculty of Science and Letters, the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine and the Faculty of Agriculture for our field of study. A questionnaire form was applied to one class of each grades I, II, III, IV that was randomly selected from a total of 6835 students studying at these faculties and a total of 850 students were selected as the sample of the study. As an evaluation result of the forms, questionnaire forms belonging to 571 students were considered valid. The table showing the numerical information about the faculties and classes in the sample group is as follows.

Table 1: Sample Group

FACULTIES	GRADES				Total
	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	
Faculty of Education	100	88	36	32	256
Faculty of Science and Letters	19	22	28	26	95
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine	32	19	15	23	89
Faculty of Agriculture	24	13	65	29	131
TOTAL	175	142	144	110	571

Limitations of the Survey

The limitations of the survey can be listed as follows.

1. The sample of this research consists of 571 students studying in spring semester of 2006-2007 academic year at Faculty of Education, Faculty of Science and Letters, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine and Faculty of Agriculture in Van Yüzüncü Yıl University.
2. Religious attitudes of the young which are dependent variables of the study are limited to qualities measured by the "Religious Attitude Scale" used in this survey.
3. Obsessive-compulsive Symptom levels in young people which are dependent variables of the study are limited to qualities measured by the " Obsessive Compulsive Question List" used in this survey.
4. In the survey, some information included in the personal information survey that considered to be related to the dependent variable was examined as an independent variable.
5. In social surveys, the limitations arising from the presence of human element in the center of the survey are also valid for this study.
6. The limitations of the statistical package program used to analyze survey data are also valid for this study.

To sum up, our work is limited with the researcher, the surveying instrument, the surveying method, the time and the environment of survey, the interaction of the survey participants with these factors and errors that can mingle with measurement results.

Data Collection Tool

The survey form used in the study consists of three parts. In the first part, a "Personal Information Questionnaire" was prepared to determine the personal characteristics of the sample group. In the second part of the survey, "Religious Attitude Scale" was used to determine the levels of religiousness

of the sample group. In the last part of the survey "Obsessive Compulsive Scale" was used to determine the obsessive-compulsive symptoms of the sample group.

The personal information section in the questionnaire was prepared taking into account the knowledge in the literature. In the study, personal information section, in which the socio-demographic characteristics of the youth regarding the independent variables were determined and which was thought to be related to the dependent variable was developed by the surveyor. The section involves gender, age, faculty, class, alma mater/ graduated high school, number of siblings, family structure, place of residence and income status. In addition, it also involves educational status and professions of parents, source of the religious knowledge, level of the subjective belief, frequencies of praying, fasting, reading Quran, repentance and prayer.

In the second part of the form, "Religious Attitude Scale" developed by Kaya (1998) was used to measure the religious attitude of the sample group. The religious attitude scale consists of 31 items reflecting the religious attitude, 17 of which are positive and 14 of which are negative. While the items 1, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 12, 14, 18, 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26 and 28 are expressed positively in the scale, items 2, 3, 6, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 17, 21, 27, 29, 30 and 31 are expressed negatively. For each item in this section there are five options: "Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree and Strongly Disagree". The degree of religious attitude was indicated by marking one of these options in each item.

It is regarded as the evidence that the result of factor analysis on the religious attitude scale, gathering of the factor loads of items in the first factor, and a high level correlation coefficient, has the validity feature of the "religious attitude scale". The high reliability coefficients in the results of the reliability studies show that the "Religious Attitude Scale" is a reliable scale (Kaya, 1998: 111-112).

Moudsley Obsessive Compulsive Question List" (Moudsley Obsessional-Compulsive Questionnaire-MOCO) in the third part of the form is an assessment tool with 30 items developed by Hodgson and Rachman (Rush, 2000). This questionnaire, which is answered as true and false, was developed to investigate the obsessive-compulsive symptoms and distinguish obsessive patients from other neurotic patients. As well as providing more detailed information in clinical assessment, it also identifies the changes after treatment (Erdoğan, 1995: 30).

Adaptation and standardization of MOKSL were developed for the Turkish community. The questionnaire was translated into Turkish, 7 items from the "Minnesota Multiplex Personality Inventory" (MMPI) test were added to the dimensional obsessive-compulsive scale, and the question list was increased to 37 items. Validity and reliability studies were conducted again for the 37-point arrangement. If the 11th item was answered as false, it is evaluated by giving 1 point and score above 17 indicates the current obsessive compulsive pathology (Karabulut, 1998: 28).

Solution and Interpretation of Data

After the questionnaire application, the forms were checked one by one and the unreliable forms were not scored by checking on the basis of principles that determine the reliability of markings.

For the statistical processing of the information obtained from the questionnaire form, SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) statistical package program was used. In addition to the distributions showing the absolute and relative frequencies of the variables, the Chi-square test was applied for the independent variables and the obsessive-compulsive scale, and the Chi-square tables with meaningful and meaningless results were presented in the section of "Findings and Commentary". Minimum .05 significance level was acknowledged for the test of significance of the difference between the group averages. But, higher (0,01 and 0,001) significance levels and some meaningless relations were also interpreted.

Findings and Interpretation

There are tables showing the relations between the obsessive-compulsive pathological score levels and independent variables, and interpretations based on these tables under this heading.

Obsessive-compulsive symptoms are considered as a rare disorder until recently. Because of the studies which identified this symptom is more common in the society than it is thought, the interest

in this disease increased, its origin, treatment methods, and its relation with other neurological and psychological disorders were tried to be explained (Aras, 1996). Obsessive compulsive disorder is the fourth most common disorder among all psychiatric disorders after phobic disorders, substance use disorders and major depressive disorder (Şahin, 1997: 493).

It is seen that obsessive-compulsive symptoms are in existence at the pathological level in 55.5% of the young people who entered the sample in our study. Although it is widely seen in the society, and since there is no application for a treatment, it is revealed that the pathological presence is relatively low in clinical studies. It is emphasized in the literature studies that such findings can only be put forward by population based studies. In this respect, the high level of pathological symptoms in our sample seems natural and it is understood that it has parallels with similar society-based studies.

In the study, titled "Relationship between Psychological Symptoms and Social Support In a Group of Young People", conducted by Bayram (1999: 146), it was seen that the symptoms in the areas of personal sensitivity, obsessions and compulsions, paranoid thought, depression and hostility were very intensive in young people.

In the study, conducted by Bulut(2004: 40), on 360 students composed of classes I, II, III in Şanlıurfa, Siverek, Suruç and Bozova Imam-Hatip Highschools; the state of having delusions and being capricious which were personal problems of the students were identified in the context of guidance and psychological counseling services in religious education. Among the students, there were those who were anxious, those who took partial ablution again and those who were caught in various delusions and also those who suffered from psychological and emotional disorders.

On the other hand, it was found in the study conducted by Karabulut (1998: 6) with 324 students selected from Erzurum Atatürk University that the lifetime prevalence rate of obsessive compulsive disorder was 6.2% and the annual prevalence rate was 5.6%.

Most of the patients tend to keep their symptoms confidential and hide this unless there is a significant loss of social and academic functioning. It is also thought that the lack of health care insurance and the stigmatical nature of having "mental illness" restrict the number of applications to the hospital. Thus, the rate of obsessive-compulsive disorder in the social sample may be higher than expected. Since the studies based on clinical populations can not reflect the frequency of obsessive-compulsive symptoms accurately, we need community-based studies (Güvender, 1998: 10).

Source of Religious Knowledge and Obsessive Compulsive Pathology

When we look at the relationship between the source of religious knowledge and the obsessive compulsive pathology level, it is seen that there is a significant relationship between these two variables since $P < .05$ according to statistical procedures.

Table 2 Source of Religious Knowledge and Obsessive Compulsive Pathology

Source of Religious Knowledge		Obsessive Compulsive Pathological Level		Total
		1,00	2,00	
Family	N	166	152	318
	Line %	52,2%	47,8%	100,0%
	Column %	52,4%	59,8%	55,7%
	Total %	29,1%	26,6%	55,7%
School	N	34	37	71
	Line %	47,9%	52,1%	100,0%
	Column %	10,7%	14,6%	12,4%
	Total %	6,0%	6,5%	12,4%
Quran Teaching Center	N	27	8	35
	Line %	77,1%	22,9%	100,0%
	Column %	8,5%	3,1%	6,1%
	Total %	4,7%	1,4%	6,1%
Own individual research	N	69	40	109
	Line %	63,3%	36,7%	100,0%
	Column %	21,8%	15,7%	19,1%
	Total %	12,1%	7,0%	19,1%
Religious Official	N	14	10	24
	Line %	58,3%	41,7%	100,0%
	Column %	4,4%	3,9%	4,2%
	% of Total	2,5%	1,8%	4,2%
None	N	7	7	14
	Line %	50,0%	50,0%	100,0%
	Column %	2,2%	2,8%	2,5%
	Total %	1,2%	1,2%	2,5%
Total	N	317	254	571
	Line %	55,5%	44,5%	100,0%
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	55,5%	44,5%	100,0%

X²: 12.643 df : 5

p : ,027

Options:

1. Obsessive Compulsive Pathology existing
2. Obsessive Compulsive Pathology not existing

According to the table, it is seen that 52.2% of the young people who got their religious information from their families have somehow obsessive compulsive pathological conditions. Obsessive Compulsive Patoloji appears to be present in 47.9% of those who expressed that they received their religious knowledge at school, in 77.1% of those who expressed that they received it at the Quran Learning Center, in 63.3% of those who expressed that they learnt on their own, in 58.3% of those who expressed that they were thought by religious officials, in 50% of those who expressed that they did not receive any religious information. In this case, according to the source of religious information, it is noteworthy that the highest rate of Obsessive Compulsive pathological level is formed by the young people expressing their religious knowledge from the Quran Learning Center. In descending order, this situation is followed by those who acquired their religious knowledge through

their own research, those who acquired it from religious officials, those who acquired it from their families, those who did not acquire religious knowledge and those who acquired it at school.

It is noteworthy that 52% of those who acquired their religious knowledge at school and 50% of those who did not receive religious information do not have any pathological obsessive compulsive disorder. In this case, it can be said that the religious culture and moral knowledge given in the school is more methodical and systematic than the religion knowledge received from family, religious officials, the Quran course and their own researches, and that this situation makes the Obsessive Compulsive Pathological level less visible.

Hence, in the survey which was titled "Education and Efficiency in the Quran Courses" and conducted by Koç (2005: 116) on 452 students in Quran courses in Trabzon, Rize and Giresun provinces affiliated to the Presidency of Religious Affairs, in the context of psychological states of the students, 47.8% of the them stated that they were happy despite some problems they have, 7.3% stated that they were in distress and depression, 6.6% stated that they were hopeless for the future, 5.9% stated that they felt themselves alone, 4.4% stated that they did not have high level of self esteem, 4.4% stated that they were not understood by others, and 3.3% stated that they had difficulty controlling themselves

According to the source of religious knowledge, the great majority of the incidence of Obsessive Compulsive Pathological level is attributed to those who received their religious knowledge from the Quran Course. We can say that this shows the results of a religious education system that has a strict, inadequate pedagogical approach, and that transforms the knowledge into obsession and compulsion. As a matter of fact, it was seen in some of the studies conducted that the factors playing a role in the formation of depressions in patients coming from religious educational institutions are religious obsessions developed excessively. Fear-based teaching in religious education and a number of negative causes may affect the mental health in a negative direction (Bulut, 2004: 40).

Looking at the table, the fact that the data about those who received their religious knowledge through their own researches take the second place in terms of Obsessive Compulsive Pathological levels proves the importance of giving religious education by the competent persons and institutions in the field. However, according to the source of religious education, it can be said that the third place taken by those who received their religious knowledge from religious officers in terms of Obsessive Compulsive pathological level indicates that it is related to the quality of professional competence of the staff in The Directorate of Religious Affairs, who are responsible for enlightening the public about religion (Dam, 2002: 121-130).

Level of Religious Knowledge and Pathology of Obsessive-Compulsive

Having looked at the relationship between the level of religious knowledge and the Obsessive Compulsive pathological level, it is seen that there is a significant relationship between these two variables since p is $<.05$ according to the statistical applications.

Table 3. Level of Religious Knowledge and Obsessive Compulsive Pathology

Level of Religious Knowledge		Obsessive Compulsive the pathological level		Total
		1,00	2,00	
I Have the Knowledge Required for a Muslim	N	68	37	105
	Line%	64,8	35,2	100,0
	Column %	21,5	14,6	18,4
	Total %	11,9	6,5	18,4
I Have Enough Knowledge to Fulfill my Prayers	N	186	149	335
	Line %	55,5	44,5	100,0
	Column %	58,7	58,7	58,7
	Total %	32,6	26,1	58,7
I Consider my Knowledge about Religion not Enough	N	57	65	122
	Line %	46,7	53,3	100,0
	Column %	18,0	25,6	21,4
	Total %	10,0	11,4	21,4
I Have No Knowledge	N	6	3	9
	Line %	66,7	33,3	100,0
	Column %	1,9	1,2	1,6
	Total %	1,1	,5	1,6
TOTAL	N	317	254	571
	Line %	55,5	44,5	100,0
	Column %	100,0	100,0	100,0
	Total %	55,5	44,5	100,0

$X^2 : 7.909$ df : 3 p : ,048

Options:

1. Obsessive Compulsive Pathology existing
2. Obsessive Compulsive Pathology not existing

According to the table, it is seen that 64.8% of the young people, who think that they have the required religious knowledge for a Muslim, have a Obsessive Compulsive pathological level.. And, it is seen that Obsessive Compulsive pathological level exists in 55.7% of those who have enough knowledge to fulfill their worship, in 46.7% of those who think that the information about religion is not enough, and in 66.7% of young people who do not have any religious information. In this direction, those who think that they know everything about religion and those who do not know anything about religion have higher pathological obsessive features than others. On the other hand, it is understood that those who have enough information to fulfill religious duties, or those who feel themselves inadequate about religious knowledge are less likely to have pathological condition of obsessive compulsive.

In terms of religious knowledge, those who say "they do not have any information" constitute the highest proportion of the obsessive-compulsive pathological level. And this is noteworthy that ignorance of religious issues is pointing to an increase in Obsessive Compulsive pathological level. On the other hand, it is noteworthy that this situation is followed by those who stated that "they have all the information required for a Muslim" in descending order. This can be explained by the quality of the religious information that is thought to be possessed, the reality and the appropriateness of the actual sources. Hence, in some surveys (Özkan, 1984), fear and anxiety about religion and morals were found to be involved in the fears that make young people anxious and play role in the emergence of religious doubts and depression in adolescents (Kula, 2005: 103), and it was determined in other surveys that these fears were caused by inadequacy in religious knowledge and misrepresentation of religious education (Güvenç, 1991: 90; Bulut, 2004: 58; Ak, 2002).

Metaphysics and mystical obsessions bear intellectual quality firstly. The patient overthinks about questions that concerned humanity in all age. For example, does the soul exist? What is the essence of being? What is the spiritual nature? What is life? Why did humans come into existence on earth? What happens after death? What is God? These questions vary according to the patient's ordinary thinking and cultural level (Armaner, 1973: 114). Likewise, it was seen in the study titled "Needs of Secondary School Students in Religion Teaching", which was conducted by Özdemir (1998) on 148 students who studied in 1999-2000 academic year at Primary and High Schools affiliated to the Isparta Provincial Directorate of National Education, that secondary school students are curious about the information about the religious content and they stated that they were in need of learning about it.

The adequate and healthy religious education that will be provided within this need and curiosity will prevent stumbling into false ideologies and superstitions. If there is not enough religious education, there is a danger of stumbling into false beliefs, situations and superstitions about religion (Ak, 2002: 151; el-Attas, 1991: 28).

Hence, in the survey conducted by Bulut (2004) on the sample of 360 students composing of grades I, II, III, at Imam Hatip High Schools (Islamic Divinity Schools) in Şanlıurfa, Siverek, Suruç ve Bozova in order to collect data for guidance and psychological counseling services in religious education, it is founded that the states of being deluded and capricious are some of the personal problems of the students. Those who have delusional personality, those who have unusual suspicions and worries, those who perform ablution repeatedly thinking that they have no ablution, those who become deluded many times during worshipping were among the samples.

Conclusion

As a result of analysis in the research, significant correlations were found between some variables and obsessive-compulsive pathology. Given the theoretical approaches regarding the subject, it is possible to rank the results of the research as follows:

1. Considering the data obtained from this survey and other studies, it is understood that religious obsessions and compulsions are so common that we cannot ignore and how important it is in terms of both individual and community health.
2. It was found that there is a significant relationship between the source of religious information and obsessive-compulsive pathology. It is observed that those who received their religious knowledge from the Quran Course have the highest rate (77.1%), and those who received it from the school have the lowest rate (47.9%) in terms of obsessive-compulsive pathology
3. It was also seen that there was a significant relationship between religious belief and obsessive-compulsive pathology. It is seen that those who stated they were anti religion appear to represent the highest rate (80%) in the sample in terms of obsessive-compulsive pathology.
4. It was seen that there was also a significant relationship between the level of religious knowledge and obsessive-compulsive pathology. At the end of the statistical analysis, it is seen that 66.7% of those who stated that they did not have any religious knowledge had obsessive compulsive pathology.
5. It was seen that there was no significant relationship between prayer(salah) and supplication and obsessive-compulsive pathology in our study.

6. It is understood that when religious obsessions and compulsions are not controlled, they can reach extremely disturbing dimensions in individual's daily life.
7. A lack of adequate and healthy religious education is seen in the formation of religious obsessions and compulsions.
8. On the other hand, rigorous, strict, normative and extreme discipline-based religious education may cause a personality development that overvalues system and perfectionism, and this situation may form a basis for the obsessive-compulsive symptom. The thought of performing the dandiest, the right, the complete, the best action increases the severity of delusion and thus it develops obsession.
9. When religious education is not taken adequately, religious deviations and false religious tendencies can take place.
10. According to the data based on this study, it is not possible to make an inference that only religious people are obsessive.
11. The effects of the imperfect religious knowledge, the rigid and repressive approaches were seen both in the formation of religious obsessions and compulsions and in reaching their pathological level.

Suggestions

It is possible to make the following suggestions based on the results achieved in this study:

1. The importance of religious education and its teaching should be taken into account in formal and non-formal education.
2. Adequate counseling services should be provided to young people whose obsessive-compulsive symptoms related to religion reached the pathological level. The lack of guidance and counseling services in religious education leads to the birth of important problems.
3. It is important that religious education is planned considering the developmental characteristics and psychological structures of individuals. It is very important to learn the problems of young people and to recognize them in this respect.
4. An interdisciplinary understanding should be adopted on the studies that will be conducted on adolescent mental health; studies in religious education and psychology of religion should also be utilized.
5. Protective mental health services should be provided against the symptoms of religious obsessive-compulsive for the sake of community and individual health.
6. Religious counseling and guidance services should be utilized in the solution of the problems of young people that were thought to be originated from religion or that could be seen in their religious behavior.
7. Approaches in religious education and its teaching should be reviewed considering the symptom of obsessive compulsive that seen during the youth.

Religion can transform into a pathological source when it is presented in an inappropriate way and context without regarding the values that it puts forth for the world and the hereafter, rituals and references, individual and social conditions. Actually, religion invites human to a life that he/she can be peaceful and happy. It also gives the individual faith to achieve this and strength to endure the difficulties in life (Yavuz, 1998: 116; Hayta, 2002: 124). Faith and worship, during the youth when senses of asylum and faithfulness are felt most intensely, are the most important sources that calm the cravings and needs of the adolescent. Adequate and healthy religious education in this period will prevent psychological situations that may be seen in religious thoughts and behaviors. Because, in terms of religious education, it is an important responsibility to raise consistent, self-fulfilling individuals who are in good mental health and compliance with the society.

References

- Ak, K. (2002). *17-25 Yaş Gençlerde Görülen Bazı Dini Şüpheler ve Din Eğitimi Açısından Değerlendirilmesi*, Yüksek lisans tezi, Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi, Samsun.
- Aras, Ş. (1996). *Çocukluk ve Ergenlik Döneminde Obsesif Kompulsif Bozukluğun Klinik Özellikleri*, Tıp fakültesi uzmanlık tezi, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, İzmir.

- Armaner, N. (1973). *Psikopatoloji'de Dini Belirtiler*, Ankara: Demirbai Yayınları.
- el-Attas, S. M. N. (1991). *İslami Eğitim*, (A. Çaksu, Çev.), İstanbul: Endülüs Yayınları.
- Bauer, M. ve Bosh, G. (1985). *Psikiyatri* (G. Koptagel-İlal, Çev.), (3. Bs.), Kırklareli: Sermet Matbaası.
- Bayraktar, E. (1997). Obsesif-Kompulsif Bozukluk, *Psikiyatri Dünyası*, (1), 25-32.
- Bayraktar, M. M. (2007). *Gençlik Döneminde Görülen Bazı Psikolojik Belirtiler ve Din Eğitimi İlişkisi – Obsesif Kompulsif Belirti Örneği-*, Yüksek lisans tezi, Yüzüncü Yıl Üniversitesi, Van.
- Bayram, D. (1999). *Bir Grup Gençte Ruhsal Belirti İle Sosyal Destek İlişkisi*, Doktora tezi, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, İzmir.
- Bulut, A. (2004). *Din Eğitiminde Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık*, (2. bs.), Ankara: Diyanet İşleri Başkanlığı Yayınları.
- Dam, H. (2002). *Yetişkinlerin Din Eğitimi*, Doktora tezi, On dokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi, Samsun.
- Ekşi, A. (1999a). Adolesan Ruh Sağlığı ve Gelişimi, A. Ekşi, (Ed.), *Ben Hasta Değilim, Çocuk Sağlığı ve Hastalıklarının Psikososyal Yönü*, (s. 125-148), İstanbul: Nobel Tıp Kitabevi.
- Ekşi, A. (1999b). Çocuk ve Adolesanda Obsesif Kompulsif Bozuklukları, A. Ekşi, (Ed.), *Ben Hasta Değilim, Çocuk Sağlığı ve Hastalıklarının Psikososyal Yönü*, (s. 327-334), İstanbul: Nobel Tıp Kitabevi.
- Erdoğan, A. (1995). *Obsesif Kompulsif Bozukluğunun Uludağ Üniversitesi Öğrencileri Arasında Görülme Sıklığı ve Bu Kişilerde Benlik İmajı*, Yüksek lisans tezi, Uludağ Üniversitesi, Bursa.
- Gülbahçe, Ö. (1996). *Boş Zamanları Değerlendirme Alışkanlıkları*, Yüksek lisans tezi, Atatürk Üniversitesi, Erzurum.
- Güvenç, R. (1991). *Sters ve Din Eğitimi*, Yüksek lisans tezi, Selçuk Üniversitesi, Konya.
- Güvender, N. (1998). *Bursa İlinde 9-15 Yaş Arasında Bir Örneklem Grubunda Çocuk ve Ergenlerde Obsesif Kompulsif Bozukluğun Epidemiyolojik ve Fenomenolojik Özellikleri*, Uzmanlık tezi, Uludağ Üniversitesi, Bursa.
- Hayta, A. (2002). İbadetler ve Ruh Sağlığı, H. Hökelekli, (Ed.), *Gençlik Din ve Değerler Psikolojisi*, (s. 117-153), Ankara: Ankara Okulu Yayınları.
- Hökelekli, H. (1999). İbadet-Psikoloji ve Sosyoloji Açısından İbadet, *Diyanet İslam Ansiklopedisi*, (c. XIX, s. 248-252), İstanbul: Diyanet İşleri Başkanlığı.
- İçmeli, C. (1996). Üniversite Gençliği: Fırat Üniversitesi'ndeki Gençlerin Psiko-Sosyal Sorunları, *Fırat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, III(2), 43-83.
- Karabulut, C. (1998) *Elazığ Yöresinde Çocuk ve Ergenlerde Obsesif Kompulsif Bozukluğun Görülme Sıklığı ve Sosyodemografik Değişkenlerle İlişkisi*, Uzmanlık tezi, Fırat Üniversitesi, Elazığ.
- Kaya, M. (1998). *Din Eğitiminde İletişim ve Dini Tutum*, Samsun: Etüt Yayınları.
- Koç A. (2005). *Kur'an Kurslarında Verimlilik*, Ankara: İlahiyat Yayınları.
- Koç, B. (2002). Dinsel Bir Yaklaşımla Obsesif Kompulsif Kişilik Bozukluğu, *EKEV Akademi Dergisi*, (10), 129-144.
- Koç, M. (2002), *Ergenlik Döneminde Dua ve İbadet Psikolojisinin Ruh Sağlığı Üzerindeki Etkileri*, Yüksek lisans tezi, Uludağ Üniversitesi, Bursa.
- Koptagel İlal, G. (1991). *Tıpsal Psikoloji – Tıpta Davranış Bilimleri*, (3. bs.), Ankara: Güneş Kitabevi.
- Kula, M. N. (2005). *Bedensel Engellilik ve Dini Başa Çıkma*, İstanbul: Dem Yayınları.
- Özdemir, S. (1998). Ortaöğretim Gençlerinin Din Öğretimi İhtiyaçları, *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi Dergisi*, (5), 219-230.
- Özkan, M. (1984). *15-17 Yaş Ergenlerde Görülen Korkular ve Kaygılar*, Yüksek lisans tezi, Ankara Üniversitesi, Ankara.
- Perşembe, E. (1999). Genç-Aile İlişkilerinde Uyumun Sağlanmasında Dinin Fonksiyonel Rolü Üzerine, *Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi Dergisi*, (11), 7-19.
- Rush, A. J. (2000). *Handbook of Psychiatric Measures*, Washington: American Psychiatric Association.
- Şahin, A. R. (1997). Obsesif Kompulsif Bozukluk. C. Güleç ve E. Köroğlu (Ed.). *Psikiyatri Temel Kitabı I*, (s. 493-504). Ankara: Hekimler Yayın Birliği.
- Tükel, R. (1998). Obsesif Kompulsif Bozukluk, Beden Dismorfik Bozukluğu ve Hipokandriyazis: Spektrum Bozuklukları Kavramı ve Fenomenolojik Açından Bir Yaklaşım, *Bilimsel Çalışmalar*

Muhammet Mustafa Bayraktar

Özet Kitabı, 34. Ulusal Psikiyatri Kongresi ve Uluslar arası Uydu Sempozyum: 29 Eylül/3 Ekim 1998 – İzmir, (s. 96-97).

Yavuz, K. (1998). *Günümüzde Din Eğitimi*, Adana: Çukurova Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi Yayınları.

The Views of Secondary School Teachers Regarding Social Justice

Şekibe Tas, Osman Ferda Beytekin, Nuray Sungur Oakley

1. Introduction

Social justice is a virtue or societal value that guides human interaction and, in particular, the fair distribution of society's benefits, advantages, and assets, not just by law and in the courts but in all aspects of society. Social justice is about securing rights but also about our responsibilities and their consequences. Social justice is linked to the concept of *equity* and the just treatment of individuals in their own social context to meet their needs and reach their potential. It is also linked to the notion that a socially just society is a "society for all" that provides an equal basis of opportunity (Gabbard, 2008).

Social justice is the basic expression and the distribution of blessings and burdens in society fairly. In other words, there is a general consensus that everyone in society has a right to share. The concept of justice comes in the face of people in many areas of social life. One of the most important concepts reinforcing the existence of justice is equality. First of all, members of a society must be politically equal. The richness, colors, beliefs and cultures of the members of the society should not distort the equality between the individuals in political participation and decision. In order to be able to talk about the concept of political equality, everyone who is affected by the decisions taken and who is party to this process must be free to express his views or to be able to hear his voice. The equality of everyone is crucial in terms of building a just social order (Sunal, 2011). Policies aimed at ensuring social justice should not only be directed at protecting the rights of a particular segment but should be planned and implemented due to the principle of equality. Social policies need to be meticulously monitored in order to form an attitude towards social justice for the society.

There is widespread disagreement about what equality of opportunity in education requires. This disagreement ranges across a number of distinct dimensions. For example, suppose it could be agreed that equality of opportunity in education requires that no morally arbitrary factors should differentiate attainment between children. We would still have to ask both what counts as a morally arbitrary factor and what terms attainment should be measured in. Even if these controversies were resolved, we would not know which children were in the relevant group: all children in a particular state, the nation or the world? (Lazenby, 2016). Recent work on justice in the distribution of educational opportunities has focused on two phenomena. The first is the shift from an "equality" to an "adequacy" standard of fair educational opportunity (Anderson, 2007).

The main point of conceptualizing social justice in education is the training of everyone according to their ability and needs. In most cases, social justice in education is pronounced as equal education for all. Everyone's approach to giving equal and same individual education is neither realistic nor meaningful. For example, giving the same education to all those who need special education will be unfair to such students. In education, social justice tells about the realization of liberating the education that is to freely develop creative power on the basis of individual, human differences. The common point that can be sought in relation to education and justice is that they are both a social phenomenon, that is, the democratic common purpose of society. At this point, the relation between education and social justice is spontaneously established, and social justice in education explains the fair use of education as a democratic right on an individual and a social level (Polat, 2007). It is emphasized that social justice in education involves actions and processes that ultimately result in equality. Social justice is a relational concept and is closely related to actions and processes. Actionally, social justice is a humanitarian service against the attenuation, delay, and temporary elimination of the "deprivation" phenomenon, which is directly related to the organization of society (Tomul, 2009). The most important task of the trainers is to make the relationship between power, class, politics and morality visible. This orientation of trainers increases the likelihood of building

fairer, more egalitarian societies that is, creating a society. This is both social justice and the purpose of education (Polat, 2015).

It is clear that one country can not benefit from the same opportunities geographically in each region. But the duty of the state here is to create and promote equality of equal opportunity in each region by establishing a standard at minimum level. Depending on the neo-liberal policy applied after 1980's in Turkey, it is expected that the financing of education services will be undertaken by individuals in line with the understanding of benefiting from service. Class differences determine the quality, quantity and amount of service procurement. This results in poor children who can not purchase the service to benefit from education, which is the humanitarian and democratic right of the child. Education, as a social phenomenon, is the foundation of the individual's consciousness of being society. The attempt to uncover the individual aspect of the benefit of education is not compatible with social justice in education. On the one hand, the state publicly states that basic education is compulsory and free and states that it is financing education itself, while leaving the school administrators in a contradictory situation by not transferring resources (Polat, 2015). The inadequacy of the public resources allocated for training constitutes a barrier to the healthy implementation of the education service. While this situation continues to exist as a debate issue in the society, it also directs the education administrators to various searches. In fact, the state has forced school administrators to investigate private funding sources to meet the school's needs. Faced with this actual situation, school administrators face various difficulties arising from teachers, parents, and senior managers while developing various methods to meet the school's needs.

Teachers are the corner stones having the most important role in social justice in education especially in schools by cause of the teachers offer the education service directly to the students. Teachers are also responsible for enhancing the academic achievement of students as well as preparing them to form a socially more equal and democratic society (Furman and Shields, 2005). Teachers are regarded as a balance element in the provision of social equality in education. The teacher who will best know the student is the most important person to guide about what may be needed. In addition to providing educational services to the students in conformity with the principle of equality, teachers should ensure that they are trained in a democratic environment by adopting their social and cultural structures (Karacan, Bağlıbel and Binak, 2015).

This research aims to identify teachers' definitions of social justice, their views on the social injustices that arise in school as a result of applied education policies, and suggest solutions to social justice in education. The following questions were searched in order to find out the information about the social justice in education of the secondary school teachers.

1. What is social justice in education according to teachers?
2. How do teachers evaluate the educational program in terms of social justice?
3. How do teachers assess the distribution of resources in their schools in terms of social justice?
4. How do teachers provide social justice in the education of disadvantaged students?
5. What is the recommendation of teachers to provide social justice in education?

2. Method

The research was carried out using qualitative research model. Qualitative research can be defined as a qualitative research process in which qualitative data gathering methods such as observation, interview and document analysis are used and a perceptual and holistic process of revealing perceptions and events in a natural environment (Yildirim and Simsek, 2008). In terms of the appropriateness of the research in this framework, the case study method was used among the qualitative research models. According to Yıldırım and Şimşek (2008), situations can be antagonized in various forms. An individual, an institution, a group, an environment can set an example for situations to be studied. The aim is to produce conclusions about a particular situation. The most basic feature of the qualitative case study is the depth of one or more cases. So the factors related to a situation are the environment, the individual, the events, the processes, They are searched through a

holistic approach and focused on how they affect the situation and how it is affected by the situation in question.

Participants in this study were identified using easy-to-reach sampling from purposeful sampling methods, as appropriate for the qualitative situation. This method of sampling gives the researcher speed and practicality. The study group of the research constitutes 24 teachers who work in secondary schools in the province of Bayraklı in İzmir province in 2016-2017 academic year. The selection phase was carried out on the basis of the school information in the official web site of İzmir Bayraklı District Education Directorate. 11 of the teachers participating in this study are male and 13 are females.

3. Findings

The study findings were analyzed on the basis of research questions. According to the first research question, "What is social justice in education according to teachers?", the question is asked to teachers as "What is Social Justice in Education' for you?" It has been seen that the vast majority of the participants describe equality in different aspects of social justice in education. In this respect, the theme for the first research question is "Equality".

As the answers to the interview questions are examined, it is seen that a great majority of them describe social justice in education as equal opportunity in education.

K7 defines social justice in education as equality of opportunity as well as equal distribution of resources. *"Every individual in the process has the right to equal education. Equally beneficial from all kinds of sources in school, school resources are sufficient and equal use."*

Similarly, K8 refers to the social justice described as equal distribution of resources as follows. *"The state should offer education fairly, that is, to support the material opportunity, without discriminating between the sexes of girls and boys, without neglecting the differences of nationality and belief..."*

K17 defines social equality as access to resources and equality of equality and participation in the distribution of resources. *"Equal opportunity for all students to participate in education, social, cultural and sports activities to participate in all regions of the same level of education, technology, etc. can be provided. The level of accessibility of each student in the use of equipment is equal."*

According to the second research question, "How do teachers evaluate the educational program in terms of social justice?" The teachers' curriculum and their views generally emerged as a program in which differences were not observed. In this respect, the theme for the second research question was determined as "One Type Program".

K2 notes that the training program is a continuation of the process without considering the current situation regardless to social differences. *"Under present conditions, curricula serve to keep the current system going. Social justice is far from being a continuation of this inequality. In other words, the poor, the rich, who are still rich, continue their education in their rich schools."*

Many of the participants see the inequality between geographical regions as one of the biggest problems of ensuring social justice. They point out that programs that differ according to geographical area should be applied instead of the one type program applied throughout the country.

K4, *"They should have varied according to the geographical, economic and social conditions of the regions. The realities of each region are separate."*

K5, *"The curriculum should be determined according to the district or even the school to ensure justice. Programs that can be effective for each student should be selected. From the standard evaluations, appropriate programs in the region should be applied."*

Participants emphasize the inequality of opportunity and opportunity between state and private schools, the government's support for private schools and the incentive for students to go to private schools, to the extent of the implementation of the curriculum, and the social injustice experienced in our country.

K21, *"Every day in our country, our education and training programs reveal social injustice even more. The classroom becomes more evident in the environment where the economic conditions are better and the education is better. Increasing private schools, non-selective exam systems (which I think should never be), inadequacy in public schools cause harm to our teaching when we think about social justice."*

The Views of Secondary School Teachers Regarding Social Justice

For the third research question, "How do teachers assess the distribution of resources in their schools in terms of social justice?" A large majority of teachers reported opinions on resource inadequacy. In this respect, the theme for the third research question is "Resource Inadequacy".

K1 evaluates resource allocation from the point of view of course materials and expresses opinion on resource inadequacy rather than resource allocation.

"The fact that distributed resources are weak in content, that most of the people with financial means are not able to support with additional resources, has also pushed them to the source of the present ..."

K3 give a similar opinion *"The sources of our school are books and so on. There is social justice. There is social justice as you evaluate it. However, social justice does not exist if we take external and paid resources. There is a lot of resource allocation to the money."*

Some of the participants think that justice has been provided for resource allocation.

K2, *"When we look at school, I do not think there is an inequality in the distribution of resources. All students benefit equally from school resources."*

K10, *"I can say that there is a social justice in resource distribution of our school."*

For the fourth research question, "How do teachers provide social justice in the education of disadvantaged students?" Teachers evaluated disadvantaged students from all walks of life and gave feedback on their work.

Participants emphasize the importance of correct discovery of disadvantaged students for their implementation.

K2, *"First, these disadvantaged students need to be identified. It should be determined correctly. Is not it enough to determine, no. School children should be able to make more use of these resources. If these are insufficient, assistance can be obtained from the Directorate of National Education or from municipalities. In addition, donations collected by the school can be paid to the school family association and to these children."*

K1 say about practices for disadvantaged students as *"Making an application for the class is difficult and impossible. I am trying to support disadvantaged children, what they are, resource aid or one-off, extracurricular support."*

K3 refers to as cooperates with the parents *"I make classroom applications from simple materials. I usually bring it to my class and I do it. The source books, clothes, etc. we received. We share it with the parents in the classroom."*

K22 is directed the students to extracurricular activities and explain her both academic and guidance support by saying: *"I inform them about the competition. I actively work overtime with myself and put in the same competitions as private schools. I share the fact that there are no shortcomings of the other students, and perhaps even superior to them in the field of imagination and creativity. I blend and multiply my own questions. So they can get enough and quality questions. I have been working in the private sector in the field of education before, so I give them my experience and guide them."*

For the fifth research question, "What is the recommendation of teachers to provide social justice in education?". It has been seen that the vast majority of teachers are state support, and that the separation of private and state schools should be abolished and equality must be ensured in necessary arrangements. In this respect, the theme for the fifth research question is "Reorganization and State Support".

Participants state that state support is not only for private schools but also for public schools, allocating funds to public schools and regulating the legislation and implementing the legislation equally in each school. Participants suggest reorganizing their curricula as a solution to social justice.

K1, *"It is quite difficult to talk about a social justice that is a private school concept. It is necessary to increase incentives given to state schools and minimize the gap between them."*

K2, *"Schools should be appropriated in consideration of the socio-economic situation in schools. Every student does not need the help of the book made, the needs to be determined by the owners of rich students should be made to disadvantaged students. In order to equalize the opportunities provided to all students, the income of the families can be determined and assisted accordingly. Disadvantaged students may be more interested in intelligent students."*

K9, "Enriching the educational environment by combining it with a cultural, social and needs oriented program that supports a common program within the framework of the conditions of the educational environment."

4. Conclusion

To emphasize the importance of educational programs towards ensuring social justice, teachers point out that the program is intended to give one type of training and regional differences are not considered on this perspective. It is also emphasized that the updates made in the training program do not bring any difference that only exists in the present situation. Although the changes made in the Turkish education system are different in the country compared to the past years, it is seen that there is no progress. The uniformity of the program and the need to practice at a certain time makes it difficult for the teacher to identify different abilities and interests and does not allow them to practice extra curricula. Teachers emphasize the need to apply regional school or even school education programs in this study, so they think that the work on diversity may be more productive.

In addition to structural conditions, resource allocation in education is also important in terms of ensuring social justice. Teachers emphasize the inadequacy of distribution of resources. In addition to ensuring equal access to books through the application of a free course books, the socio-economic situation is at the forefront in reaching additional sources. Applications for equitable distribution can not be done in a fair way as the application of resources is devoid of case analysis, for example resources may be missing for some schools. Educational institutions are able to prioritize their personal connections for resource inadequacies and school administrators can take the initiative in this regard. Educational institutions seem to use the most family unions in their schools in order to realize their goals. However, in each educational institution, parent-teacher associations can not work at the same efficiency. The results of the studies carried out according to the socio-economic conditions of the regions show great differences. Thus, institutions that do not benefit from parent-teacher associations effectively continue to be trained as lacking supportive elements in their education and training activities. As long as the goals of the government are not met, the gap between other regions and private schools is increasing.

In order to provide social justice in education, teachers propose to reorganize the state support. With this regulation, schools are given a certain amount of allowance to encourage the support of state schools against private schools and even the removal of private schools. Especially in recent years, the incentives for private schools have been very far to public schools. Although the commercial nature is considered to be heavy, it differs considerably from state schools in terms of educational qualities and opportunities. In addition, it is seen as one of the vital damage in the educational concept of social justice. It can be said that children who study in private schools from a young age have created a social class within themselves and have continued with this point of view throughout their lives.

6. References

- Anderson, E. (20017). Fair Opportunity in Education: A Democratic Equality Perspective, *Ethics*, 595–622.
- Furman, G. C., & Shields, C. M. (2005). How can educational leaders promote and support social justice and democratic community in schools? W. A. Firestone and C. Riehl. (Eds.), *A new agenda for research in educational leadership*, 119-137. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Gabbard, D. (2008). *Anarchist Movement and Education from: Handbook of Social Justice in Education*, Routledge.
- Kayıkcı, G. ve Akan, D. (2014). İlköğretim Kurumlarının Mali Kaynak Sorunları ve Okul Müdürlerinin Çözüm Uygulamaları. *The Journal of Academic Social Science* , 1, 237-255.
- Karacan, H., Bağlıbel, M. ve Bındak, R. (2015). Okullarda Sosyal Adalet Ölçeğinin Geliştirilmesi. *Mustafa Kemal University Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, 12 (31), 54-68.
- Lazenby, H. (2016). What is equality of opportunity in education?, *Theory and Research in Education*, 14(1) 65–76. DOI: 10.1177/1477878515619788

The Views of Secondary School Teachers Regarding Social Justice

- Polat, S. (2015). Eğitim Politikalarının Sosyal Adalet Açısından Sonuçları Konusunda Yönetici ve Öğretmen Görüşleri. *Education Science Society*, 13 (49), 61-83.
- Sunal, O. (2011). *Sosyal Politika: Sosyal Adalet Açısından Kuramsal Bir Değerlendirme*. Ankara University *SBF Journal*, 66 (3), 283 – 305.
- Tomul, E. (2009). İlköğretim Okullarındaki Sosyal Adalet Uygulamalarına İlişkin Yönetici Görüşleri. *Education and Science*, 34 (152).
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2008). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri* (6th Edition). Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Yıldırım, F. (2011). *Üniversite Gençliği "Sosyal Adalet"ten Ne Anlıyor? Sosyal Adalet İlkeleri Bağlamında Bir Eğilim Belirleme*, Doctorate Thesis. Ankara University, Ankara.

Adaptation of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire into Turkish

Ali Aksu

1. Introduction

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was first formed on the basis of model created by Bass. The scale used today has emerged as a result of numerous studies and field investigation of leaders at both private and public organizations. The original form of "Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire" scale consists of eighty items and two forms where leaders evaluate themselves as leaders and subordinates evaluate leaders (Stone, 1992). In this research, the short form where subordinates evaluate the leaders has been adapted to Turkish. This form of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is composed of three main themes including transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership and these are being used as a model for understanding the effects of upper and lower levels of leadership (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is defined as finding available energy subordinates have and activating and mobilizing this energy to realize the aims of organizations (Cemaloğlu, Sezgin & Kiling 2012). According to Gül, Rehman, Rassaq, Ahmad and Saif' transformational leadership is a process where subordinates realize the aims of organizations by fulfilling their self-interest and follow new directions for success (Selesho & Ntisa 2014).

As stated by Bass ve Riggio, transformational leadership focuses on organization's and its members' having a better position than its current state in parallel with its vision, mission, and goals. This process involves a number of variables such as ethical leadership, feelings of subordinates, standards for the outputs of the organization, organizational values, and long-term organizational goals (Top, Akdere & Tarcan, 2014). In particular, transformational leadership involves intrinsic motivation of the leader and the development of the subordinates (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transformational leadership refers to moving the goals of the followers beyond self-interest by intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, giving personal importance and inspire. Leaders make subordinates go beyond their individual interests for collective and organizational benefits by being an idol (a charismatic role model), inspirational motivation (putting forward an accepted vision), intellectual motivation (asserting creativity and innovation) and individual attention (coaching and mentoring) (Bass, 1999). Transformational leaders can create organizational change and act as a change agent. In addition, they can incite high-level internal motivation and loyalty among employees and also they can create a new image about the future and keep his followers loyal to this picture (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2008).

Studies have shown that transformational leadership is beneficial in many different organizations and countries. Transformational leadership has positive effects such as organizational effectiveness, performance, innovation, trust and job satisfaction. In addition this leadership style can improve Teachers' perceptions and beliefs of the organization, participation and commitment to organization and organizational success (Bass, Avolio, Jung ve Berson 2003). Researchers (Bono ve Judge, 2003; Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu 2008; cited in. Carter et. al) claim that there is a strong relation between transformational leadership, organizational commitment and job performance (Detert & Burris 2007). Transformational leaders influence teachers positively and make them trust and admire the management. Mester and et. al (2003) claim that there is a positive relation between transformational leadership and subordinates' ideas about how effective leaders are and how happy they are about their leaders.

In Table 1, questions related to transformational leadership and its subscales in original form of MLQ are listed.

Table 1 Questions Related to Subscales of Transformational Leadership in MLQ Scale

Idealized effect	6, 10, 14, 18, 21, 23, 25, 34
Inspiring motivation	9, 13, 26, 36
Intellectual stimulation	2, 8, 30, 32
Individual importance	15, 19, 29, 31

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership indicates leader style that keeps school efficiency and health and promotes job satisfaction of employees. If employees have adopted and internalized legal, psychological and social agreements and if they act accordingly, necessary environment for the continuity of the leader is reached (Başaran, 2000). Transactional leaders want to be sure that performance of the followers is good enough and they fulfill their tasks. Transactional leadership style is built on an agreement based on fulfilling the duties between a leader and his followers and rewarding them when they succeed (Avolio ve Bass, 2004). Transactional leaders exhibit two types of behavior that are conditional reward and management (Bass ve Riggio, 2006).

In Table 2, questions related to transactional leadership and its subscales in original form of MLQ are listed.

Table 2 Questions Related to Subscales of Transactional Leadership in MLQ Scale

Koşullu Ödül	1, 11, 16, 35
İstisnalarla Yönetim	4, 22, 24, 27

Laissez-faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leaders are defined as leaders who do not need much management authority, leave employees on their own and ask each employee to make his own plan and program regarding relevant resources. This leadership style has Laissez-faire management behavior which means the absence of the leader, awaiting mistakes being done before taking a right action. (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

In Table 3, questions related to Laissez-faire leadership and its subscales in original form of MLQ are listed.

Table 3 Questions Related to Subscales of Laissez-faire Leadership in MLQ Scale

Passive Management by Exception	3, 12, 17, 20
Laissez Faire	5, 7, 28, 33

1.1. Purpose of the Study

While doing research on leadership in Turkey, new theories and scales are needed. One of these scales is MLQ. Adapting this scale into Turkish is seen important. The original form of MLQ consists of three subscales and 36 questions testing these subscales. The aim of this study is to adapt MLQ into Turkish.

2. Method**2.1. Study Group**

In this research, appropriate sampling method is used to determine the study group. Appropriate sampling method is selecting sample from units easy to reach due to existing limitations in terms of money and manpower (Fraenkel, Wallend & Hyun, 2012). 521 teachers were reached for the study conducted in İzmir city.

2.2. Data Analysis

In this study, adaptation of MLQ into Turkish was made by performing confirmatory factor analysis. SPSS 15.0 software was used to analyze language validity and item-test correlation analysis. Lisrel

8.51 analysis program was used for confirmatory factor analysis. For orientation values, values specified by Seer (2013) were taken as reference. These values are listed in Table 4.

Table 4 Acceptable Excellent and Compliance Criteria Regarding Compliance Index*

Compliance Index	Acceptable Limit	Excellent Compliance
NFI	=.90 and over	.95 and over
NNFI	=.90 and over	.95 and over
IFI	=.90 and over	.95 and over
RFI	=.90 and over	.95 and over
CFI	=.95 and over	.97 and over
GFI	=.85 and over	.90 and over
AGFI	=.85 and over	.90 and over
RMR	=.050 between .080	= .00 and < .050
REMSEA	=.050 between .080	= .00 and < .050

*Source: Seer, 2013

3. Findings

3.1. Language Validity

First of all, 36-item MLQ original form was translated into Turkish and some expressions were revised. The scale was then given to five lecturers in Turkish Language Department for correction. And then, the scale was given to five lecturers experts on the topic. In the light of the studies, it is concluded that the scale has content validity. Both Turkish and English version of the scale was applied to 62 instructors who are experts in English. It was determined that the correlation between the two forms was .998. In this case, the translation validity of the scale was provided.

3.2. Content Validity

MLQ was given to five lecturers experts in the field to determine the content validity. Lecturers stated that the scale is capable of testing the leadership styles.

3.3. Item -Test Correlation

Item-test correlation of MLQ Turkish Form is shown in Table 5.

Table 5 Item-Test Correlation Values of MLQ Original Form

Leadership Styles	Question Item	Item-Test Correlation
Transformational Leadership Dimension	S2	,694
	S6	,244
	S8	,711
	S9	,738
	S10	,779
	S13	,694
	S14	,813
	S15	,825
	S18	,649
	S19	,497
	S21	,801
	S23	,764
	S25	,830
	S26	,787
	S29	,771
	S30	,843
	S31	,789
	S32	,820
S34	,770	
S36	,764	
Transactional Leadership Dimension	S1	,508
	S4	,053**
	S11	,472
	S16	,649
	S22	,576
	S24	,418
	S27	,402
S35	,627	
Laissez-faire Leadership Dimension	S3	,599
	S5	,664
	S7	,624
	S12	,637
	S17	,319
	S20	,111**
	S28	,561
	S33	,645

In order not to disrupt the authenticity of the scale, item 4 and 20 whose correlation is under .20 were not removed and confirmatory factor analysis was made using lisrel program. After necessary modifications were made regarding the scale, confirmatory factor analysis results are as follows: X=1655.36 SD=553 RMSEA=.06 GFI=.85 SRMR=.09 CFI=.91 IFI= .91 NNFI=.90. Cronbach alpha coefficients of the scale is found to be (.942) in transformational leadership dimension, (.886) in transactional leadership dimension and (.835) in laissez-faire leadership dimension. The reliability of the whole scale is .946. However, item-test analysis and reliability analysis were performed again after removing item 4 and 20. Item- test correlation values of the revised form were given in Table 6.

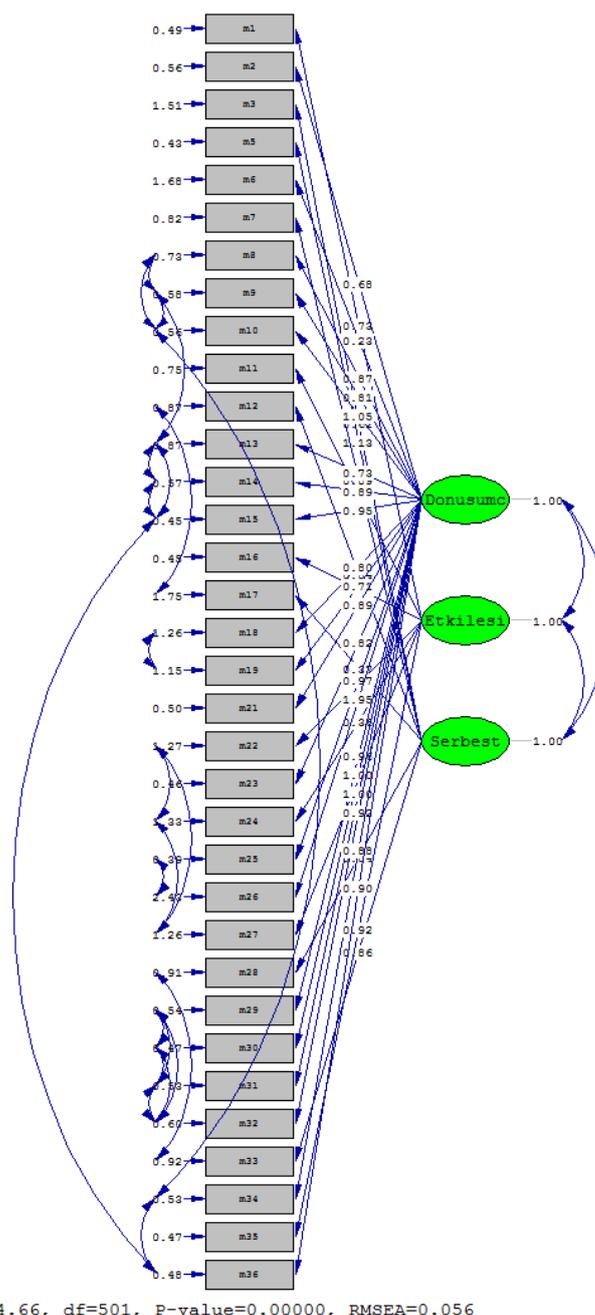
Table 6 Item-test Correlation Values of Revised MLQ Form

Leadership Styles	Question Item	Item-Test Correlation
Transformational Leadership Dimension	S2	,694
	S6	,244
	S8	,711
	S9	,738
	S10	,779
	S13	,694
	S14	,813
	S15	,825
	S18	,649
	S19	,497
	S21	,801
	S23	,764
	S25	,830
	S26	,787
	S29	,771
	S30	,843
	S31	,789
	S32	,820
S34	,770	
S36	,764	
Transactional Leadership Dimension	S1	,537
	S11	,505
	S16	,696
	S22	,586
	S24	,378
	S27	,424
	S35	,653
Laissez-faire Leadership Dimension	S3	,583
	S5	,719
	S7	,654
	S12	,628
	S17	,287
	S28	,583
S33	,671	

Cronbach alpha coefficients of the scale is found to be (.961) in transformational leadership dimension, (.804) in transactional leadership dimension and (.835) in laissez-faire leadership dimension. Lisrel 8.51 analysis program was used to do the confirmatory factor analysis of the 34-item form.

Table 7 Results of Lisrel Analysis

Adaptation of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire into Turkish



After doing some necessary modifications on the scale, confirmatory factor analysis results are as follows: $\chi^2=1344.66$ $df=501$ $RMSEA=.056$ $GFI=.87$ $SRMR=.065$ $CFI=.93$ $IFI=.93$ $NNFI=.93$ $NFI=.90$. When the adequacy of compliance index (Seçer, 2013) is compared, it is concluded that 34-item revised form can be used in Turkey.

Conclusion

In this study, MLQ developed by Avolio and Bass (2004) has been adapted into Turkish.

The study consists of two phases:

1. Confirmatory factor analysis made by preserving the original form of the scale
2. Reconstitution of the confirmatory factor analysis after omitting item 4 and item 20 whose item-test correlation was behind .25.

Consequently, both forms are proved to be appropriate to be used in studies that will be conveyed in Turkey. However, it is even more appropriate to use the second form which has a higher reliability and compliance index.

References

- Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Reexamining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 72(4), 441-462.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). *MLQ: Multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Mind Garden.
- Bass, B., M. (1999). Two Decades of Research and Development in Transformational Leadership, *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8 (1), 9-32.
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of applied psychology*, 88(2), 207.
- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership*. Psychology Press.
- Başaran, E. (2000). Örgütsel davranış, insanın üretim gücü. Ankara: Feryal Matbaası.
- Cemaloğlu, N., Sezgin, F., & Kiliç, A. Ç. (2012). Examining The Relationships Between School Principals' transformational And Transactional Leadership Styles And Teachers'organizational Commitment. *The Online Journal Of New Horizons in Education*, 53.
- Carter, M. Z., Armenakis, A. A., Feild, H. S., & Mossholder, K. W. (2013). Transformational leadership, relationship quality, and employee performance during continuous incremental organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(7), 942-958.
- Detert, J. R., & Burris, E. R. (2007). Leadership behavior and employee voice: Is the door really open?. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(4), 869-884.
- Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, (2012). How to design and evaluate research in education. (Eighth Edition) Published by McGraw-Hill. New York
- Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (2008). *Organizational Behavior*, Eight Edition.
- Mester, C., Visser, D., Roodt, G., & Kellerman, R. (2003). Leadership style and its relation to employee attitudes and behaviour. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 29(2), p-72.
- Seçer, İ. (2013). *Spss ve lisrel ile pratik veri analizi*. Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Selesho, J. M., & Ntisa, A. A. (2014). Impact of School Principal Leadership Style on Performance Management: A Schooling Agenda. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(3), 211.
- Stone, P. (1992). Transformational Leadership in Principals: An Analysis of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Results. Professional Leadership Development Monograph Series, Volume 2, Number 1.
- Top, M., Akdere, M., & Tarcan, M. (2014). Examining transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational trust in Turkish hospitals: public servants versus private sector employees. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, (ahead-of-print), 1-24.

Organizational Cynicism and Burnout Relationship: A Case Study On The Employees Of Ahi Evran University Research And Education Hospital

Fatih Ferhat Çetinkaya

Introduction

At the present day, rapid change in social life and the technology affects the change in organizations as well. When evaluating the success of organizations, it is determined that the concepts like the behaviour of the employees, organizational loyalty, confidence, organizational cynicism and burnout are important for the success of the organization. That is why the researchs about the organization employees are appearing as popular subjects.

One of the relevant study objects is the concept of the organizational cynicism that is improved by the employees against their organisation. Researchs related to subject reveal that the organizational cynicism affects many factors which effective in the success of the organization like organizational loyalty, work performance, satisfaction, organizational confidence and organizational justice.

According to Dean and the others (1998) organizational cynicism indicates a negative behaviour including cognitive, sensuous and behavioral dimensions of the employees improve against the organization they work for. In the cognitive dimension of the organizational cynicism; the belief of organizational cynicism has lack of confidence, in the sensuous dimension; emotional reactions like anger, irritation, indignity, shame, depression, anxiety and in the behavioral dimension of the organizational cynicism; behaviours like complaint about the organization, ribbing and criticism performed are emphasized (Nartgün&Kalay 2014).

The performance, motivation, job satisfaction decrease and the organizational loyalty weaken of which the employees who has a higher organizational cynicism (Polatcan, 2012). The researches are observing us the organizational cynicism is potentially a negative attitude causes negative results for both employees individually and organization as a whole (Davis& Gardner, 2004). Regarding to this, the organizational cynicism is being handled in this research.

The researchs emphasising that the organizational cynicism is resulted from the organizational factors, also reveal that the organizational cynicism is caused from basically organizational justice, organizational transformation and psychological agreement breach and the organizational cynicism may cause burnout. As a part of this research burnout concept will be emphasized as a result of organizational cynicism.

The burnout concept is explained as the feelings like emotional exhaustion, low success, depersonalization which are experienced by the people in intensive business life (Maslach&Zimbardo, 1982:3).

Freudenberger who is the first person adding the burnout concept in to the literature in 1974, described the burnout as a internal source exhausting of individual caused from the failure, wearing out, loss of power and energy as a result of overloading and uncorresponded expectations of people (Freudenberger'e 1974: 159).

Burnout may result in decline of work quality and related to the tendency to leave work, inattentance to work, low morale, insomnia, increase in alcohol and medicine consumption and having problems in family. (Jung&Kim, 2012:3637).

When the literature is reviewed, it is seen that burnout has three dimensions. These dimensions, emotional exhaustion, becoming depersonalised and feeling of low success (Maslach&Jackson, 1981:99).

Organizational Cynicism and Burnout Relationship

When the literature related to the organizational cynicism and the burnout is reviewed, it is seen that there are meaningful relations between two concepts and their dimensions. (Maslach and Jackson 1981; Mirvis and Kanter, 1991; Kalağan, 2009).

In this study it is purposed to contribute to the literature by revealing the relation between the organizational cynicism levels and burnout levels.

1. Cynicism and Organizational Cynicism

Cynicism is the belief related to the people's movement that is only for their own profits (Oxford Dictionary, 2010). The basic idea of the cynicism is generated from the people's first choice for their own profits, to their positive personal features like honesty and justice.

All the people are self-seekers and all the people need to serve for their own benefits. The people described as cynical are the people who believe that the first purpose of the person is to keep their benefits (Andersson and Bateman, 1997).

The researches upon the organizational cynicism concept which was caused from individual or organizational features, has developed at the end of 1980's and at the beginning of 1990's (Boyali, 2011). The cynicism, defined as a reason for undesirable organizational results is nowadays described as an urgent problem to be solved related to organizational area (Özgener and the others, 2008).

People generally term the organizational cynicism as a negative attitude depends on the idea which was developed by the person against to organization he/she works for, its procedures, its process and its administration and the belief that these factors are not for his or her benefit (Wilkerson and the others, 2008, Arslan, 2012:14).

In many researches analysing the organizational cynicism, it is submitted that cynicism has an important and constant effect with negative direction on the organizational efficiency. For example; Organizational cynicism is associated with declining job satisfaction, organizational loyalty, motivation and intention to create changes (Rubin vd, 2009:680).

When the mostly accepted concepts in the literature are reviewed; Firstly it has been seen that the organizational cynicism is named as a "behaviour", then it has "cognitive, sensuous and behavioral" dimensions.

2. Burnout

Burnout is a loss of energy, enthusiasm, idealism, perspective and goal, hence it is a burning out situation both physically and psychologically and mentally that results in feelings of stress, hopelessness, desperation and entrapment (Pines and Aronson, 1988). Burnout is the situation describing the exhaustion of physical and mental sources because of the occupational difficulties or personal reasons (Roy and the others, 2010:191).

If the people are not happy in the organizations they work for, this situation causes their infelicity and to feel burnout (Pines, 1993). Burnout is an increasing and standing loss in goal, energy, idealism and it is a result of the business conditions designed to assist other people (Ozgen, 2007:117). To be subjected to a high stress conditions contributes to creation of burnout syndrome (Devereux and the others 2009:368).

Occupational burnout may have some reasons resulted from person's own self but may be resulted from the organization he/she work for as well. While reviewing the burnout subject, determination of these reasons is very important.

Maslach and his friends handled the burnout concept with three dimensions. These dimensions are emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and low personal accomplishment feeling (Maslach and Jackson, 1981:99). Burnout is a serious concept must be handled in terms of the efficiency of the employees.

3. Relation of Organizational Cynicism to Burnout

When we have look at the relation between organizational cynicism and burnout, we can see some differences and similarities. Maslach and the others (1981) used the cynicism concept instead of depersonalization due to the fact that they assume the cynicism is similar to the depersonalization

dimension of burnout. Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly (2003:643) revealed a strong relation between cynicism and burnout as a result of the research they made.

In another study, when the employees improve cynic attitudes against organization it has been observed that the efforts and time spent for the organization by the employees are decreased and they did not gain any improvement in their working performance. In this situation a decrease in employees' performance and personal accomplishment graphics has been determined and so that this situation is associated with the personal accomplishment dimension of burnout (Stanley, 2005:434).

Ucok and Torun, (2014) in their research, determined meaningful contributions of cognitive and sensuous dimensions of cynicism to three dimensions of burnout. Additionally, meaningful contribution of behavioral dimension in cynicism to emotional exhaustion and intensity dimensions of burnout have been revealed.

METHODS

Method of the Research

By this research; it has been purposed to determine the relation between organizational cynicism levels and occupational burnout levels of hospital employees. Regarding to this, the effects of the occupation, education and their organizational cynicism levels belong to the hospital employees to their occupational burnout levels. The study has also a relational previewing method character with this aspect.

Workgroup

In this research, as appropriate to the purpose of the study, 109 medical staff working in Kirsehir Ahi Evran University Hospital has been questioned with scales and data were collected. The demographic features of the workgroup can be seen on the Table-1.

Table-1 Frequency and Percentage Distrubition of Hospital Staff related to their demographic Features

Feature	Categories	f	%
Occupation	Doctor	54	49,5
	Nurse	55	50,5
Education Level	High School	10	9,2
	University	39	35,8
	Doctorate	60	55,0
Total		109	100,0

According to the Table-1 and regarding to the distrubition of the staff, there are 54 nurses among the medical staff. (49,59% doctor and 55 (50,5%). When we have look at the distrubition as regarding to the education levels of the staff, the number for the staff graduated from high school is 10 (9,2%), the number graduated from university is 39 (35,8%) and the number graduated from doctorate is 60 (55,0%).

Instruments for Data collection

An organizational Cynicism Scale which was developed by Brandes (1997) and arranged to Turkish by Erdost, Karacaoglu, Reyhanoglu (2007) has been used to measure the organizational cynicism levels of the participants. The Organizational Cynicism Scale is consisted of totally 14 articles and three dimensions. These dimensions are sensual dimension, cognitive dimension and behavioral dimension. Maslach Burnout Scale which was developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1981 and arranged into Turkish by Canan Ergin in 1992 is used to measure to the burnout level of the Hospital Staff. The scale which was consisted of 22 expressions measures the burnout level upon three different dimensions. First of these is the emotional exhaustion which is consisted of 9 expressions, second one

is the depersonalization which is consisted of 5 expressions and the last one is the sub dimension of personal accomplishment which is consisted of 8 expressions.

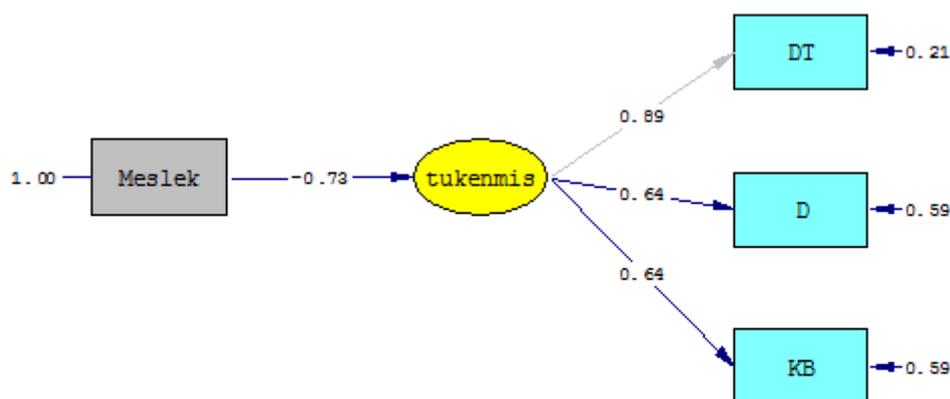
Analysis of the Data

After the averages obtained from the scales has been recorded into the SPSS-21 pocket programme and before the establishment of structural equality model, it has been checked out that if there were lost data and extreme values or not. Before the determination of the parameter estimation method, when the normality of hypothetical testing with multiple variant was performed the value obtained is 0,973, because of the fact that this value lower than the 1,00 critical value Maximum Likelihood Estimation Method is preferred. Structural equality models has been established to research the effects of the organizational cynicism levels and variants of the occupation and education levels of the hospital staff to their burnout levels.

Findings And Interpretation

The First Sub Problem: What are the effects of the professions of the hospital staff on the burnout level?

The structural model that shows the effects of the professions of the hospital staff on the burnout level is shown in the Figure 1.



Chi-Square=3.67, df=2, P-value=0.15963, RMSEA=0.088

Figure-1 The structural equation model related to the professions of the hospital staff and the burnout level

The fit indices values related to the model in Figure 1 are shown in Table 2.

Table-2 The fit indices values related to the professions and burnout level variables

Model	$\chi^2/$ (df)	RMSEA	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NNFI	R ²
Model-1 (Profession-Burnout)	3.67/2=1.84	0.088	0.032	0.98	0.92	0.99	0.97	0.53

When the fit indices in the table 2 are analyzed, CFI and NNFI values are perfectly fit. GFI and AGFI values are also perfectly fit. CFI and GFI values have a slight difference but still fit to the critical multivariate normal distribution. Although the critical value of RMSEA wrong fit index is 0,032, it still has the acceptable fit index. Generally the model has acceptable fit indices. According to R²=0, 53 the burnout level of the professions of the hospital staff have an intermediate level of effect. The

profession variable explains 53% of the burnout. Regarding the burnout levels, the doctors have a higher level of burnout than the nurses have.

The Second Sub Problem: What are the effects of the hospital staff's educational level on the burnout level?

The structural model that shows the effects of the hospital staff's educational level on the burnout level is shown in the Figure 2.

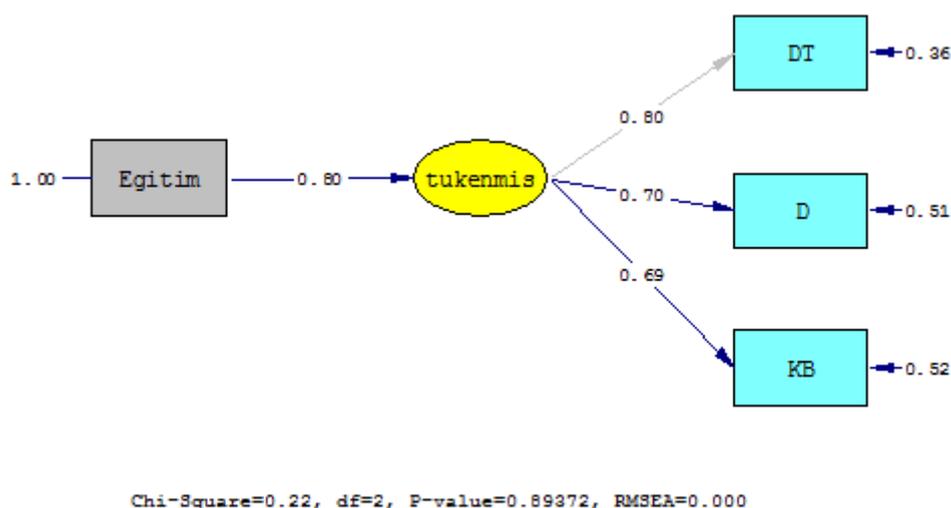


Figure-2 The structural equation model related to the education level of the hospital staff and the burnout level

The fit indices values related to the model in Figure 2 are shown in Table 3.

Table-3 The fit indices values related to the education level of the hospital staff and the burnout level variables

Model	$\chi^2/$ (df)	RMSEA	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NNFI	R ²
Model-2 (Education level- Burnout)	0.22/2=0.11	0.000	0.006	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.65

When the fit indices in the table 3 are analyzed, CFI and NNFI values are perfectly fit. GFI and AGFI values are also perfectly fit. CFI and GFI values have a slight difference but still fit to the critical multivariate normal distribution. As the values of RMSEA and SRMR wrong fit indices are lower than the critical value of 0, 08, the values of RMSEA and SRMR wrong fit indices are perfectly fit. Generally the model has acceptable fit indices. The effects of the educational level of the hospital staff on the burnout level is high according to R²=0, 65 value. The educational level of the hospital staff variable explains 65% of the burnout. When the burnout level of the hospital staff is analyzed, the burnout level of the PhD graduates is higher than the university and high school graduates.

The Third Sub Problem: What are the effects of the organizational cynicism level of the hospital staff on the burnout level?

The structural model that shows the effects of the organizational cynicism level of the hospital staff on the burnout level is shown in the Figure 3.

Organizational Cynicism and Burnout Relationship

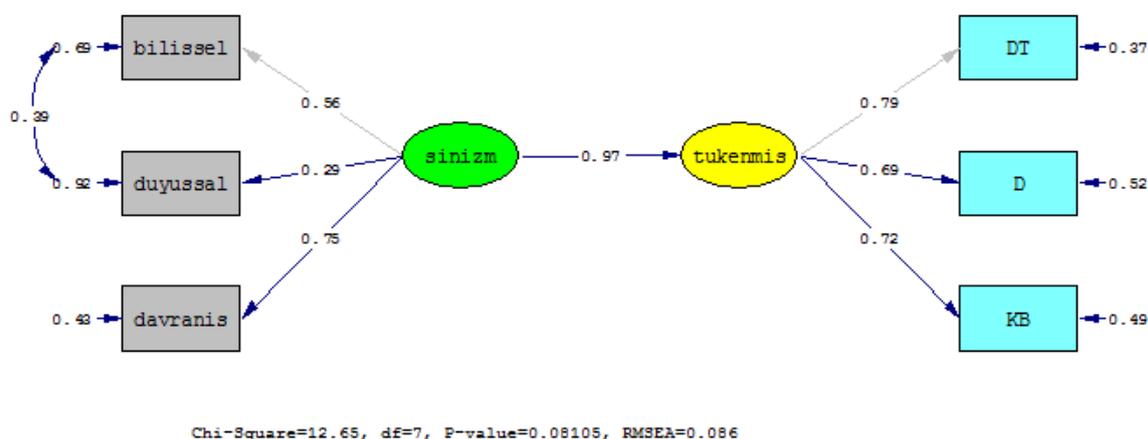


Figure-3 The structural equation model related to the organizational cynicism of the hospital staff and the burnout level

The fit indices values related to the model in Figure 3 are shown in Table 4.

Table-4 The fit indices values related to the organizational cynicism of the hospital staff and the burnout level variables

Model	$\chi^2/$ (df)	RMSEA	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NNFI	R ²
Model-3 Cynicism Level- Burnout Level)	12.65/7=1.81	0.086	0.048	0.96	0.90	0.98	0.96	0.95

When the fit indices in the table 4 are analyzed, CFI, GFI and NNFI values are perfectly fit. AGFI value is acceptable and fits. CFI and GFI values have a slight difference but still fit to the critical multivariate normality. Although RMSEA wrong fit index is over the critical 0,08 value, SRMR wrong fit index has an acceptable 0,048 fit index. Generally the model has acceptable fit indices. According to R²=0,95 value the effects of the organizational cynicism of the hospital staff on the burnout level is very high and the organizational cynicism variable explains 95 % of the burnout. In this regard the higher the level of organizational cynicism of the hospital staff the more it affects the burnout level.

The Fourth Sub Problem: What are the effects of the general level of organizational cynicism of the hospital staff on the sub factors of the burnout inventory?

The structural model that shows the effects of the general level of organizational cynicism of the hospital staff on the sub factors of the burnout inventory is shown in the figure 4.

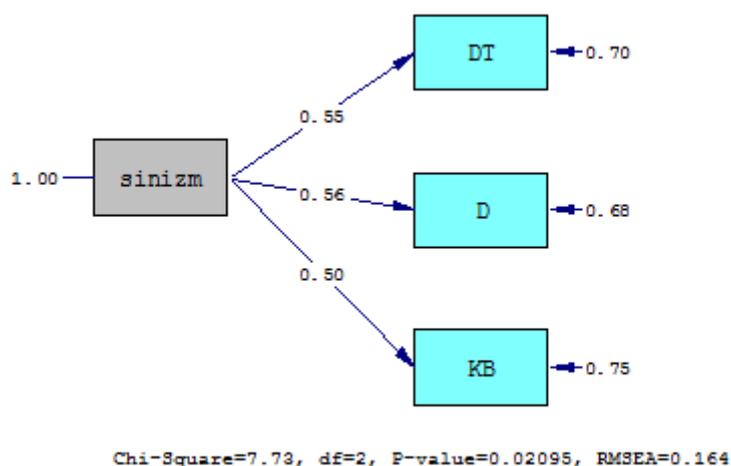


Figure 4 The structural equation model related to the general level of organizational cynicism of the hospital staff and the burnout level of the sub factors of the burnout inventory.

The fit indices values related to the model in figure 4 are shown in table 5.

Table 5 The fit indices values related to the general cynicism of the hospital staff and the burnout sub factors

Model	$\chi^2/$ (df)	RMSEA	SRMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NNFI	DT (R ²)	D (R ²)	KB (R ²)
Model-4 (General Cynicism Level- Burnout Sub Factors)	7.73/2= 3.87	0.164	0.061	0.97	0.90	0.96	0.95	0.30	0.32	0.25

When the fit indices in the able 5 are analyzed CFI, GFI and NUFI values are perfectly fit. AGFI value is acceptable and fits CFI and GFI values have a slight difference but still fit to the multivariate normality. Although RMSEA wrong fit indices is over the critical 0, 08 value, SRMR wrong fit indices has an acceptable 0,061 fit indices. Generally the model has an acceptable fit indices

When the general organizational cynicism level of the hospital staff and its effects of the sub factors of the burnout level are analyzed the general organizational cynicism level of the hospital staff and its effects on the burnout level related to the emotional exhaustion is $R^2 = 0,32$. The general organizational cynicism level of the hospital staff and its effects on the burnout level related to the personal success is $R^2 = 0, 25$. The general organizational cynicism level explains 25 % of the burnout level related to the personal success.

Conclusions

Significant findings are found in this study which aims to reveal the relationship between the organizational cynicism and the burnout. First of all the organizational cynicism of the hospital staff has a major effect on the burnout level and the organizational cynicism variable explains 95 % of the burnout. İn this regard the higher the level of the organizational cynicism, the more it affects the burnout level of the hospital staff

When the relationship between the organizational cynicism of the hospital staff and he sub dimensions of the burnout is analyzed, the organizational cynicism level of the hospital staff explains 30 % of the burnout level related to emotional exhaustion, and the general organizational cynicism level of the hospital staff explains 32 % of the burnout level related to desensitization, and the general organizational cynicism level of the hospital staff explains the 25 % of the burnout level

related to personal success. It is concluded that there are positive relations between the organizational cynicism and the sub dimensions of the burnout.

When the burnout level of the hospital staff according to their profession is analyzed, the burnout level of the doctors is higher than the nurses level. When the burnout level of the hospital staff according to their educational level is analyzed the burnout level of the PhD graduates who work in the hospital is higher than the university and high school graduates who work in the hospital than the university and high school graduates who in the hospital.

In conclusion, lowering the organizational cynicism level of the hospital staff will help lowering the burnout level of the hospital staff. As the importance of the human feelings and behaviors is getting important, for the organizations detecting and removing the negative factors that affect these feelings and behaviors will help to increase the performance of the staff. In this study it is aimed to contribute to the national and international literature.

References

- Andersson L.M. & Bateman T.S. (1997). Cynicism in the Workplace: Some Causes and Effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18,449-469.
- Arslan, E. T. (2012). Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi iktisadi ve idari bilimler fakültesi akademik personelin genel ve örgütsel sinizm düzeyleri. *Doğuş Üniversitesi Dergisi*, 13(1), 12-27.
- Brandes, P. & Das, D. (2006). *Locating Behavioural Cynicism at Work: Construct Issues and Performance Implications*, JAI Press, New York.
- Boyalı, H. (2011). *Örgütsel Sinizm ve İş Tatmini Arasındaki İlişkiler: Karaman'daki Bankalar Üzerinde Bir Uygulama*. (Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi). Karamanoğlu Mehmetbey Üniversitesi, Karaman.
- Davis W.D. & Gardenr W.L. (2004). Perceptions of Politics and Organizational Cynicism: An Attributional and Leader–Member Exchange Perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15 (4), 439-465.
- Devereux, J.M., Hastings, R.P., Noone, S.J., Firth, A. & Totsika V. (2009). Social Support and Coping as Mediators Or Moderators of The Impact of Work Stressors on Burnout in Intellectual Disability Support Staff. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*. 30, 367–377.
- Freundenberger, H. J. (1974). “Staff Burn-out”, *Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. 30 No.1, s.159-165.
- Johnson, J. L. & O’Leary-Kelly, A. M. (2003). “The Effects of Psychological Contract Breach and Organizational Cynicism: Not All Social Exchange Violations Are Created Equal”, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 24 No.5, s.627-647.
- Jung, J. & Kim, Y. (2012), “Causes of Newspaper Firm Employee Burnout in Korea and Its Impact on Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention”, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23:17, 3636-3651
- Kalağan, G. (2009). *Araştırma Görevlilerinin Örgütsel Destek Algıları ile Örgütsel Sinizm Tutumları Arasındaki İlişki*. (Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi). Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Antalya.
- Maslach, C. & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour*, 2 (2): 99-113.
- Maslach, C. & Zimbardo, P.; (1982), *Burnout – The Cost of Caring*, New Jersey.188
- Mirvis, P. & Kanter, D. (1991). “Beyond Demography: A Psychographic Profile of the Workforce”, *Human Resource Management*, Vol. 30 No.1, s. 45-68.
- Nartgün, Ş.S. & Kalay, M. (2014). Öğretmenlerin Örgütsel Destek, Örgütsel Özdeşleşme İle Örgütsel Sinizm Düzeylerine İlişkin Görüşleri. *International Periodical For The Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, 9 (2), 1361-1376.
- Oxford Dictionarys (2015). *Oxford Dictionarys*. Retrieved August 2, 2015, from <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/>.
- Özgen, I. (2007). Yiyecek İçecek İşletmeleri Çalışanlarında Tükenmişlik Sendromu: İzmir Adnan Menderes Havalimanı Örneği. I. Ulusal Gastronomi Sempozyumu ve Sanatsal Etkinlikler, ss.116-124, Antalya.

- Özgener, Ş. Öğüt, A. & Kaplan, M. (2008). İşgören-İşveren İlişkilerinde Yeni Bir Paradigma: Örgütsel Sinizm. *Örgütsel Davranışta Seçme Konular: Organizasyonların Karanlık Yönleri ve Verimlilik Azaltıcı Davranışlar* içinde. Ankara. İlke Yayınevi
- Pines, A.M. & Aronson, E. (1988). *Career burnout: Causes and cures*. New York: Free Press.
- Pines, A. M. (1993). Burnout – An existential perspective. In W. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds.), *Professional burnout: Developments in theory and research* (pp. 33-52). Washington D.C.: Taylor & Francis.
- Polatcan, M. (2012). *Okul Yöneticilerinin Liderlik Davranışları ile Öğretmenlerin Örgütsel Sinizm Tutumları Arasındaki İlişkiler (Karabük İli Örneği)*. (Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi). Sakarya Üniversitesi, Sakarya.
- Roy, S.; Novak, T. & Todoroviç, L. M. (2010), Job Burnout among Prison Staff in the United States and Croatia: A Preliminary Comparative Study, *International Journal of Criminal Justice Sciences*, 5,(1), 189- 202.
- Rubin, R., S., Dierdorff, E., Bommer, W.& Balldwin, T. (2009). “Do Leaders Reap What They Sow? Leader And Employee Outcomes of Leader Organizational cynicism About Change”. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(8), 680-681.
- Stanley, D. J. (2005). “Employee Cynicism and Resistance to Organizational Change”, *Journal of Business and Psychology*, Vol. 19 No. 4, s. 429- 458.
- Üçok, D. & Torun, A., “Tükenmişliği Etkileyen Olumsuz Tutum ve Beklentiler: Sinik Tutum ve Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali Algısı Üzerine Bir Araştırma” *Atatürk Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi*, Cilt: 28, Sayı: 1, 2014 245
- Wilkerson, J., M., Evans, W. R. & Davis, W. D. (2008). Test of Coworkers’ Influence on Organizational Cynicism, Badmouthing, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 38(9), 2273-2292.

Rhetoric and Memory Education

Güvenç Şar

In this work we will attempt a consideration of the spoken or written power and effect of language, on the basis of Sophist ideas concerning education in rhetoric and memory.

As is well known one of the most striking, perhaps the most important characteristic of Sophists, who occupy a prominent place in Ancient Greek philosophy, is their interest in the subject of rhetoric. Not only were the Sophists excellent masters of rhetoric, but they also taught others how this craft, that is rhetoric, speaking well and effectively, could be performed better. Sophists were traveller teachers, going from town to town; in addition, while having founded the theory of rhetoric in outline, they have also been exemplars of an instructor, a master presenting his topics in a neat and orderly fashion.

Let us attempt to proceed along with Protagoras, both a philosopher and a master of rhetoric. Considering sources of Ancient Greek history and the doxographical tradition we can say of Protagoras that he is the “first Greek grammarian” and that he has written a work entitled “speaking properly” (Kranz, 1984, p.209) which has not survived to the present day. Protagoras has advanced thoughts on the grammatical structure of language and, according to what Aristoteles reports, he “distinguished the kinds of names male, female and inanimate.” (Aristoteles, 1998, 1407B6) And Egon Friedell suggests that Protagoras is “the founder of scientific grammar in virtue of his research on the truth of language.” (Friedell, 199, p. 230)

Gorgias, another important philosopher and sophist, has also had important contributions to Ancient Greek literature. Friedell says that Georgias is “the founder of the art of Attic prose of which he required that it approximate poetry.” And Çiğdem Dürüşken speaks thus of Gorgias’ contributions: “Gorgias, who has a unique place in the study of language and literature, is the inventor of ceremonial oratory (epideictic oratory) and similie (arts of words and meanings, metaphor) frequently used in this type of discourse. ... With Gorgias, the art of rhetorics has moved beyond systematic and proper discourse, becoming applicable to the whole of literature.” (Dürüşken, 2001, p.18) Gorgias had realized the power of the word, the importance of the word. In his work “Encomium of Helen” says he of the word, of Logos: “[I]t can stop fear and assuage pain and produce joy and make mercy abound. ... Fearful shuddering and tearful pity and sorrowful longing come upon those who hear it.” (Versenyi, 1988, s. 75) Seeing the power of the word to persuade, to change emotions, Gorgias and Sophists did not shrink from searching for better and easier means to achieve this.

The Sophists, while developing thoughts on and making innovations in the art of rhetoric which displays the power of the word, have of course reflected upon memory as well. The Sophists knew how important memory was in order to be a good rhetorician, a good speaker. It must also be noted here that Plato, who, taking account of the history of philosophy, is said to be antagonistic to the Sophists, does curiously display a similar attitude to them regarding the importance of memory. In his dialogue entitled *The Republic*, in the context of philosophers ruling the state, Plato says that state ruling philosophers ought to have proficient memories.

Sophists’ efforts on possessing a good memory have led them to also think on what would constitute a good memory education. We can give the example of Hippias, a Sophist who has worked on the art of memory or technique of memory. If we consider testimonies from Ancient Greece we see that Hippias knew “the art of memory education.” (Plato, *Greater Hippias*, 286A) And also, Xenophon, in his work titled *The Symposium*, states that Hippias “taught the art of memory” to Kallias. (Xenophon, 1962, p.52) While there exist testimonies to Hippias’ knowledge and teaching of the art of memory, we are in the dark regarding the specifics, methods, nuances concerning this art Hippias taught.

The most important testimony to Sophists’ art, technique and education of memory is located in a text surviving to this day by an unknown author and named as *Dissoi Logoi*. The ninth and final chapter of this text named as *Dissoi Logoi* is dedicated to the technique, art of memory. Right in the

introduction it is stated that “[m]emory is the greatest and most beautiful invention for both life and everything that is useful – that is, for philosophy and practical wisdom.” According to the text of *Dissoi Logoi*, “when the mind concentrates on a topic, understanding that is in motion processes much more easily all data it has learned” and is in memory. That which is to be done, in order to develop and educate memory so that the mind can process data much more easily, is to repeat. In the text this is expressed thus: “When you hear something you ought to repeat it. For, that very same thing you hear often enough and memorize thus makes a mark on your memory.” One other factor to strengthen memory is to think that which is to be memorized in connection to something else and to commit it to memory in this manner: “when you hear something, you ought to connect it to something you knew before – somewhat like this: The name ‘Khrysisippos’ must be committed to memory; connect it to ‘khrysisos’ (gold) and ‘hippos’ (horse). Another example: The name Pylilampes is to be connected to ‘pyr’ (fire) and ‘lampein’ (luminiscence).

Now it is necessary to focus on that word which is to be remembered, committed to memory, that is, *logos*, which has been stressed both particularly by this text and also by the Sophists. A word which occupied a very crucial place in Ancient Greek thinking, it is one which cannot be exhausted or grasped in the first attempt due to its polysemic constitution. As conveyed to us by dictionaries, at the origins of the word *Logos* (λόγος) lies the verb *legein* (λέγειν). The oldest uses of the verb *legein* (λέγειν) are such as gathering, collecting, assembling, counting numbers, inspecting. Gathering, assembling, collecting is, of course, the assembling, gathering, collecting of that which is numbered, numerable. In this respect, the meaning of the word develops in two trajectories: counting and recounting. Of course recounting is the primitive manner of giving an account of notions, events one by one; that is, speaking, voicing is nothing other than a special manner of counting. (Verdenius, 1966, p.81) The meaning of the word in terms of counting can be thought together with those of calculating, balancing, calculation, figuring. The meaning of “calculation” pertaining to the word has extended to come to mean thought, debate, dispute, deliberation, discussion. Three special meanings correspond to “calculating”: respecting, valuing (and we can directly discern the relevance with counting) and as can be expressed in a variety of manners, justification, evidence, proof, relationship, contact, affiliation, relevance, relation, relatedness, connection. (Verdenius, 1966, p.82)

On this account we could say that the mark of things which are assembled, gathered, counted and calculated is kept and sheltered in and by memory, another structure that performs the same job as written or spoken *Logos*. If we follow up *Logos* in spoken form and refer to Ancient Greek literature we see that Zeus, the father of gods, has denied the mortals, that is, humans, *Logos*. (Aeschylus, 2000, 231) The *Logos* here denied is to be considered not only as word but also as counting numbers, speaking and thinking. What Zeus does not give, Prometheus steals and gives to humans.

If we take a look at Aeschylus’ *Prometheus Bound*, before Prometheus gave them reason humans were thus:

Humans were “dumb, mute, foolish beings.” (Aeschylus, 2000, 444)

And according to Aeschylus these dumb, mute beings live as follows:

“they noticed things, but did not really see
and listened, too, but did not really hear.

They spent their lives confusing everything,
like random shapes in dreams.” (Aeschylus, 2000, 447)

To these humans, seeing that they have no reason, do not understand what they see or hear, live abandoned as in a dream world, that is, have no reason, without *Logos* lacking language, word, understanding, see what Prometheus gives:

Then I invented arithmetic for them,
the most ingenious acquired skill,
and joining letters to write down words,
so they could store all things in Memory,
the working mother of the Muses’ arts. (Aeschylus, 2000, 460)

Numbers and letters, and the combination thereof which Prometheus gives humans is *the word*, *calculation*, that is *Logos*. And if we take account of the initial senses of the verb *legein*, that is,

gathering, bringing together, we can say that Prometheus gives human beings the number, the letter and their combination, an assembled gathering of them which is logos. By means of this logos human beings both place knowledge of everything in their memory, that is, shelter it and also use this Logos in making sense of everything that takes place. That is, perhaps it is through memory and Logos that humans really attain the status of human beings or thinking human beings.

Let us now consider Logos in written form. It is argued that the Greeks had been more successful than other societies in transcribing into writing the impressiveness, fluentness of the spoken. Transformation of the spoken Logos into written Logos, that is, the Greek's development of written culture develops Logos itself as well. For, the Greeks have taken great leaps in the development of thinking, philosophy by means of the alphabet, the writing system they have established.³ And it is precisely through this alphabet, this system of writing that the permeability between the written and the spoken, their convertibility to one another has made it possible for Greek culture and thinking to endure in written culture as well. It can be easily said that "The special achievement of the Greeks lay not so much in the production of individual texts as in the invention of a system that was uniquely able to reproduce an oral account fluently and completely." (Assmann, 2001, p. 255) By means of this alphabet the spoken maintains to a large extent its power when it is transferred into the spoken: "There are two unique elements in Greek scribal culture. One, as already mentioned, is the fact that it did not turn away from the oral tradition but absorbed and developed it. In my view, the second is that it created a new form of intertextual relations." (Assmann, 2001, s. 274) The power of the spoken endures in the written. The publicity of the spoken, that is, its belonging to every citizen pertains to the written as well; every citizen can speak and to the same extent, every citizen can write: "As writing in Greece did not occupy any official place, no authorization was required for its use." (Assmann, 2001, p. 261)

Let us return back to Aeschylus' text to take a closer look at the word *mnēmē* commonly translated as memory. In one German language translation of Prometheus Bound we see that a word with the meaning of "protector/preserver" is used to stand for the word *mnēmē*. The word *mnēmē* is the protector, preserver of our experiences, our memories. As a matter of fact, one of the words used in Turkish to stand for *mnēmē*, "hafıza" (memory), originates from the word "hifz" which means to preserve.

Plato refers to Mnemosyne, the mother of the Muses in the same manner: "suppose that there is a waxen slate in our souls. ... This slate shall be a gift of the Mnemosyne, the mother of the Muses." (Plato, 1986, 191CD) The slate in question has a protecting, holding, preserving structure where all our impressions leave their marks. Had there been no such protecting, holding, preserving slate or place, the arts would not have existed.

Let us return back again to numbers, letters that constitute the basis of human thinking, that is, Logos. While Aeschylus had said in his work "Prometheus Bound" that it was Prometheus who gave numbers, letters, writing to human beings, Plato, in the work Phaedrus, recounts that these arts were discovered by the Egyptian god Theuth: "Among the ancient gods of Naucratis in Egypt there was one to whom the bird called the ibis is sacred. The name of that divinity was Theuth and it was he who first discovered number and calculation, geometry and astronomy, as well as the games of checkers and dice, and, above all else, writing. Now the king of all Egypt at that time was Thamus, who lived in the great city in the upper region that the Greeks call Egyptian Thebes ... Theuth came to exhibit his arts to him and urged him to disseminate them to all the Egyptians. Thamus asked him about the usefulness of each art, and while Theuth was explaining it, Thamus praised him for

³ Jan Assmann says on this subject: "It was not simply writing as such but the introduction of the alphabet that led to this new intellectual "discipline" that Eric Havelock convincingly argues represented the "birth of philosophy from the spirit of writing." ... The Greek alphabet was the only one that was able to reproduce the spoken word in fluent and unabbreviated form, and thus for Havelock it was a true vehicle for Greek orality." (Assmann, 2001, p. 254)

whatever he thought was right in his explanations and criticized him for whatever he thought was wrong. The story goes that Thamus said much to Theuth, both for and against each art, which it would take too long to repeat. But when they came to writing, Theuth said: "O King, here is something that, once learned, will make the Egyptians wiser and will improve their memory; I have discovered a potion for memory and for wisdom." Thamus, however, replied: "O most expert Theuth, ... it will introduce forgetfulness into the souls of those who learn it: they will not practice using their memory because they will put their trust in writing ..." (Plato, 1997, 274CE) Derrida interprets the king's negative attitude as follows: "He (the king) does not need to write. He speaks, says, commands and it suffices." (Derrida, 1999, p. 64) Actually, be it a king or any other ruler, the master wishes to rule according to his present desire, wish, benefit. In this sense the king knows that that which is put down in writing instead of kept in memory will be dangerous, or at least a nuisance to him. We can see the connection between the king's negative attitude and the political attitude of the Sophists. Whereas in the kingdom the king's wishes were realized, in Greek democracy the power of the word predominated. The power of the word is related to reminding reality, truth to the ruler or his rival. The more the examples from historical events, the better possibility the speaker has of a powerful defence of his thought or case. At this point the master's attitude is crucial. The master wishes not to be reminded of historical events. The master wishes not to be shown that a past decision or discourse does or will conflict with decisions present or future. While the master prefers a society without memory, those who oppose the master or ruler have so much to be reminded to the master or ruler preserved in their memory.

The written is more binding, rigid and unchanging in comparison to the spoken. Any law, convention, tradition displays its bindingness, rigidity, unchangingness when it acquires written form. Without doubt this fact makes it, the written appear at first sight as more powerful than the spoken. For example a religious text is more binding, rigid and unchanging when it acquires written form. While the Quran was, in the beginning, dependent upon the memorizing powers of the hafiz, the memorising preservers who preserved the religious text by memorizing it, in the following process, it was given a written form and thus secured against errors by the hafiz or diverse possible future intentions. And a Jewish hymn contains the command "preseve and remember". (Assmann, 2001, p. 34) That the religious text acquires a stronger bond when put down in written form reminds one of the word religio, lying in the origin of the word religion in western languages. The verb religare, meaning to bind, and the verb relegere, meaning to collect, bring together, both, as lying in the origin of the word religio (Dürüşken, 2003, p. 2-3), seem to be – remembering the verb legein – connected to writing in terms of the coming together and connection of letters.

Holy texts were, of course, brought under safe-keeping when they acquired a written form. But still this was to an extent only. Even if the religious text acquired a written form, the thinking, interpreting activities of human beings could not be overcome. As a matter of fact, while the holy text is unique, single and bound, interpretations abound. The messenger god Hermes changes, distorts the message he conveys. In this respect, while the hafiz preserves and protects that which is, as it were, entrusted, Hermes distorts, changes it at will.

The binding power of writing cannot be disregarded, still. From where does this power of writing derive? It does of course come from the power of writing to remind. Writing registers our past successes, good and praiseworthy deeds, as well as recording and reminding us our failures, sins and embarrassments. The power of the word continually shows itself through writing. As the Latin adage goes: *verba volant scripta manent* "Words fly away, writing remains."

References

- Aischylos. (1938). *Tragödien und Fragmente*. Trans.: Ludwig Wolde, Dietrich'schenVerlagsbuchhandlung, Leipzig.
- Aiskhylos. (2000). *Zincire Vurulmuş Prometheus*. Trans.: Azra Erhat-Sabahattin Eyüboğlu, Türkiye İş Bankası Yayınları, İstanbul.
 - Aristoteles. (1998). *Retorik*. Trans.: Mehmet H: Doğan, Yapı Kredi Yayınları, İstanbul.
 - Dürüşken, Ç., (2003). *Roma Dini*. Türk Eskiçağ Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yayınları, İstanbul.

- Dürüşken, Ç., (2001). *Roma'da Rhetorica Eğitimi*. Arkeoloji ve Sanat Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Friedell, E., (1999) *Antik Yunan'ın Kültür Tarihi*. Trans.: Necati Aça, Dost Kitabevi Yayınları, Ankara.
- Gorgias, "Helena'ya Övgü", (1988) In.: Laszio Versenyi, *Sokrates ve İnsan Sevgisi*. Trans.: Ahmet Cevizci, Gündoğan Yayınları, Ankara.
- Diels, H., *Die Fragmente Der Sokratiker B. II.* (1956). Weidmannsche Verlagsbuchhandlung, Berlin.
- Derrida, J., (1999). Platon'un Eczanesi, *Toplumbilim*, sayı 10.
- Assmann, J., (2001). *Kültürel Bellek*. Trans.: Ayşe Tekin, Ayrıntı Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Ksenophon. (1962). *Şölen ve Sokrates'in Savunması*. Trans.: Hayrullah Örs, Remzi Kitabevi Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Ksenophon (Xenophon), (1984). *Şölen*. Trans.: Bilge Umar, Sergi Yayınevi, İzmir.
- Foucault, M., (2001). *Doğruyu Söylemek*. Trans.: Kerem Eksen, Ayrıntı Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Platon. (1997). *Phaidros*. Trans.: Hamdi Akverdi, Milli Eğitim Basımevi, İstanbul.
- Platon. (1986). *Theaitetos*. Trans.: Macit Gökberk, Remzi Kitabevi Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Verdenius, W. J., (1966). Der Logosbegriff bei Heraklit und Parmenides, *Phronesis*, 11.
- Kranz, W., (1984). *Antik Felsefe*. Trans.: Suad Y. Baydur, Sosyal Yayınlar, İstanbul.

Change In The Understanding Of Antiquities And Early Practices In The Ottoman State (1839-1868)

Ali Sönmez

All civilizations have been interested in the products by their preceding civilizations and many factors such as fear or respect of religious origin, artistic value, economic value, and the value of use have urged almost all states to assume an attitude towards movable or immovable cultural properties (Madran; 1985, 503). Although archaeology, a field of science which tries to clarify our past by examining the material products created in the ancient times by human beings, is generally perceived as a modern field of research unique to the West when considered from this perspective, the conscious interest in the remains of the past essentially dates back to much earlier times. Ancient Egyptians, Babylonians and Assyrians unearthed and preserved the traces of the past that had lain underground. The texts were often about the monuments and architecture of the archaic periods in Greece and Rome, where the interest in antiquities was widespread (Bahrani-Çelik-Eldem; 2011, 16-17).

Furthermore, archaeology is conceptually a product of the Renaissance period. The orientation of Renaissance humanists to the ancient works of art, their collecting of antiquities and nobles' providing of financial support for the studies carried out in this field were the early slight movements in the field of archaeology (Kundakçı; 2002, 1083). Likewise, the works of the ancient period were no more evaluated in the context of paganism as of the 16th century and began to be perceived as the indicators of a period on which humanistic ideals were based. The private collections formed by the wealthy then who wanted to add an immaterial dimension to their material wealth were meanwhile set up (Shaw; 2004, 8-9). The interest obtained by these works, the materials for the private collections, caused many travelers and researchers to rush into the Ottoman territories particularly as of the 16th and 17th centuries and to begin to endeavor to take the works – that they considered to have been the basis for their own cultures – to their countries. Having developed towards the ancient period and towards archaeology, this interest further increased in the years following the French Revolution upon the flourishing of national museology, which replaced the collecting of antiquities, and the idea of providing the developing museums with antiquities stood out also at a pace provided by Orientalism. The efforts to carry the historic treasure discovered by a group of scientists accompanying Napoleon during the campaign to Egypt (1798-1801) in the late 18th century to France are also an indication of this.

The Understanding of Antiquities in the Early Ottoman Period

As of its date of foundation, the Ottoman State was also able to assume certain positive and negative attitudes towards the thousands of years of cultural accumulation belonging to not only the Turkish-Islamic Civilization that it inherited but also its preceding civilizations. The negative sides of these attitudes are indifference, ignorance, economic reasons, natural disasters, and the damage of urbanization to cultural heritage and even though this process was considered with the sources then and from predominantly Orientalist perspectives, it may be observed from the works by foreign travelers.

The basic determinative elements regarding the perspective on antiquities in the early Ottoman period stand out as ignorance and indifference. Likewise, when the foreigners began to unearth the antiquities in the territories of the Ottoman Empire and to carry what they found to their own museums, neither the public nor the overwhelming majority of the administrators had any idea about the value of the antiquities (Madran; 1985, 513). This is indeed like a summary of the overall approach of the Ottoman State to the issue until the Tanzimat period.

Moreover, we should mention the few displaying spaces that housed the selected objects in the early Ottoman period. The most important of them is the *Topkapı Palace*, which houses manuscripts, porcelains, saddles, jewelry, suits, weapons, and other valuable belongings. The

collection at the Topkapı Palace became richer with the works that Yavuz Sultan Selim brought after his campaigns to Syria and Egypt and that also included the holy relics. Although the storage and preservation of the antiquities in order to conserve them are contrary to the museology of our age, it is a fact that many works have been saved from disappearance through preservation and have been available for the present museums (Eyice; 1985, 1596).

Housing both the Ottoman weaponry and the objects obtained as spoils of war and converted into an armory in the aftermath of the conquest of İstanbul, *the Church of Hagia Eirene* also (Ogan; 1946, 1) occurred as a symbolic asset in terms of not only church architecture but also the collections of military materials and holy relics it housed. The church, where the holy relics taken over from the Byzantine Empire such as *the tibia and skull of St John the Baptist that were preserved in golden covers* were found, became the symbol of military sovereignty as much as of religious sovereignty as it began to be controlled by the Ottoman rule. In addition, the use of the Church of Hagia Eirene for the conservation of these objects functioned as a physical instrument which continually reminded one of the Ottoman dominance in the city, which had formerly belonged to Christians (Shaw; 2004, 21-22). Likewise, Jean Thevenot, who was in İstanbul between December 2, 1655 and August 30, 1656, defined the Church of Hagia Eirene as *Cebhane*, i.e. an armory, with a lead-covered roof immediately to the left of the main entrance gate of the Topkapı Palace (Thevenot; 2009, 53). Eremya Çelebi Kömürçüyan (1637-1695), one of the most important names of the Armenian literature in the seventeenth century, described the Church of Hagia Eirene as an armory which housed weaponry, armor, flagged spears, and any kind of munitions and as an imperial church once upon a time (Kömürçüyan; 1988, 12). It is impossible to describe these collections, which are distant from functioning as exhibitions, as a museum. Nevertheless, the value ascribed to these belongings and causing them to be collected planted the seeds of the subsequent Ottoman museums (Shaw; 2004, 22). Likewise, referred to as *Cebhane* by the eighteenth century, the Church of Hagia Eirene was named *Dârü'l-Esliha*, which meant a warehouse for weaponry, in the reign of Sultan Ahmet III (1703-1730) and an inscription on the fact that Ahmet III had it repaired was placed over the main entrance gate of the building (Gerçek; 1999, 80). So, many valuable objects first began to be officially displayed at the ammunition dump. Yet, the public was not accepted into *Dârü'l-Esliha* to see these holy belongings. However, this never caused the holy works to be wiped from their memories; moreover, this collection substantially derives its actual power from its unattainability (Shaw; 2004, 24-25).

Another important and striking point in the conservation of antiquities in the early Ottoman period is the use of the method of *reusing*, which refers to the utilization of ancient objects in new buildings. The use of fragments belonging to antiquities in public buildings, at military structures, and on city walls is frequently striking. Since old structures were part of everyday life, it was considered necessary to conserve and repair them and maximum efforts were made in order for the structures to remain usable (Madran; 1985, 515-516). In many places of Anatolia today, it is possible to see that an old place of worship or church has survived up to the present time after its restoration and conversion into a mosque with a minaret built immediately next to it or that some remains of the previous ages and civilizations have been used for the second time in various architectural works. For instance, fragments belonging to the Hellenistic period were used in the fortifications of the Rumelian Fortress in İstanbul and on the walls of the Ankara Castle. Especially at the Ankara Castle, the sculptures belonging to the Hellenistic period were lined up in a horizontal position and in a striking fashion in a section close to the top of the city walls inside the castle so that these artifacts could be both conserved and displayed to the public.

It is also possible to see examples of the fact that the sultans tried to conserve the antiquities in the early Ottoman period. Historian Tursun Fakih stated that during the entry of Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror into Hagia Sophia on May 29, 1453, Hagia Sophia had not been cared for well then, that the building was in ruins, and that the people remained indifferent to this situation (Tursun Bey; 1977, 63). Ubcini also touched upon this respect of Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror for antiquities: "...Turks not only preserved this ancient Greek name of Hagia Sophia but also respected the building. Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror, who got off his horse in front of the famous building on the day when Constantinople fell, said 'I have left the spoils to you, but the buildings are mine' when he saw that a

soldier was breaking the marble at the courtyard...” (Madran; 1985, 514). There is no doubt that this behavior of Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror is both a characteristic of his understanding of ruling and due to interest and liking. Likewise, Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror demanded that stones collected from Alexandria, Baalbek, the Zeyrek Imaret (Soup Kitchen), Troy, and other ruins be sent for the group of buildings to be referred to with his name (Barkan; 1979, 25). In his order to the Bey (Ruler) of Eğriboz and the qadis of Athens, Sultan Murad III (1574-1595) – on the news that the chiseled poles and marble items found in the above-mentioned places were bought and sold by foreigners – ordered that the works be conserved and not allowed to be bought and sold by the qadis (Paksoy; 1992, 203).

The period when these practices, which had taken place in the form of individual events by the 19th century, developed as the activities of conservation of antiquities and museology within a specific system commenced in the aftermath of the proclamation of the Tanzimat Firman.

Proclamation of the Tanzimat Firman and the First Initiative to Found a Museum (1840)

The first serious regulations on the collecting of antiquities and on museology in the Ottoman State were launched as being pioneered by a group of bureaucratic intellectuals in the aftermath of the Tanzimat Firman, which was proclaimed in 1839. Having found the opportunity of being closely acquainted with Europe in the relations of the Ottoman State with the West for about a century and having stood out as the determinative element in the political, financial, military, and social fields in the Tanzimat period, this intellectual group was aware of the importance of the Greek-Roman artifacts in terms of the cultural assets of Europe. The increasing interest of Europeans in the historic artifacts unearthed from the Ottoman territories as of the 19th century and the fact that this interest gradually began to become an essential instrument of foreign policy also made it inevitable for the Ottoman intellectuals to make new regulations in the aftermath of Tanzimat (Arık; 1953, 1). Therefore, as of 1840, the Ottoman State adopted its policy on antiquities as both joining the club of nations which advocated that they were the cultural heirs of the ancient world and including the archaeological artifacts unearthed in the Ottoman territory in the Ottoman heritage (Shaw; 2004, 75).

The primary objective was to collect the artifacts from the provinces and found a large museum at the imperial center, as in Europe. In all contemporary research, the foundation of the first museum in the Ottoman State is based on the initiative in 1846 by Ahmet Fethi Paşa – the Marshal of the Cannon Foundry. Unlike these evaluations, made by referring to the article entitled ‘*Osmanlı Müzesinin Tesisi*’ (*the Foundation of the Ottoman Museum*) (Vahid; 1326, 347-348) and published in *Servet-i Fünûn* in 1910 by Vahid, the Chief Secretary at Duyun-u Umumiye (the Administration of Public Debts), the Ottoman archive documents demonstrate that the first step towards the foundation of the museum was taken immediately after the Tanzimat Firman. According to the document concerned, in 1840, it was considered to set up a museum at the Military Storehouse (Harbiye Anbarı) (the Church of Hagia Eirene), where ancient weaponry and antiquities were collected; furthermore, instructions were also sent to the governorships regarding the requirement to send the antiquities found or unearthed throughout the country to İstanbul in order to be exhibited in the museum, which was planned to be founded (C.MF; 5/221; Türkseven; 2010, 27). So, a small collection of antiquities took its part next to the ancient weaponry at the Military Storehouse as of 1840; however, the exhibition and true organization of this collection were carried out with the endeavors in 1846 by Ahmet Fethi Paşa.

Ahmet Fethi Paşa and Museological Activities (1846-1858)

Besides working as a soldier for long years, Ahmet Fethi Paşa (1801-1851), the son of Hafız Ahmet Ağa of Rhodes and educated at the Enderun Palace School, also worked as an envoy in Vienna, Paris, and London (Öz; 1948, 2; Ogan; 1948, 3) and was appointed as the Marshal of the Cannon Foundry on August 10, 1845 (Süreyya; 1996, 522). Having desired to organize the museum, intended to be founded at the Military Storehouse since 1840, all over again like its analogues in Europe with the advantage brought about by his close acquaintance with the western world, Ahmet Fethi Paşa touched upon the importance of the collecting of antiquities and museology in Europe in the letter he had sent to Sadâret (Grand Viziership) on February 11, 1846 and, by mentioning that there were

several antiquities at the Military Storehouse, he requested that it be organized as a museum and that the artifacts to be collected throughout the country be included in the collection of the museum and started his activities upon the permission he obtained (İ.MSM; 17/387; Türkseven; 2010, 28).

First of all, Fethi Paşa divided the Military Storehouse into two sections. The first one was Mecmâ-i Ešliha-i Atıka (the section for ancient weaponry), where ancient weapons were exhibited and which would later be named 'the military museum', whereas the second section was Mecmâ-i Âsâr-ı Atıka (the section for antiquities), which was named 'Müze-i Hümâyun' in 1869 and where the artifacts belonging to the Greek and Byzantine periods were found. Nevertheless, this arrangement appeared a museum depot rather than being a museum in the current sense and was not opened for visits by the public either. As previously, the primary viewers of these new collections were the sultan and his elite guests.

Likewise, according to the documents reflected in the Ottoman archive, many states including Austria (HR.MKT; 139/16), England (HR.MKT; 198/64), Russia (HR.MKT; 234/68), America (HR.MKT; 238/33), Greece (HR.MKT; 287/24), and Prussia (HR.MKT; 288/96) asked for permission by means of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in order for important people from their own subjects to tour this binary collection. Gustave Flaubert, who was one of these guests and arrived in İstanbul in November-December 1850, described the exhibition hall housing the ancient weaponry with the following words in the section '*the Ancient Ammunition Dump at the Church of Hagia Eirene*' in his work entitled '*Voyage en Orient*' (Flaubert; 1925, 248; Shaw; 2004, 47):

"A beautiful domed room, a beautiful vaulted hall allocated for weaponry...simple rifle mechanisms in bad condition; upstairs are priceless ancient weapons, inlaid Persian helmets, gun cases, and very big Norman lances held by two hands... On the right-hand side is the sword of Mehmet, which is big and flexible like a whale's bone... and its green sheath covered by leather; everyone other than me took this sword and brandished it in the air. Apart from them, they also showed us the keys of the cities conquered by the sultans that were preserved in showcases... All magnificent and heavy weapons of the past..."

One of those who saw the first museum was Theophile Gautier – a famous French author and art critic. Having arrived in İstanbul in 1852, Gautier mentioned the section of Mecmâ-i Âsâr-ı Atıka, where the antiquities were found, in his work entitled '*Constantinople*' (Eyice; 1985, 1597):

"A noteworthy feature which made some progress is the collecting of various antiquities at the courtyard in front of the former Church of Hagia Eirene, which was converted into the Military Storehouse and belonged to the annex of the palace, and they are sculpture heads and bodies, reliefs, inscriptions, and sarcophagi and form the essence of a Byzantine museum. With the inclusion of the new finds of every day, this collection might be considerably interesting. The two or three sarcophagi made from porphyry stone and decorated with Greek crosses next to the church had perhaps preserved the corpses of the emperors and the empresses previously."

One of the most important efforts by Ahmet Fethi Paşa was the activities of collecting antiquities for the museum, which was intended to be developed. Likewise, with the endeavors by Ahmet Fethi Paşa, the Ottoman government began on the one hand to encourage the official employees and the public in the provinces to collect the historic artifacts but on the other to register and record the collections of historic artifacts. The first step taken to this end was to determine the prices of the artifacts found by the people and then grant about one-third of them as a reward to the person who had found the artifact. In this way, the Ottoman State tried to prevent the people from keeping the artifacts they had found secret from the state. Likewise, it was decided to reward those villagers who found ancient coins in the Sofular Village in the subdivision of Nif in Saruhan and delivered them to the authorities (A.MKT; 78/20). Halil Bey of Yenişehir, who had found some antiquities – supposed to have belonged to Greeks – from his field and delivered them to the authorities, was also paid within this scope (A.MKT; 81/51).

The section that played a key role in bringing the antiquities to the museum, which was intended to be created newly, was the provincial governors. The determination of the antiquities found in their regions, the prevention of their destruction and even the drawing of their pictures and their informing of İstanbul were of vital importance in this process. As a result of the studies

performed, the first data began to reach İstanbul and news on the discovery of antiquities began to come from many regions of the empire, with the primary ones being Jerusalem, Gaza (Koçak; 2011, 44-45; A.MKT; 100/58), Aleppo (Ortaylı; 1985, 1599), and İzmit (A. MKT.MHM; 271/24). Having intended to make the sensitivity of governors to antiquities continuous, Ahmet Fethi Paşa often asked the provinces to draw up the inventories of the artifacts in their respective region. In 1852, Ahmet Fethi Paşa sent another regulations book to all district governorships and directorates to prevent any damage to old buildings and antiquities (A.MKT.UM; 102/88; Sönmez; 2014a, 16).

In this period, the Ottoman State not only was interested in the artifacts sent to the center but also launched studies to follow the regions toured by the people and the boards that had come from abroad to make research into antiquities and studies to prevent the people concerned from carrying out illegal excavations. Likewise, upon learning that French researchers were going to make research in Armenia and Adana region, the governorships were asked to collect information about these people and it was emphasized that maximum attention be paid to their making no research without obtaining any excavation permission (HR.MKT; 47/59). Likewise, the demand of the French board, which had obtained an excavation license for six months for the district located in the Iraqi region and between the Euphrates and the Tigris, for the extension of the duration of its license was considered appropriate in line with the views by the governorship (İ.HR; 100/4096).

Arrangements performed in the Imperial Capital City

Another important point seen in the understanding of antiquities in the aftermath of the Tanzimat Firman was the arrangements performed in İstanbul, for it was also desired, by the Ottoman rulers, that the elite guests who came to visit the Military Storehouse, organized as a museum as of 1840, see not only these artifacts but also the Greek and Byzantine heritage possessed by the imperial capital city (Akyürek; 2011, 151). Although ironic, one of the elements which enabled the Ottoman rulers to act easily regarding the arrangements concerning the antiquities in the imperial capital city was the fires. The wooden house pattern in İstanbul has posed a danger throughout the history of the city. While the searches for radical solutions to the prevention of fires after 1840 led to a novel understanding in the urban design (Çelik; 1998, 45), the antiquities belonging to the Greek and Byzantine heritage were also included in the scope of reorganization in this context. For instance, the first post-Tanzimat repair activity concerning Çemberlitaş was materialized in the aftermath of the Hocapaşa Fire – one of the greatest disasters witnessed by İstanbul (Sönmez; 2014b, 22).

The fire that broke out in Hocapaşa about five a.m. on September 5, 1865 soon destroyed Çiftesaraylar, Cağaloğlu, Sedefçiler, the Sultanahmet Square, Kadırga, Kumkapı, Nişanca, and Çiftegelinler utterly (Kuzucu; 1999, 696). The first series of comprehensive interventions in the traditional structure, building characteristics, and urban identity of the most densely built-up and the wealthiest section of İstanbul was launched following this disaster (Tanyeli; 2004, 505). By 1869, signatures had been put under many successful activities such as the organization of the Hagia Sophia and Beyazıt Squares, the providing of the Mercan and Fincancılar hills as well as the quarters of Sultanhamam and Bahçekapı with a modern appearance, and putting the Beyazıt-Aksaray road into service (Ergin; 1938, 42-43; Kuzucu; 1999, 696). One of the most important results of these activities was the highlighting of the monuments by opening their surroundings during the expansion of the Divanyolu Avenue. Likewise, following the study by Italian Architect Giovanni Battista Barborini, who had been assigned this task, Çemberlitaş (Akyürek; 2011, 160) was cleaned off the houses surrounding it, thereby opening a small triangular area around the column (Çelik; 1998, 49-50).

The activities of organizing the Sultan Ahmet Square, in which especially foreign guests were interested intensively, were also accelerated in this period. The surroundings of Burmalı Sütun (the Serpentine Column) and Dikilitaş – two of the most important monuments at the Sultan Ahmet Square – were cleaned and iron railings were placed. Within this scope, a budget amounting to about twelve thousand kese was allocated for the quick repair and organization of the Mosque of Hagia Sophia as well (Ahmed Lütfî Efendi; 1999, 1258). Likewise, when the comprehensive repair was ordered in 1847, Hagia Sophia was in such a bad condition that it drew the attention of the visitors who came to İstanbul. Sultan Abdülmecit in person followed the repair work assigned to the Swiss

Fossati brothers in 1847; furthermore, he had a locket – containing his own tugra (sultan’s signature) on one side and the view of the Mosque of Hagia Sophia on the other side – prepared in Paris in memory of the completion of the process (Finkel; 2012, 405).

So, the visitors coming to İstanbul first of all saw this new identity of the capital city and then reached the collection at the Military Storehouse, where they were welcomed by the Byzantine sarcophagi located at the inner courtyard of the museum. On the one hand the sarcophagi represented the physical death of the Byzantine rulers, but on the other, they visually described the military and cultural processes regarding the fact that the Ottoman Empire laid a claim over its preceding cultures (Shaw; 2004, 93).

However, this first museum trial had failed to catch the standard of the classical European museums in the full sense by 1869. Moreover, the first simple catalogue of this small museum could only be prepared in 1868 by French Archaeologist Albert Dumont, who came to İstanbul in 1867 and toured and examined the museum with special permission (Gerçek; 1999, 83). In the 26-page catalogue published in the Journal *Revue Archeologique*, Dumont stated that many archaeologists had not heard about this collection and that since those who desired to see it had to obtain special permission, they got tired of these formalities. According to Dumont, the sculptures, inscriptions and reliefs at Hagia Eirene were exhibited in a disorderly fashion and many artifacts were being damaged more and more day by day due to a lack of good care and even dampness. The most upsetting point was that the places of not all artifacts had been reported with a reliable note. Having expressed that the labels which could easily be replaced as they were in the space only contained the sentence “*found outside İstanbul*”, Dumont ended his words by stating that the museum should be organized with a novel understanding (Eyice; 1985, 1597). This wish of Dumont came true with Müze-i Hümayun, founded about a year later, in 1869 as well as with the statutes on antiquities, issued in the same year, and the Ottoman Empire put the western-style implementation model on antiquities into force.

Conclusion

The first serious regulations on the collecting of antiquities and on smuggling in the Ottoman State were launched as being pioneered by a group of bureaucratic intellectuals in the aftermath of the Tanzimat Firman, which was proclaimed in 1839. Having found the opportunity of being closely acquainted with Europe in the relations of the Ottoman State with the West for about a century and having stood out as the determinative element in the political, financial, military, and social fields in the Tanzimat period, this intellectual group was aware of the importance of the Greek-Roman artifacts in terms of the cultural assets of Europe. The increasing interest of Europeans in the historic artifacts unearthed from the Ottoman territories as of the 19th century and the fact that this interest gradually began to become an essential instrument of foreign policy also made it inevitable for the Ottoman intellectuals to make new regulations in the aftermath of Tanzimat. Therefore, as of 1840, the Ottoman State adopted its policy on antiquities as both joining the club of nations which advocated that they were the cultural heirs of the ancient world and including the archaeological artifacts unearthed in the Ottoman territory in the Ottoman heritage. In this context, the collecting of antiquities, launched in the aftermath of the proclamation of the Tanzimat Firman, and especially the effort by Ahmet Fethi Paşa to organize the Military Storehouse as a museum as of 1846 laid the groundwork for the fact that the first statutes on antiquities by the Ottoman Empire came into force in 1869 and for the foundation of the state museum.

REFERENCES

Ottoman Archive

Cevdet Maarif (C.MF)

Hariciye Mektubi (HR.MKT)

İrâde Mesâil-i Mühimme (İ.MSM)

Sadaret Mektubî Kalemi (A.MKT.)

Sadaret Mektubî Mühimme Kalemi (A.MKT.MHM.)

Sadaret Mektubî Kalemî Umum Vilayet (A.MKT.UM.)
İrâde Hariciye (İ.HR)

Research-Examination Works

- Ahmed Lütî Efendi. (1999). *Vak'aniyîs Ahmed Lütî Efendi Tarihi*, Cilt: 6-7-8, İstanbul: Tarih Vakfı-Yapı Kredi Yayınları.
- Akyürek. G. (2011). *Bilgiyi Yeniden İnşa Etmek Tanzimat Döneminde Mimarlık, Bilgi ve İktidar*, İstanbul: Tarih Vakfı Yurt Yayınları.
- Arık, R. O. (1953). *Türk Müzeciliğine Bir Bakış*, Ankara: Milli Eğitim Yayınları.
- Barkan. Ö.L. (1979). Süleymaniye Cami ve İmaretî İnşaâtı (1550–1577), Cilt. 2, Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu, 25.
- Çelik. Z. (1998). *19. Yüzyılda Osmanlı Başkenti Değişen İstanbul*, Çeviren: Selim Deringil, İstanbul: Tarih Vakfı Yurt Yayınları. (Çelik. Z. (1998).
- Ergin. O. N. (1938). *İstanbul'da İmar ve İskân Hareketleri*, İstanbul. (Ergin. O. N. (1938). *Development and Housing Movements in İstanbul*, İstanbul.)
- Eyice. S. (1985). Arkeoloji Müzesi ve Kuruluşu, *Tanzimat'tan Cumhuriyet'e Türkiye Ansiklopedisi*, İstanbul: İletişim Yayınları. 1596 -1603.
- Finkel. C. (2012). *Rüyadan İmparatorluğa Osmanlı, Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nun Öyküsü 1300-1923*, Çeviren: Zülal Kılıç, 5. Baskı, İstanbul: Timaş Yayınları.
- Flaubert. G. (1925). *Voyage en Orient (1849-1851)*, Paris.
- Gerçek. F. (1999). *Türk Müzeciliği*, Ankara: Kültür Bakanlığı Yayınları.
- Kömürçiyân. E. (1988). *İstanbul Tarihi XVII. Asırda İstanbul*, Tercüme ve Tahşiyeden: Hrand D. Andreasyan, İstanbul: Eren Yayınları.
- Koçak. A. (2011). *The Ottoman Empire and Archaeological Excavations*, İstanbul: The İsis Press.
- Kundakçı. G. (2002). 19. Yüzyılda Anadolu Arkeolojisine ve Eskiçağ Tarihine Genel Yaklaşım, *XIII. Türk Tarih Kongresi 4-8 Ekim 1999*, 3(2) Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu. 1083-1094.
- Kuzucu. K. (1999). Osmanlı Başkenti'nde Büyük Yangınlar ve Toplumsal Etkileri", *Osmanlı*, Editör: Güler Eren, Cilt: 5, Ankara: Yeni Türkiye Yayınları, 687-699.
- Madran, E. (1985). Osmanlı Devletinde Eski Eser ve Onarım Üzerine Gözlemler, *Belleten*, 49(195). Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu. 503-546.
- Ogan, A. (1946). *Aya İrini Kilisesi*, İstanbul: Türkiye Turing ve Otomobil Kurumu.
- Ortaylı. İ. (1985). Tanzimat'ta Vilayetlerde Eski Eser Taraması, *Tanzimat'tan Cumhuriyet'e Türkiye Ansiklopedisi*, C. 6, İstanbul: İletişim Yayınları, 1599-1600.
- Öz. T. (1948). *Ahmet Fethi Paşa ve Müzeler*, İstanbul: Milli Eğitim Basımevi.
- Paksoy. İ. G. (1993) Bazı Belgeler Işığında Osmanlı Devleti'nin Kültür Mirası Politikası Üzerine Düşünceler, *Osman Hamdi Bey ve Dönemi Sempozyumu 17-18 Aralık 1992*, Yayına Hazırlayan: Zeynep Rona, İstanbul: Tarih Vakfı Yurt Yayınları 201-221.
- Shaw, Wendy M.K. (2004). *Osmanlı Müzeleştiği Müzeler, Arkeoloji ve Osmanlı Tarihinin Görselleştirilmesi*, Çeviren: Esin soğancılar, İstanbul: İletişim Yayınları.
- Sönmez, A. (2014a). *Osmanlı Devleti'nde Eski Eser Kaçakçılığı Truva Örneği*. İstanbul: Kriter Yayınları. (Sönmez, A. (2014a).
- Sönmez. A. (2014b). Osmanlı'da Bürokratik Tartışmalar ve Mali Sorunların Gölgesinde Çemberlitaş'ın Tamiri Meselesi, *Tarihin Peşinde*, Sayı: 11, Konya,. 1-26.
- Tanyeli. U. (2004). Düşlenmiş Rasyonalite Olarak Kent: Türkiye'de Planlama ve Çifte Bilinçlilik, *İlhan Tekeli İçin Armağan Yazılar*, Editörler: Selim İlkin-Orhan Silier-Murat Güvenç, İstanbul: Tarih Vakfı Yurt Yayınları, 505-537.
- Thevenot. J. (2009). *Thevenot Seyahatnamesi Stefanos Yerasimos'un Anısına*, Editör: Stefanos Yerasimos, Çeviren: Ali Berktaş, İstanbul: Kitap Yayınevi.
- Tursun Bey. (1977). *Târih-i Ebü'l-Feth*, Hazırlayan: Mertol Tulum, İstanbul: Baha Matbaası.
- Türkseven, H. (2010). *Osmanlı Devleti'nde Eski Eser Politikası ve Müze-i Hümayun'un Kuruluşu*, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Çanakkale: Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.

Change In The Understanding Of Antiquities And Early Practices In The Ottoman State

Zainab B.-Çelik Z-Eldem E. (2011) *Geçmişe Hücüm, Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nda Arkeolojinin Öyküsü 1753-1914*, İstanbul: Salt Published.

Perfectionism and locus of control in educational administration⁴

Erkan Kiral

1. Introduction

Human beings want to meet their necessities in order to be able to maintain their lives. The needs of human beings intrinsically infinite; however can vary according to changing conditions. While meeting these necessities, people are in search of how they will meet them in the best way. During this seeking, human perpetually interacts with the environment. Of course, this interaction with the environment can differentiate a person's behavior. People are able to learn what kind of behaviors are criticized or accepted by means of their environment. By the impact of their environment, they try to perform what kind of behavior is confirmed and rewarded and to abstain from which behaviors are not approved of and reacted. The attitudes and behaviors of an individual can especially differentiate against the outcomes that s/he may obtain. Hence, in the theory of social learning, an individual reinforces his or her behaviors in accordance with the results obtained or moves away from the behavior. The individual can attribute the results that s/he obtains to his or her own high standards, over work or others (more powerful ones, luck, faith etc.). This can vary according to whether a person has internal or external locus of control. On the other hand, perfectionist individuals can also state that their high standards, over activity and pressure groups (family, friend, sibling etc.) have influence on their attitudes and behaviors. In that case, it can be mentioned that there is an impact of both perfectionism and locus of control on the individual's attitudes and behaviors.

Both locus of control and perfectionism are the two significant personality features being formed starting from childhood (Adderholdt-Eliot & Golderberg, 1990; Burn, 1980; Yeşilyaprak, 2004). People intrinsically tend to achieve the better, in other words perfect. Though, this tendency to be perfect can increase or decrease because of the influence of themselves or others. While the administrators are trying to manage their organizations effectively or trying to be perfect or are expected to exhibit a perfect administration, they can come across with various obstacles (politics, top management, nongovernmental organizations, faith, luck, powerful others etc.) Here, the individual's locus of control plays an important role. Although there is a significant relationship between the individual's perfectionism and locus of control (Perisamy & Ashby, 2002), this relationship has not much dealt with in management. Hence, the aim of this research is to discuss, the relationship between perfectionism and locus of control in terms of educational administration and to shed light on future researches in the light of literature.

2. Perfectionism as a Concept

Though the first studies about perfectionism were made by such researchers as Adler (1956), Ellis (1962), Missildine (1963) the studies which, in fact, highlighted perfectionism were made by such researchers as Burns (1980); Hewitt & Flett (1991); Frost, Marten, Lahart & Rosenblate (1990); Patcht (1984). Especially after the studies of Burns (1980), the studies of such researchers as Hewitt & Flett, (1991); Slade & Owens (1998) who approached perfectionism with a multidimensional structure put forth the fact that perfectionism has positive sides as much as negative sides. However, no exact definition accepted by everybody of the concept of perfectionism, which was dwelled upon by many researchers, has been made so far (McGarvey, 1996). The reason for this might be the effort to achieve the perfect in such a topic. Hence, within the concept of perfection, there are such values as completeness, flawlessness and predisposition. For such kind of values, it is necessary to struggle for

⁴ This article was derived from the literature review part of the author's dissertation entitled "The relationship between locus of control and perfectionism perception of the primary school administrators"

them constantly because perfectionism is a concept that includes the perception of “there is always better than the best achieved”. When the literature related to perfectionism is investigated, it is possible to encounter various definitions different from each other (Adler, 1956; Burns, 1980; Hollender, 1978; Horney, 1970; Missildine, 1963 etc.).

The common points of different definitions analyzed can be expressed as; (1) high standards, (2) performance, and (3) effort. Then, perfectionism can be defined as the effort of the individual to be able to achieve the high standards that he or she forms for himself or herself and that others, and that others expect from him or her. The fulfillment or negligence of the high standards set by the individual himself or by others for the individual may have positive or negative impacts on the individual. Hence, while the positive situation contributes the aims to be fulfilled (Stoeber & Becker, 2008), negative situation can cause health problems for the individuals (Flett, Panico & Hewitt, 2011). While positive perfectionism plays an important role on the individual to achieve high performance standards, negative perfectionism can, on the contrary, cause the performance of the individual to fall (Stoeber & Becker, 2008). In that case, perfectionism is a characteristic that can cause both positive and negative situations. Hence, showing high performance, achieving high standards, exhibiting superiority and effectiveness reflect the positive situation, and these include perfectionism in optimum level (excellence). However, flawlessness reflects over perfection.

A person with perfectionism in optimum level is aware of his or her borders, happy when he or she cannot achieve the standards, sets in advance and is satisfied with what he or she achieved. However, in pathologic perfectionism, the individual is satisfied only at that moment and realizes a negative point in what s/he obtained even if s/he achieved the best results. In order to be able to compensate this deficiency, the individual exhibits overexertion. The effort to achieve the perfect can disturb the individual. Yet, beside the desire to do better, one can experience failure anxiety and concern. According to Basko (1999, p. 5), perfectionism is like a double-edged knife. While perfectionism, on the one hand, provides an individual to increase his/her performance by motivating him/her, which is a desired situation; on the other hand, can cause cognitive and physical problems for the individual by causing him/her to be disturbed by the performance exhibited. Perfectionist behaviors, thus, are the outputs of perfectionist thoughts. However, by looking at the opposite side and removing perfectionist behaviors, an individual can make a change in his/her perfectionist thoughts.

3. Locus of Control as a Concept

Locus of control is an important characteristic and strongly focuses on cognitive feature. This concept was first put forward in Rotter's (1954) social learning theory and since then, it has perhaps been one of the most studied personality variables (Phares, 1976). Hence, Skinner (1996) developed more than 100 structures reflecting the concept of locus of control (Davenport, 2010). Rotter (1966) defined locus of control as a predictor of the values, expectations and personal characteristics of the individual. He mentions that there is a formulation of predicting the behaviors of people. In social learning theory, the behavior potential, reinforcement expectation, psychological condition of an individual and the value that s/he gives to reinforcement are the necessary components to predict the behavior of him/her (Lefcourt, 1976; Phares, 1976; Rotter, Chance & Phares, 1972). All these components affect an individual's locus of control perception with regard to events and behaviors. The behavior of the individual depends on his/her potential, expectation, the value that s/he gives to reinforcement and psychological condition. Understanding the behavior of a person as a bio-cultural social being is really complex. So as to be able to acknowledge this, what is to be considered is an individual's present psychological condition, his/her expectation, the value that he gives to reinforcement and his potential of achieving the behavior rather than a certain kind of situation.

According to the most common definition, locus of control is the generalized belief of an individual with regard to the fact that the outcomes related to his/her behaviors are either contingent on his/her own actions or contingent with such external factors as luck, fate or powerful others (Neill, 2006; Rotter, 1966). Social learning theory deals with an individual's locus of control in two dimensions as internal and external locus of control in the form of generalized expectations (Phares, 1976). The individual's perception of positive or negative outcomes of the events as the outcomes contingent on

his own actions shows his/her internal locus of control; perception of positive or negative outcomes of the events to be contingent with external factors out of his/her own behaviors or control shows his/her external locus of control (Lefcourt, 1976). The structure of internal-external locus of control is developed as a generalized expectation on the basis of an individual's perception of the reinforcement with regard to either his/her own behaviors (internal control) or external forces such as luck, faith and powerful others (external control) (Levenson, 1981). An individual's locus of control, as can be seen, expresses the belief of him/her related to the fact that s/he attributes the outcomes of the events either to what s/he did or to external events (Zimbardo, 1985). The perception of an individual with regard to the fact that the events s/he experiences are under his/her own control shows that s/he has internal control, and the belief that these events are controlled by external forces and the individual shows that s/he has external control.

Some researchers have questioned the validity of Rotter's (1966) unidimensional point of view as internal and external continuity. The first researchers to question this are Herch & Scheibe (1967). First of all, they stated that internal and external concepts are theoretically too simple. Just like Herch & Scheibe (1967), Levenson (1981) also expressed that Rotter's (1966) locus of control structure is very simple. With his multidimensional locus of control point of view, Levenson questioned the validity of the compound structure in Rotter's external locus of control dimension. Levenson (1981) has made the distinction between the two types of external locus of control and enhanced to handle locus of control as a multidimensional structure. Levenson (1981) stated that the definition of external locus of control is extremely broad and that the ones attributing the outcomes of the events to external locus of control can attribute the reasons of the events to powerful others or unforeseen luck (1974). He named his structure that as Internal: I, Powerful Others: P, and Chance: C (Phares, p. 50). With the scale that he put forward, he rejected to discriminate people as internal and external. He mentioned that people can form a locus of control perception both internal and based on luck and powerful others at the same time. In his scale, Rotter (1966) stated that although he did not approach locus of control typologically, researchers distinguished people as internal and external. Rotter expressed that locus of control changes as a constant perception and an individual said to be internal can be in the center of or around external locus of control (1975). Hence, this multidimensional structure of Levenson hampers to consider locus of control concept typologically and enables more meaningful predictions.

4. The Relationship between Perfectionism and Locus of Control

People, as a bio-cultural social being, has some necessities. They, naturally, wish to meet these necessities within the society and be satisfied. While meeting these necessities, they perform some behaviors. In fact, their necessities lay on the basis of their behaviors. Maslow stated that human beings have various necessities from survival to achieving themselves and they struggle hard to be able to achieve these necessities (Başaran, 2000; Sabuncuoğlu & Tüz, 2003). Rotter (1966) made a list of various necessities of an individual as physical comfort, love and affectionate, protection-dependence, independence, dominance, and acceptance-status (Gülveren, 2008). On the top of both the hierarchy of Maslow and the necessities list of Rotter, as the necessity of achieving oneself, there may lie the necessity of the individual to be the best in any work (sport competitions, administration etc.) or performing an activity (tutoring, reading etc.) flawlessly. Of course it depends on the expectations of the individual. The necessity of the individual might show up as doing something flawlessly. A person may want to see this behavior not only in his/her own behaviors but also in the behaviors of others. If s/he cannot see this flawlessness in others, problems occur.

Perfectionist people exhibit differences from other people in the phase of evaluating what they achieved. Perisamy & Ashby (2002) stated that the differentiation among the perfectionists is their way of evaluating their proficiency in controlling what they achieved as a result of their efforts. So as to be able to reach high standards they defined in advance, perfectionists struggle and evaluate their efficiency with how much they reached these standards (Burns, 1980). Individuals struggling to be able to achieve high standards and being satisfied with the outcome are adaptive perfectionists. These people are self-oriented perfectionists who believe that when events are directed by themselves, they

are the outcomes of their own behaviors. On the contrary, maladaptive perfectionists who cannot control the outcomes of their behaviors are not satisfied with the outcome. These people believe that the events are directed by others, not by themselves, and the outcomes are not the conclusions of their own behaviors but are dependent to others. According to Hamachek (1978), such kind of people never knows that the good is good. Of course this situation leads them to make an effort to achieve perfection unhealthily. Others-oriented perfectionist expects perfect behaviors and outcomes from others. They define high standards for others and expect them to achieve those high standards. However, these people are

not satisfied with what others for whom they defined high standards, and they criticize them. There may arise problems between others-oriented perfectionist who is not satisfied with the outcome and the individual who cannot achieve the perfect behavior or outcome expected. Socially prescribed perfectionists believe that others have defined high standards for themselves and they are subjected to over pressure. In order to be approved and accepted by people they see are important, they can achieve expected high standards but because of over pressure they can experience various psychometric problems. Also, they can attribute the outcomes they obtained to these people.

The conceptual differentiation between self-oriented perfectionism, others-oriented perfectionism and socially prescribed perfectionism (Hewitt & Flett, 1991), in other words between adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism, reminds the concept of locus of control. Hence, Rotter defined locus of control as a generalized belief related to the fact that the outcomes of an individual's behaviors are contingent on his/her own actions or contingent with external factors such as luck, faith or powerful others (1966, p. 1). As can be seen, in locus of control, an individual looks at his/her perception of proficiency of being able to control the outcomes s/he obtained. The individual can attribute these outcomes to whether they are contingent with his own efforts or contingent with factors such as luck, faith and powerful others. People believe that perfectionist thoughts and behaviors, and relative gains are internally directed by their personal decisions and efforts or externally directed by luck, faith and powerful others. Hence, the individual is defined as with internal locus of control if s/he perceives the negative or positive outcomes of the events to be contingent on his/her own behaviors under his/her control; and is defined as with external locus of control if s/he perceives the negative or positive outcomes of the events to be contingent with external factors out of his/her control (Lefcourt, 1976).

People with internal locus of control are more success-oriented and they try to achieve better when compared to the ones with external locus of control (Neil, 2006). Individuals with internal locus of control believe that they control the events around and themselves. They also believe that their destiny is in their hands (Thomas & Daniel, 2011) and they can achieve the outcome they desire. A powerful others-oriented individual believes that his/her gains are made by powerful others and s/he cooperates with powerful others so as to be able to achieve better outcomes, and attributes his destiny to powerful others, not to him or her own (Balkely, Srivastava & Moorman, 2005). A luck-oriented individual believes that his/her gains are neither the result of his/her own behaviors nor the result of the impact of powerful others. S/He attributes his/her gains to luck, faith or god. Also, a perfectionist individual can attribute his/her perfection to these dimensions, too.

The belief of locus of control can affect the perfectionism of an individual. Hence, locus of control belief is being able to have impact on the outcomes that an individual can achieve from his/her actions (Davenport, 2010). Individuals believing that they can control the events and exhibit high level of internal locus of control tend to be more assertive and self-confident. They are in search of the knowledge which will take them to their goals. They actively focus on achievement and desire to achieve the best. Şengüder (2006) stated that individuals with internal locus of control set further goals rather than closer ones and are more successful in achieving their goals. As can be seen, this is achieving the high standards that an individual set for himself or herself, and this is the indicator that internal locus of control conducts to self-oriented perfectionism. Hence, in self-oriented perfectionism, an individual struggles so as to be able to achieve the high standards s/he set for himself, and achieves an outcome. His of her perception related to this outcome achieved may be self-oriented, luck, faith or powerful others-oriented. If an individual attributes the perfect outcomes to him or herself, s/he is defined as with internal locus of control; if s/he attributes these outcomes to

others, s/he is defined as with powerful others-oriented. An individual can attribute self-oriented perfectionism to all three locus of control.

An individual with internal locus of control exhibits a compelling challenge in the activities s/he performs, and is open to learning and development. Yet, an individual with external locus of control does not regard learning and challenge as significant because s/he believes that there will be no change whether s/he makes an effort. Hence, the outcomes happen out of his or her control. The individual's locus of control may affect his or her attitude towards endeavor and his or her perspective towards the nature of difficulties. It is necessary for the administrators to understand what lies beneath the employees' locus of control in order to be able to motivate them. While individuals with internal locus of control regard the difficulties as development and luck, the ones with external locus of control see these difficulties as obstacles and ignore the opportunities (Davenport, 2010). While explaining the effort of perfectionism, Adler (1937) stated that the desire to achieve is formed by the pressure of internal and external reasons and serves the individuals' effort to achieve meaningful life goals (cited in Kirdök, 2004).

Individuals with internal locus of control are under the influence of their own internal dynamics (ambition, discipline, organization etc.) and individuals with external locus of control are under the influence of external dynamics (luck, faith, god, the pressure of other forces etc.). According to Sarı (2011), if people can collect their internal dynamics together at one point, they can be motivated more easily in achieving their goals (being the best, flawless and achieving oneself etc.). As the aim of perfectionists is to achieve the high standards set by themselves or others, its interaction with locus of control is inevitable. Perisamy & Asbhy (2002) put forth the fact that in the relationship between perfectionism and locus of control, locus of control can be distinctive in predicting perfectionism. Flett, Hewitt, Blankstein & Pickering stated that there can be a relationship between the attribution tendency which the individual reflects the events to his own internal reasons and self-oriented perfectionism; yet there can be a relationship between external attribution and socially prescribed perfectionism (1998). There are also researches that put forward that self-oriented perfectionism is related with internal locus of control; social-related perfectionism is related with external locus of control (Flett, Hewitt, Blankstein & OBrien, 1991; Flett, Hewitt, Blankstein & Masher, 1995; Hewitt & Flett, 1991b). Individuals with internal locus of control strongly believe that they are the masters of their own faith. If an individual is responsible for a situation, s/he feels a strong positive desire to do everything necessary. This situation will leave no room for making mistakes and will let the individual fight. While the individual performs his/her activities, others who will help him/her will enable to perform these actions perfectly.

5. Perfectionism and Locus of Control in Educational Administration

The world and society that is changing with the aim of achieving the better fast and constantly meet the human resources performing this constant change from educational institutions. Educational organizations try to educate people at the highest level with regard to their interests and abilities as individuals that the world and the society necessitate. Politicians have struggled to increase the quality of education at schools under the name of various concepts (total quality management, school development, school reform, learning school, self-directing and managing school, school-centered management) in order to educate individuals in the best way, reform and enhance the schools (Balçı, 2002). Whatever the name is, the basic purpose of all is to look for the perfect. Hence, this search exhibits itself under various names (efficient schools, alternative schools etc.) in most of the countries (the USA, England, Netherlands etc.) in the world (Aydın, 2006; Balçı, 2002; Şişman, 2011). The expectation from educators is to put these alternatives into practice which are put forward by policymakers. School administrator, which is one of the practitioners, plays an important role in education process. Hence, school administrator is responsible for managing, evaluating and developing school appropriate for the objectives. Education system expects school administrators to achieve the given tasks within the framework of certain standards at the highest level. The system evaluates whether school administrators have achieved the defined tasks efficiently or not by the supervisions.

In the studies regarding school administrators, various characteristics of efficient/perfect school administrators have been put forward. Some of them are; setting objectives for the school, performing the duties so as to achieve the aims, and providing high expectations about the school and education (Balci, 2002; Şişman, 2011). Setting goals for the school and motivating school shareholders to be able to achieve these goals contributes the achievement of the school administrator as a leader. However, the goals the school administrator set for the school are extremely high or low can cause various problems. If the goals are set at low level, achieving them may be relatively easier and by staying under their present abilities, the individuals may not contribute to the achievement of them. Yet, if these goals are incredibly high, it can be really tricky for the individuals to achieve. It is also quite difficult to measure how much these goals are achieved. Hence, these goals may be hard for some people; and easy for some others. The important point is that the school administrator should set compelling but accessible goals and should reward the ones achieving them. If the school administrator sets too tricky goals over the capacity of the individuals, this can cause them feel disaffected and bored towards the goals.

School administrators can be in a continuous search so as to develop the school and bring it to a better condition. This effort is of course nothing else than perfection seeking. Hence, the effort of the school administrator to achieve the better in accordance with educational legislation is accepted as positive (excellence) at a certain point but exceeding over a certain point is accepted as negative (perfection). Over perfection of the school administrator may begin to damage the people around as it includes perfection anxiety together with excellence effort. Perfectionism expected from the school administrator is optimum perfection directed to making the school efficient, not over perfection that will get him and the people around into trouble. Hence, the first stem in efficient/excellent schools is provided by efficient/excellent administrators (Balci, 1991). In efficient schools, the school administrator has to be not only a good administrator but also an educational leader. The school administrator's perfection can affect the decisions about education and thus, positively or negatively affect other people and education process. Parallel to this, the school administrator may attribute all the high standards at school achieved to him or her and pretend that nobody has had any contributions, or may provide an excellent atmosphere at school by sharing with the shareholders and rewarding them (Kiral, 2015).

6. Conclusion

Although the relationship between perfectionism and locus of control is clearly seen, researches in which perfectionism and locus of control are directly discussed within the literature are scarce. That's why; current research was done in order to bridge such a gap in the light of literature. Perfectionism and locus of control is studied especially in the field of psychology. The reason for this may be the fact that the relationship between perfectionism and locus of control affects psychotherapy process. Within this context, therapists may want to direct the motivations of maladaptive perfectionists who try hard for high standards. Maladaptive perfectionists may be significant subjects in psycho-therapy process immediately when they feel that they are externally controlled or activated by others. The view of being controlled externally by powerful others may be perceived as a disturbing fact for maladaptive perfectionists (Prisamy & Asbhy, 2002). In fact, both perfectionism and locus of control are important topics for administration. The need for the administrator to be perfect can be a harmful balls-up situation for not only him or her but also others by being an inextricable situation. Together with this, administrator can always attribute the outcomes of the events to others except himself or herself or to factors such as luck and faith. It is hoped that this literature study will contribute to researchers for further studies and to educational administrators in running the tasks in the workplace more effectively and efficiently during administration process.

References

- Adderholdt, E. M., & Goldberg, J. (1990). *Perfectionism: What's Bad About Being Too Good?*. Minneapolis: Free Spirit Publishing.

- Adler, A. (1956). *Striving for Superiority*. In H. L. Ansbacher & R. R. Ansbacher (Eds.). *The individual psychology of Alfred Adler* (pp.101-125). New York: Basic Books.
- Aydın, İ. (2006). *Alternatif Okullar (Alternative Schools)*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.
- Balcı, A. (1991). *Etkili okula ulaşmada ilk adım: etkili yönetici (First step in achieving effective schools: effective administrator)*. Paper Presented at the First Education Congress, İzmir.
- Balcı, A. (2002). *Etkili Okul ve Okul Geliştirme.(Effective Schools and School Development)*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Başaran, İ. E. (2000). *Eğitim Yönetimi Nitelikli Okul (Educational Management, Qualified School)*. Ankara: Feryal Matbaası.
- Basco, M. R. (1999). *Never Good Enough: How to Use Perfectionism to Your Advantage Without Letting it Ruin Your Life*. New York: Simon and Schuster.
- Blakely, G. L., Srivastava, A., & Moorman, R. H. (2005). The Effects of Nationality Work Role Centrality, and Work Locus of Control on Role Definitions of OCB. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies* Fall.12, (1), 103-117.
- Burns, D. D. (1980). The perfectionists script for self-defeat. *Psychology Today*, 1, 34- 52.
- Davenport, J. (2010). Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment: the Moderating Effect of Locus of Control. *ASBBS Annual Conference: Las Vegas. 17, (1), 277-290*.
- Ellis, A. (1962). *Reason and Emotion in Psychotherapy*. L. Stuart. New York.
- Flett, G. L., Hewitt, P. L., Blankstein, K. R., & O'Brien, S. (1991). Perfectionism and learned resourcefulness in depression and self-esteem. *Personality and Individual Differences*. 12(1), 61-63
- Flett, G.L., Hewitt, P.L., Blankstein, K.R. & Masher, S.W. (1995). Perfectionism life events and depressive symptoms: a test of a diathesis stress model. *Current psychology*. 14, 112-137.
- Flett, G.L., Panico, T. & Hewitt, P. L. (2011). Perfectionism, type A behavior and self efficacy in depression and health symptoms among adolescent. *Current Psychology*. 30, 105-116.
- Frost, R. O., Marten, P., Lahart, C., and Rosenblate, R. (1990). The dimensions of perfectionism. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*. 14(2), 449-468.
- Hamachek, D. E. (1978). Psychodynamics of normal and neurotic perfectionism. *Psychology*. 15(1), 27-33.
- Hersch, P. D. & Scheibe, K. E. (1967).Reliability and Validity of Internal-External Control as Personality Dimensions. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*. 32, 600-613.
- Hewitt, P. L. & Flett, G. L. (1991a). Perfectionism in the self and social contexts: conceptualization, assessment and association with psychopathology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 60 (1), 456-470.
- Hewitt, P. L.& Flett, G. L. (1991b). Dimensions of perfectionism in unipolar depression. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*. 100 (1), 98-101.
- Hollender, M. H. (1978). Perfectionism, a Neglected Personality Trait. *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, 39, 384-385.
- Horney, K. (1970). *Neurosis and Human Growth: The Struggle Toward Selfrealization*. New York: W.W. Norton and Company Inc.
- Kiral, B. (2015). *Lise yöneticilerinin öğretmenleri güçlendirmesi ve öğretmenlerin kayıtsızlık (sinizm) davranışı ile ilişkisi (The relationship between teacher empowerment of high school administrators and cynicism behaviors of teachers)*. Yayınlanmış Doktora Tezi, (Published Doctorate Thesis). Ankara Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara.
- Kırdök, O. (2004). *Olumlu ve Olumsuz Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği Geliştirme Çalışması. (Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale Development Study)*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Çukurova Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Adana.
- Lefcourt, H. M. (1976). *Locus of Control: Current Trends in Theory and Research*. New York: Heistead.

- Levenson, H. (1974). Activism and Powerful Others: Distinctions within the Concept of Internal-External Control. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 38 (1), 377-383.
- Levenson, H. (1981) Differentiating Among Internality, Powerful Others and Chance. *Academic Pres.* 12, 15-63.
- Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and Personality*. Newyork: Harper & Row, Longman an imprint of addison wesley longman inc.
- McGarvey, A. J. (1996). The Almost Perfect Definition. Retrieved February 23, 2016, from <http://news.psu.edu/story/140820/1996/09/01/research/almost-perfect-definition>.
- Missildine, W. H. (1963). *Your Inner Child of The Past*. NewYork: Simon and Schuster inc.
- Neill, J. (2006). *What is Locus of Control?*. Retrieved February 12, 2012, from <http://wilderdom.com/psychology/loc/LocusOfControlWhatIs.html>
- Pacht, A. R. (1984). Reflections on Perfection. *American psychologist*. 39(1), 386-390.
- Periasamy, S. & Ashby, J. (2002). Multidimensional Perfectionism and Locus of Control: Adaptive vs. Maladaptive Perfectionism. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy*, 17 (2), 75-86.
- Phares, E. C. (1976). *Locus of Control in Personality*. New Jersey: General Learning Pres.
- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized Expectancies for Internal Versus External Control of Reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, 80, (1), (Whole No. 609).
- Rotter, J. B., Chance, J. E., & Phares, E. J. (1972). *Applications of a Social Learning Theory of Personality*. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winson.
- Sabuncuoğlu, Z. & Tüz, M. (2003). *Örgütsel Psikoloji (Organizational Psychology)*. Bursa: Furkan Ofset.
- Sarı, S. V. (2011). *Lise Son Sınıf Öğrencilerinin Mesleğe Karar Verme Öz-Yeterliliklerini Yordamada Umut, Kontrol Odağı ve Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Özelliklerinin Rolü. (High School Students Last Year Vocational Decision Making Self-Efficacy of predicting Hope, Locus of Control and the Role of the Multidimensional Perfectionism Properties.)* Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Trabzon.
- Şengüder, Ş. (2006). *LiseI-III: Sınıf Öğrencilerinde Denetim Odağı ile Ruhsal Sorunları Arasındaki İlişkinin Belirlemesi ve Akademik Başarı ile Kıyaslanması.* Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, İzmir. *Lise- III: The Relationship Between Locus of Control in Grade Students with Psychological Problems Identifying and Comparing with Academic Achievement.*
- Şişman, M. (2011). *Eğitimde Mükemmeliyetçilik Arayışı, Etkili Okullar. (Perfectionism Opportunities in Education, Effective Schools)*. Ankara: PegemA Yayıncılık.
- Skinner, E. A. (1996). A guide to constructs of control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 71(1), 549 - 570.
- Slade, P. D. & Owens, R. G. (1998). A dual process model of perfectionism based on reinforcement theory. *Behavior Modification*. 22 (3), 372-390.
- Stoeber, J., & Becker, C. (2008). Perfectionism, Achievement Motives, and Attribution of Success and Failure in Female Soccer Players. *International Journal of Psychology*. 43, (6), 980-987.
- Thomas, W. H. N., & Daniel, C. F. (2011). Locus of Control and Organizational Embeddedness. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84, 173-190
- Yeşilyaprak, B. (2004). Denetim Odağı. (Locus of Control). In Y. Kuzgun ve D. Deryakulu. (Eds). *Eğitimde Bireysel Farklılıklar. (Individual Differences in Education)* Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- Zimbardo, P.G. (1985). *Psychology and Life*. Glenview, IL: Scott Foreman and Company.

The Relationship Between Emotion Understanding Skills Of Preschoolers And Their Mothers' Parenting Attitudes

Gülçin Güven, Elif Yılmaz, Kadriye Efe-Azkeskin, Türker Sezer

1. Introduction

Parent-child relationship begins with birth and can directly affect the child's development, especially in the very early years of life (Belsky, 1984; Parke, 2004). When examining the literature, it is seen that family characteristics (communication, interaction, attitude, care, etc.) affect children's social-emotional development, social skills development, social and emotional competencies, development of the self and emotion regulation skills (Brown, Mangelsdorf, Neff, Schoppe-Sullivan, & Frosch, 2009; Chae, & Lee, 2011; Chen, & McCollum, 2000; Driscoll, & Pianta, 2011; Dillon, 2009; Hoffmann, & Russ, 2012; Koçyiğit, Sezer, & Yılmaz, 2015; Lindsey, & Colwell, 2003; McCollum, & Chen, 2001; McDowell, & Parke, 2009; Pasiak, 2011; Durmuşoğlu-Saltalı, & Arslan, 2012). The experiences that take place in the family are the basis for the very important skills of children. A healthy growth and development of a child is closely related to the positive attitude of his/her family (Tezel-Şahin, & Özyürek, 2008; Özyürek, 2015, Yörükoğlu, 2000). Parents are role models for children (Yavuzer, 2004) and children reflect what parents model them, as traits of their personality (Çiftçi, 1991). The child learns how to think, behave and feel through the attitudes of his parents (Alisınanoğlu, 2003).

Various classifications exist in the literature on the attitudes of parents. Baumrind (1991) classified parental attitudes as permissive/nondirective, authoritative and authoritarian, and Maccoby, & Martin (1983) classified as indulgent, authoritarian, authoritative, and uninvolved. In addition, there are also classifications under the headings such as egalitarian and democratic, overprotective and intrusive, authoritative and oppressive, unengaged / irrelevant, overly tolerant and inconsistent attitudes (Özyürek, 2004; Özyürek, & Tezel-Şahin, 2012). There are two important elements of parental attitudes. The first element is parental warmth and support. The second one is parental control of the behaviors of the children (Baumrind, 1991). Parental attitudes involved in this research are "Democratic, Authoritative, Over Protective and Permissive" attitudes.

The most basic element in children's socialization process is their parents (Karabulut-Demir, & Şendil, 2008) and parent-child relationships have an important place in the social and emotional development of the child (Gülay, & Önder, 2007). The form of parental control and discipline is directly related to emotional development (Guajardo, Snyder, & Petersen, 2009). In the families where the parents are emotionally positive, the children have improved their emotional transfer among their peers. Children's emotion understanding is more developed when the parents are sensitive to children's emotions (Denham, Mitchell-Copeland, Strandberg, Auerbach, & Blair, 1997). Brown and Dunn (1996) pointed out that it is important for children to talk about their emotions with the parents. The conversations on the style of parent-child interaction and emotions is necessary for children to understand the reasons for certain emotional experiences (Cutting, & Dunn, 1999). The content and style of parent-child conversations, especially the conversations on emotions, affect the children's acquisition of emotional abilities (Stern, 1985, quoted in Raikes, & Thompson, 2006). It is known that when a child is unhappy, an emotionally supportive parent and a parent who has the proper attitude to teach the child how to deal with it will help the child to have this emotional awareness and understanding (Denham, 1989, 1993). In this context, the aim was to investigate the relationship between parental attitudes and children's ability to understand emotions. Within this general framework, parental attitudes of mothers and children's emotion understanding skills were examined in terms of the variables of gender of the child and educational status of the mother.

2. Method

2.1. Research Model

This research on the relationship between the parental attitudes of the mothers and the emotion understanding skills of their children is designed as in a relational survey model.

2.2. Study Group

The study group of the research consists of 198 children, all of whom are 60-72 months old, and their mothers. The children are attending 2016-2017 academic year in five kindergartens which are chosen according to the availability principle from the independent preschool institutions in the districts of Anatolian side of İstanbul, namely in Kadıköy and Ataşehir.

Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the children and their parents in the study group.

Table 1. Frequency and rate distribution of the demographic characteristics of the children and their parents in the study group

Demographic Characteristics		<i>f</i>	%
Gender	Female	97	49.0
	Male	101	51.0
Educational Status of the Mother	Primary education	10	5.1
	Secondary education	45	22.7
	Higher education	143	72.2
Educational Status of the Father	Primary education	13	6.6
	Secondary education	40	20.2
	Higher education	145	73.2
Socio-Economic Level	Low	55	27.7
	Lower middle	60	30.3
	Upper middle	83	41.9

Table 1 shows that 97 (49%) of the children participating the research are female and 101 (51%) are male. 10 of the mothers (5,1%) are primary, 45 (22,7%) are secondary school, and 143 (72,2%) are higher education graduates while 13 (6,6%) of the fathers are primary, 40 (28,9%) are secondary, and 145 (62,6%) are higher education graduates. 55 (27,7%) of the mothers in the study group notices the socio-economic levels of their family as low, 60 (30,3%) as lower middle and 83 (41,9%) as upper middle.

2.3. Data Collection Tools

Three data collection tools are used in the research. These are; "Personal Information Form", "Denham's Affect Knowledge Test" and "Parents Attitude Scale".

2.3.1. Personal Information Form: The form developed in the research aims to collect information on the gender of the children, educational status of the parents and demographic information on the socio-economic status of the family.

2.3.2. Denham's Affect Knowledge Test: The test developed by Susanne A. Denham in 1986 is applied to the children in their 3-6 years using puppets, aims to measure the skills of understanding their emotions. Validity and reliability study and Turkish adaptation of the test are made by Yilmaz (2012). The test begins by asking to the child questions on emotions. Some face expressions symbolizing "happy, angry, sad, scared" are showed to the child asking how the each faces feel. Then, the feelings "happy, angry, sad, scared" are animated 20 different dialogs using the mother and (according to the gender of the child) girl/boy puppets. It is asked from the child to hold the face that expressing the feeling that is the subject of each different dialog of the puppets. It is asked from the child both to show the correct face expression and to say the name of the feeling. If the child does the

both saying the name and showing the expression correctly then gets 2 points; if he or she does one of them correctly gets 1 point and else gets 0 point (Denham, Ji, & Hamre, 2010). In the scope of this study Cronbach's Alpha reliability of the scale is measured as .83.

2.3.3. Parents Attitude Scale: The scale is developed by Karabulut-Demir and Şendil (2008) aiming to measure the attitudes of the parents towards their children between the ages of 2-6. It is a 5-point Likert structure scale consists of 4 sub-dimension with 46 items, and can be applied parents of 2-6 age-olds. The sub-dimensions are; "Democratic", "Authoritarian", "Over Protective" and "Permissive". Scale provides the parents to state how often they do mentioned behaviors. Scores collected from each dimension are calculated separately to get a score for each dimension. High scores from a dimension means parent adopts the attitude represented by that dimension. In the scope of this study Cronbach's Alpha reliability of the scale is measured as .75.

2.4. The Collection and the Analysis of the Data

The tools of the research on the parental attitudes of the mothers and the emotion understanding skills of their child, namely the "Personal Information Form" and the "Parents Attitude Scale" were delivered to the families through the teachers and filled by the mothers. "Denham's Affect Knowledge Test" was applied to the children individually by the researchers, and evaluated by them. For the analysis of the data the SPSS package program was used. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of the data collection tools used in the research was calculated and inner consistency of the tools were tested. For the evaluation of the data, the Pearson correlation test, independent groups t test, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Kruskal Wallis-H Test were used. Tukey test was used in order to determine the significant differences between the groups which have significant ANOVA results. Mann Whitney U test was used for the analysis where there is a significant results of Kruskal Wallis-H tests in order to determine the differences between the groups. The significance level for all of the analyses has been considered as $p < .05$.

3. Findings

The findings of the research are presented in this section. Firstly, The Pearson correlation analysis results that examine the relationship between the mothers' parenting attitudes and the children's emotion understanding skills are presented in table 2.

Table 2. The correlation analysis results towards the relationship between mothers' parental attitudes and the children's emotion understanding skills

	Parents Attitude Scale				
	Democratic	Authoritative	Over Protective	Permissive	
Denham's Affect Knowledge Test	r	.046	-.033	.044	-.164
	p	.520	.640	.536	.021*
	n	198	198	198	198

* $p < .05$

Table 2 shows no significant relationship ($p > .05$) between the children's emotion understanding skills and the mothers' "Democratic" ($r = .046$), "Authoritarian" ($r = .033$), and "Over Protective" ($r = .044$) attitudes; however, it shows a negative significant relationship between the mothers' "Permissive" attitudes and children's emotion understanding skills ($r = -.163$, $p < .05$).

The t test results by gender for the mothers' parental attitudes and the children's emotion understanding skills are presented in Table 3.

The Relationship Between Emotion Understanding Skills

Table 3. The t test results by gender for the mothers' parental attitudes and the children's emotion understanding skills

Scale	Gender	n	\bar{X}	Ss	t	Sd	p
Denham's Affect Knowledge Test	Female	97	33.89	5.11	-.111	196	.912
	Male	101	33.97	4.16			
Democratic	Female	97	27.42	7.11	1.377	196	.170
	Male	101	26.18	5.41			
Parents Attitude Scale	Female	97	45.30	5.34	.178	196	.859
	Male	101	45.17	5.01			
Over Protective	Female	97	22.39	5.50	-2.254	196	.025*
	Male	101	24.29	6.34			
Permissive	Female	97	32.95	4.49	-1.179	196	.240
	Male	101	33.73	4.73			

*p<.05

According to table 4, there is no statistically significant difference ($p > .05$) by gender recorded for the participant children's Denham's Affect Knowledge Test average scores ($t = -.111$) and mothers' Parents Attitude Scale average scores of the Democratic ($t = 1.377$), the Authoritative ($t = .178$) and the Permissive ($t = -1.179$) attitudes. However, the "Over Protective" attitude average score of the mothers show a significant difference by gender ($t = -2.254$, $p < .05$). The average score of the mothers of the girls is 22.39 while the average scores of the mothers of the boys 24.29. Consequently, it is recorded that the over protective attitudes of the mothers of boys are higher than the mothers of the boys.

Table 4 presents the Kruskal Wallis-H Test results of the participant mothers' parental attitudes and the children's emotion understanding skills by the mother educational status.

Table 4. The Kruskal Wallis-H Test results of the participant mothers' parental attitudes and the children's emotion understanding skills by the mother educational status

Scale	Educational Status of the Mother	n	\bar{X}_{rank}	χ^2	Sd	p	Significant Difference
Denham's Affect Knowledge Test	Primary edu.	10	89.10	.790	2	.674	
	Secondary edu.	45	104.94				
	Higher edu.	143	98.51				
Democratic	Primary edu.	10	81.80	1.347	2	.510	
	Secondary edu.	45	96.11				
	Higher edu.	143	101.80				
Authoritative	Primary edu.	10	102.60	1.390	2	.499	
	Secondary edu.	45	108.00				
	Higher edu.	143	96.61				
Over Protective	Primary edu.	10	70.80	12.181	2	.002*	-Higher / Primary / -Higher / Secondary
	Secondary edu.	45	78.07				
	Higher edu.	143	108.25				
Permissive	Primary edu.	10	88.85	.454	2	.797	
	Secondary edu.	45	97.86				
	Higher edu.	143	100.76				

According to the table 4, there is no statistically significant difference ($p > .05$) by mothers' educational statuses recorded for the participant children's Denham's Affect Knowledge Test average scores ($\chi^2 = .790$) and mothers' Parents Attitude Scale average scores of the Democratic ($\chi^2 = 1.347$), the Authoritative ($\chi^2 = 1.390$) and the Permissive ($\chi^2 = .454$) attitudes. However, the "Over Protective" attitude average score of the mothers show a significant difference by mothers' educational statuses ($\chi^2 = 12.181$, $p < .05$). Mann Whitney U test was applied in order to determine between which groups a significant difference is present. Examination of the results shows that the differences between the higher education graduate mothers and the primary school graduates are in favor of higher education graduates ($U = 439.000$; $p = .41$); and between the higher education graduate mothers and the secondary school graduates are in favor of higher education graduates ($U = 2242.000$; $p = .002$). That is, the higher education graduate mothers have more over protective attitudes than primary and secondary education graduate mothers.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

In the study, the relationship between parental attitudes of mothers and children's ability to understand emotions was investigated. The results show that there is a significant negative correlation between the "permissive" attitudes of the mothers and the children's ability to understand emotions, while there was no significant relationship between the democratic, authoritarian and protective attitudes of the mothers and the children's ability to understand emotions. Guajardo, Snyder and Petersen (2009) investigated the relationship between the child's emotional development and parent-child interaction and found that there was a significant relationship between parental control, which is treated as permissive attitudes in the study, and emotional development of children. In the study conducted by Steele, Steele, Croft and Fonagy (1999), it was determined that there is a relationship between attachment, which is an important element of mother-child interaction, and 6 age-olds group's understanding of complex feelings. In addition, Harris (1994) suggests that children's emotion understanding skills are influenced by family variables. In a survey on the elementary school students conducted by Çalışkan (2015), it was determined that there is a relationship between the parenting styles of the mothers and the children's emotion understanding skills. From the results of all these studies, it can be said that the relationship between the children's emotion understanding skills and parental attitudes of the mothers; and this study also supports these results as showing the relationship between the permissive attitudes of the mothers and the children's emotion understanding skills.

As a result of the research, it has been determined that the democratic, authoritative and permissive attitudes of the mothers do not differ significantly in terms of the gender of the children. In the studies conducted by Karabulut-Demir (2007) and Tezel-Şahin, & Özyürek (2008), it was also determined that the attitudes of the mothers do not differ according to the gender of the children. However, according to another research result, the protective attitudes of the mothers differ according to the gender of the children and accordingly the mothers have a more protective attitude towards the boys. There are various findings in the literature regarding the differentiation of parents' attitudes according to the gender of the children (Fincham, Beach, Arias, & Brody, 1998; Tanju-Aslışen, 2017). Given the differences in the results of the research on the attitudes of the parents in terms of the gender of the children, these results can be interpreted as being related to the characteristics of the study group and cultural factors.

It is determined that the democratic, authoritative and permissive attitudes of the mothers do not differ according to their educational status, but the over protective attitudes of the mothers differs by their learning status. According to this, it is determined that higher education graduates have higher protective attitudes as mothers towards their children than primary and secondary school graduates. Tudge, Hogan, Snezhkova, Kulakova and Etz (2000) found that high level graduate mothers give more importance to control and discipline their children. As a result of the research carried out by Aydoğdu and Dilekmen (2016), it was determined that the higher education graduate mothers have higher democratic and protective attitudes. However, when the studies in the field are examined, it is seen

that the attitudes of positive parenting exhibited increases as the education level of the mothers increases in general (Özben, & Argun, 2002; Şanlı, & Öztürk, 2012; Tezel-Şahin, & Özyürek, 2008). However, in this study, in contrast to these findings, it was determined that the democratic, authoritative and permissive attitudes of the mothers do not differ by the education level, while the protective attitudes are observed more in the mothers with higher education level.

According to the results of the research, children's emotion understanding skills do not differ by their gender. When the researches are examined, it is seen that the study conducted by Arı and Şahin-Seçer (2004) on children aged 60-72 months, the ability of the children in differentiating emotional facial expressions does not differ by the gender variable. A study by Ulutaş (2005) found that the emotional intelligence of children do not change with gender. However, there are also studies in literature that show that children's emotion understanding skills varies by gender. Accordingly, research conducted by Dunn, Brown, Slomkowski, Tesla and Youngblade (1991) found that girls 'emotion understanding skills were better than boys'. This difference may be related to the characteristics of the study group.

According to another result obtained in the study, children's emotion understanding skills do not show any significant difference by the variable of mother educational status. As a result of the study of the emotional intelligence of the children aged 6 years conducted by Ulutaş (2005), it has been determined that the emotional intelligence of the children does not differ according to the education level of the mother. In the study conducted by Cutting and Dunn (1999), it was found that there is a relationship between mothers' educational status and children's emotion understanding skills. Since there are a limited number of study on children's emotion understanding skills in terms of mothers' educational status variables, this outcome needs to be tested with different studies.

When all research results are taken into consideration, it is suggested that the study to be repeated with different sample groups and the fathers' parental attitudes and their effects on the child's social-emotional development to be examined. Democratic parental attitudes can be supported through the family education programs and activities for family participation to the school education process.

5. References

- Alisinanoğlu, F. (2003). Çocukların denetim odağı ile algıladıkları anne tutumları arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi [A study on the relation-ship between childrens' locus of control and the perception of mother attitudes]. *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi/ Journal of Turkish Educational Sciences*, 1(1), 1-14.
- Arı, R. & Şahin-Seçer, Z. (2004). Okulöncesi dönemdeki çocukların duygusal yüz ifadelerini tanıma becerilerinin çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelenmesi [The study of preschool age children's skill in recognizing facial expressions according to various variables]. *Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi/ Selçuk University Social Sciences Institute Journal*, 11, 67-84.
- Aydoğdu, F., & Dilekmen, M. (2016). Ebeveyn tutumlarının çeşitli değişkenler açısından değerlendirilmesi [The evaluation of parents' attitudes in terms of different variables]. *Bayburt Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi/ Journal of Bayburt Education Faculty*, 11(2), 569-585.
- Baumrind, D. (1991). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 11(1), 56-95.
- Belsky, J. (1984). The determinants of parenting: A process model. *Child Development*, 55, 83-96.
- Brown, G. L., Mangelsdorf, S. C., Neff, C., Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., & Frosch, C. A. (2009). Young children's self-concepts: Associations with child temperament, mothers' and fathers' parenting, and triadic family interaction. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly (Wayne State University Press)*, 55(2), 184-216.
- Brown, J., & Dunn, J. (1996). Continuities in emotion understanding from three to six years. *Child Development*, 67, 789-802.
- Chae, J. Y., & Lee, K. Y. (2011). Impacts of Korean fathers' attachment and parenting behavior on their children's social competence. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 39(5), 627-643. Doi: 10.2224/sbp.2011.39.5.627

- Chen, Y. J., & McCollum, J. A. (2000). Taiwanese mothers' perceptions of the relationship between interactions with their infants and the development of social competence. *Early Child Development and Care, 162*(1), 25-40. Doi: 10.1080/0300443001620103
- Cutting, A. L., & Dunn, J. (1999). Theory of mind, emotion understanding, language, and family background: Individual differences and interrelations. *Child Development, 70*(4), 853-865.
- Çalışkan, A. (2015). The relationship between mothers' parenting styles and emotion understanding of children through the mediator role of children's perceived parenting styles of their mothers. (Unpublished master thesis), Middle East Technique University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Çiftçi, O. (1991). Çocuğun sosyalleşmesinde ailenin rolü [The role of the family in socializing the child]. *Aile ve Toplum Dergisi/Journal of Family and Society, 1*(2) 19-21.
- Denham, S. A. (1989). Maternal affect and toddlers' social-emotional competence. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 59*, 368-376.
- Denham, S. A. (1993). Maternal emotional responsiveness and toddlers' social-emotional competence. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 34*, 715-728.
- Denham, S. A., Ji, P., & Hamre, B. (2010). *Compendium of Preschool Through Elementary School Social-Emotional Learning and Associated Assessment Measures*. Chicago, IL: Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning and Social and Emotional Learning Research Group, University of Illinois at Chicago.
- Denham, S. A., Mitchell-Copeland, J., Strandberg, K., Auerbach, S., & Blair, K. (1997). Parental contributions to preschoolers' emotional competence: Direct and indirect effects. *Motivation and Emotion, 21*(1), 65-86.
- Dillon, J. A. (2009). Play, creativity, emotion regulation and executive functioning. (Unpublished master thesis), Case Western Reserve University, Ohio, USA.
- Driscoll, K., & Pianta, R. C. (2011). Mothers' and fathers' perceptions of conflict and closeness in parent-child relationships during early childhood. *Journal of Early Childhood and Infant Psychology, 7*, 1-24.
- Dunn, J., Brown, J., Slomkowski, C., Tesla, C., & Youngblade, L. (1991). Young children's understanding of other people's feelings and beliefs: Individual differences and their antecedents. *Child Development, 62*(6), 1352-1366.
- Durmuşoğlu-Saltalı, N., & Arslan, E. (2012). Ebeveyn tutumlarının anasınıfına devam eden çocukların sosyal yetkinlik ve içe dönüklük davranışını yordaması [Parent's attitudes as a predictor of preschoolers' social competence and introverted behavior]. *İlköğretim Online/ Elementary Education Online, 11*(3), 729-737.
- Fincham, D. F., Beach, S. R. H., Arias, I., & Brody, G. (1998). Children's attributions in the family: The children's relationship attribution measure. *Journal of Family Psychology, 12*(4), 481-493.
- Guajardo, N. R., Snyder, G., & Petersen, R. (2009). Relationships among parenting practices, parental stress, child behaviour, and children's social-cognitive development. *Infant and Child Development, 18*(1), 37-60.
- Gülay, H., & Önder, A. (2007). Annelerin kabul red düzeyi ile çocuklarının empati becerisi arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi [Mother's acceptance and rejected level of their children and emphatic skills of children]. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi/Pamukkale University Education Faculty Journal, 2*(22), 23-30.
- Harris, P. L. (1994). The child's understanding of emotion: Developmental changes and the family environment. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 35*, 3-28.
- Hoffmann, J., & Russ, S. (2012). Pretend play, creativity, and emotion regulation in children. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts, 6*(2), 175-184.
- Karabulut-Demir, E. (2007). Ebeveyn tutum ölçeği (ETÖ) [Parents attitude scale] (Unpublished master thesis), Istanbul University, Istanbul, Turkey.
- Karabulut-Demir, E., & Şendil, G. (2008). Parent Attitude Scale (PAS). *Turkish Psychology Bulletin, 11*(21), 15-25.
- Koçyiğit, S., Sezer, T., & Yılmaz, E. (2015). 60-72 aylık çocukların sosyal yetkinlik ve duygu düzenleme becerileri ile oyun becerileri arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi [The investigating of

- the relationship among social competence, emotion regulation skills and play skills of 60-72 months old children]. *Hasan Ali Yücel Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi/Hasan Ali Yucel Education Faculty Journal*, 12-1(23), 287-300.
- Lindsey, E. W., & Colwell, M. J. (2003). Preschoolers' emotional competence: Links to pretend and physical play. *Child Study Journal*, 33(1), 39-52.
- Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. A. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. In E. M. Hetherington (Ed.), P. H. Mussen (Series Ed.), *Handbook of Child Psychology: Vol 4 Socialization, Personality, and Social Development* (pp. 1-101). New York: Wiley Press.
- McCollum, J. A., & Chen, Y. J. (2001). Maternal roles and social competence: Parent-infant interactions in two cultures. *Early Child Development and Care*, 166(1), 119-133. Doi: 10.1080/0300443011660110
- McDowell, D. J., & Parke, R. D. (2009). Parental correlates of children's peer relations: an empirical test of a tripartite model. *Developmental Psychology*, 45(1), 224-235. Doi: 10.1037/a0014305
- Özben, S., & Argun, Y. (2002). Okul öncesi çocukların anne-babalarının çocuk yetiştirme tutumları ile ilgili değişkenlerin incelenmesi [Examining variables related to parenting attitudes of preschool children]. *Buca Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi/ Buca Faculty of Education Journal*, 14, 18-28.
- Özyürek, A., & Tezel-Şahin, F. (2012). Altı yaşında çocuğa sahip annelerin çocuklarıyla ilişkilerinin incelenmesi [Examination of the relationships of the mothers of six-year-olds with their children]. *International Refereed Academic Social Sciences Journal*, 5(3), 72-86.
- Özyürek, A. (2004). Kırsal bölge ve şehir merkezinde yaşayan 5-6 yaş grubu çocuğa sahip anne-babaların çocuk yetiştirme tutumlarının incelenmesi [Researching the attitudes of parents that has 5-6 years children group in city-center and country-side] (Unpublished master thesis), Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Özyürek, A. (2015). Okul öncesi çocukların sosyal beceri düzeyleri ile anne tutumları arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi [An examination of the relation between social skills of preschool children and mother's child rearing attitudes]. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi/National Education Journal*, 206, 106-116.
- Parke, R. D. (2004). Development in the family. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 55, 365-399.
- Pasiak, C. (2011). The effect of mother-child interactional synchrony: Implications for preschool aggression and social competence (Unpublished master thesis), University of Windsor, Ontario, Canada.
- Raikes, H. A., & Thompson, R. A. (2006). Family emotional climate, attachment security and young children's emotion knowledge in a high risk sample. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 24(1), 89-104.
- Steele, H., Steele, M., Croft, C., & Fonagy, P. (1999). Infant-mother attachment at one year predicts children's understanding of mixed emotions at six years. *Social Development*, 8(2), 161-178.
- Şanlı, D., & Öztürk, C. (2012). Annelerin çocuk yetiştirme tutumlarını etkileyen etmenlerin incelenmesi [Investigation of the factors affecting parenting attitudes of parents]. *Buca Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi/Buca Faculty of Education Journal*, 32, 31-48.
- Tanju-Aslışen, E. H. (2017). 5-6 yaş çocuklarının ve ebeveynlerinin bazı alışkanlıkları ile ebeveynlerin çocuk yetiştirme tutumları arasındaki farklılıklara ilişkin bir çalışma [A study on the differences between certain habits of 5-6 year old children and their parents' and parents' rearing attitudes]. *Başkent University Journal of Education*, 4(1), 11-28.
- Tezel-Şahin, F., & Özyürek, A. (2008). 5-6 yaş grubu çocuğa sahip ebeveynlerin demografik özelliklerinin çocuk yetiştirme tutumlarına etkisinin incelenmesi [Investigation of the effect of demographic characteristics of parents with 5-6 age group on childrearing attitudes]. *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi/Journal of Turkish Educational Sciences*, 6(3), 395-414.
- Tudge, J., Hogan, D., Snezhkova, I., Kulakova, N. & Etz, K. (2000). Parent's child-rearing values and beliefs in the United States and Russia: The impact of culture and social class. *Infant and Child Development*, 9, 105-121.

- Ulutaş, İ. (2005). *Anasınıfına devam eden altı yaş çocuklarının duygusal zekâlarına duygusal zekâ eğitiminin etkisinin incelenmesi [The effect of emotional intelligence education on emotional intelligence of the six years old children attending pre-school classes]* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Yavuzer, H. (2004). *Ana-Baba ve Çocuk [Parents and Children]*. (17th ed), Istanbul: Remzi Kitabevi/Remzi Press.
- Yılmaz, E. (2012). *60-72 aylık çocukların duyguları anlama becerilerinin sosyal problem çözme becerilerine etkisinin incelenmesi. [Studying effect of emotion recognition skills of 5-6 year old children on their social problem solving skills]* (Unpublished master thesis). Selçuk University, Konya, Turkey.
- Yörükoğlu, A. (2000). *Değişen Toplumda Aile ve Çocuk [Family and Children in Changing Society]*. Istanbul: Özgür Yayıncılık/Ozgur Publishing.

An Analysis of Need Satisfaction Levels of Children Staying in the Children's Home

Fatih Aydogdu, Figen Gursoy

1. Introduction

The needs, defined as structures enabling the individual to integrate with the environment lived in and to become good by achieving the goals set out (Ryan and Deci, 2000), can be grouped as physiological and psychological needs. The physiological ones are the necessities for the continuation of the individual's vitality. Although it is not a threat to human life, the removal of the psychological needs may lead to a disturbance of the psychological wellbeing of the individual (Ercoşkun and Nalçacı, 2005) and an impairment of physiological balance (Oksal, 1986).

The satisfaction of the psychological needs enables the individual to have optimistic feelings and thoughts about his/her life (Yarkın, 2014). When these needs are satisfied, the person adapts to life, his/her personality development and subjective well-being are influenced positively (Ryan and Deci, 2000). The person who satisfies his/her needs enjoys life much more, begins to solve the problems he/she faces, and endeavors to make his/her life meaningful. Individuals whose psychological needs are satisfied, have certain abilities such as, feel healthy and be happy and in peace with life, set goals and make applicable them, establish strong friendship relations and be independent (Çelikkaleli and Gündoğdu, 2005).

In order to be able to satisfy the basic psychological needs, it is necessary for an individual to evaluate his/her environment and make choices and take responsibility for these choices. Hereunder, the objectives that the individual sets for his/her life and the sense of belonging he/she feels for his/her environment, may be effective on the satisfaction of the needs (Çikriçi, 2015). The applications such as, supply his/her physiological needs, be a model for the child to have him/her a strong personality, teach the child to set goals and how to reach them, create a social circle, give them opportunity to reveal their competencies, support them to make independent decisions, appreciate their success and support in order to make them feel belong to a group, can affect positively the satisfaction of the psychological needs of a child.

Many factors that influence the development of children from early ages, take their development to a different level. Children may come across problems such as exposure to domestic violence, divorce of the parents, exposure to hazards (e.g., abuse, begging, sexual exploitation, use of harmful substances, etc.) and removal of the basic needs. These type of situations may require to take the children under protection. The children put under protection, may have a disadvantage in meeting their needs since they live deprived of a family.

The children taken under protection order, benefit from certain care methods like birth-family, foster family, adoption and institutional care. In the institutional care method, children are settled in a nursery, an orphans' asylum, a love house and a children's home, taking into account certain factors such as the facilities of the town in which the children are taken under protection, the reason for being protected, special circumstances concerning the family and the characteristics of the child. According to the data of the General Directorate of Child Services in 2016, children's homes are the most protective institutional care method for children (1092 children's homes, 5626 children). Among these care methods, children's homes, a new institutional care method, are more preferred due to these features such as keeping few children together (5-8 persons), allowing the accommodation of siblings all together, employing one maintenance personnel per eight children and including maintenance staff in various training programs (Gelen and Çınar, 2014), organizing various activities, supplying the need for health, social and educational needs (Children's homes inspection, 2016), employing several experts in the children's homes, opening children's homes for different age groups (0 to 18 years of age group), not constantly changing employees in the children's homes (Yazıcı, 2012), houses with better physical conditions, being attentive to open the houses near the

schools and the hospitals, not settling the children with special needs at a high level and preparing the children to a home life.

Although the children's homes are the places that children can be kept away from the negativity resulted by the collective life (Yaşar and Dağdelen, 2013), certain conditions such as not living with family members except the siblings staying together in the same home, not having a blood relation between the children and the caring mothers, absence of a father model, due to the caring mothers' service, inadequate applications for neighborhood relations, and lack of kinship relations (Gürsoy and Aydoğdu, 2016) may prevent children from being met their psychological needs.

When the researches concerning the children's homes are examined, it is seen that the children staying in the children's homes encounter some problems. Morgan (2009) stated that children living in children's homes face problems such as the absence of a family, strict rules, being obliged to live with people whom they could not agree, and the difficulty in developing intimacy with the staff; Berridge et al. (2012) states that the qualities of staff working in children's homes are poor; Yazıcı (2013) states that it is necessary to analyze well the selection criteria of the maintenance personnel in order to eliminate the negativity caused by the maintenance staff in children's home; Gelen and Çınar (2014) states that there are more children living in the houses than the capacity of the children's homes, the maintenance personnel have difficulties in backing up the children's lessons, they are faced with the problem of exclusion at school because they are known to stay in the care home, the need to take into consideration the children's past experiences when they were being raised, there are physical inadequacy in some of the children's homes and although it is stated in the law, some children's homes are located far from the center. These issues can cause children to feel bad themselves, to have difficulty in expressing themselves, to have difficulty in setting goals for the future, and to feel themselves not to belong to a group, and therefore these matters can negatively affect their needs satisfaction. In the light of all these mentioned, examining the level of need satisfaction of the adolescents living in the children's home and revealing the factors influencing the need satisfaction, can provide to make necessary arrangements in order to increase the need satisfaction level of the children. Starting from this point of view, it is aimed to study the level of need satisfaction of the adolescents staying in the children's home.

2. Method

2.1. Population and Sample

The population of the study constitutes of the adolescents in the 14-18 age group living in thirty-two children's homes in Erzincan, Erzurum and in Sivas. The sample of the study constitutes of 85 adolescents selected randomly among the adolescents in the 14-18 age group, living in the thirty-two children's home in Erzincan, Erzurum and Sivas in remaining in the house.

2.2. Data Collection Tools

In the study, on the purpose of obtaining information related to the adolescents and their parents, the "General Information Form" developed by researchers was used and in order to assess the needs satisfaction levels of adolescents, the "Needs Satisfaction Scale" developed by Deci and Ryan (1991) and adapted to Turkish by Cihangir-Cankaya and Bacanlı the (2003) was used.

2.2.1. Need Satisfaction Scale

The scale consists of 21 items measuring the three basic psychological needs of the individual, such as autonomy, competence and relatedness. The total score is yielded by the sum of the scores of the subscale items and the subscale scores and the sum of the scores of all the scales. The adolescents give their answers on a seven-point scale that includes the "not true at all" and "very true" ranks. While the high score received from the scale demonstrates that the basic psychological needs of the individuals are satisfied, the low scores indicate that the need satisfaction decrease. The scale was found to be capable of measuring needs satisfaction on the validity and reliability studies (Cihangir-Cankaya and Bacanlı, 2003).

2.3. Data Collection Method

The Needs Satisfaction Scale for the adolescents included in the study were applied to 85 adolescents living in 32 children's homes in the academic year of 2016-2017 in the provinces of Erzincan, Erzurum and Sivas. The scale was collected and checked after filled by the adolescents. Incomplete scales were given to the children and asked them to complete again. In spite of this, if remained missing data, it was obtained from the institutions.

2.4. Evaluation and Analysis of the Data

For the analysis of the research, primarily it was found that the Histogram drawn to test whether the scores are distributed normally or not, obtained from Needs Satisfaction Scale and Q-Q plot graphs are close to the line indicating a normal distribution, the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test are not meaningful ($p > .05$). In regard to the distribution of need satisfaction levels, skewness value is defined as .095; and the kurtosis value as -.271. Since both of the two obtained values are in the range of -1 to +1 which is the criterion value, it is deduced that the levels of need satisfaction are normally distributed. Parametric measurements were used in the analysis of the data. Accordingly, whether the need satisfaction levels of the adolescents participating in the research differed according to various variables or not, were determined by using the t test and One Way Variance Analysis. Sheffe test, among the post hoc tests, was used in determining the group differences in variables with more than 2 category scores.

3. Findings

In this section, the results of the analysis are stated, the collected data related to these results and the statistical analysis of the data are presented in the tables.

Table 3.1. The results of the standard deviation and variance analysis related to need satisfaction level scores with regard to the duration of adolescents staying in children's home

Duration of Staying in Children's Home	N	\bar{X}	SS	V.B	K.T	Sd	K.O	F	p
Less than 1 year	19	93.48	15.91	G.İ	2153.284	2	1076.64	3.562	.033
1-3 years	29	95.17	16.88	G.A	24787.601	82	302.28		
4 years and more	37	104.58	18.44	Total	26940.885	84			
Total	85	98.89	17.90						

V.B = Variance components, KT = Sum of squares, K.O = Mean of squares

As it is seen in the Table 3.1, the duration of staying in children's home constitutes significant difference in the children's level of need satisfaction ($F = 3.562$, $p < .01$). When the test results are examined, on the purpose of determining which groups the difference are resulted from, it can be said that the score of need satisfaction level of the adolescents staying in the children's home for 4 years or more ($\bar{X} = 106.58$), is significantly higher than the score of the children staying less than 1 year ($\bar{X} = 86.07$).

An Analysis of Need Satisfaction Levels of Children Staying in the Children's Home

Table.3.2. The results of the standard deviation and variance analysis related to need satisfaction level scores of adolescents with regard to the reason of staying in children's home

Reason for Staying in Children's Home	N	\bar{X}	SS	V.B	K.T	Sd	K.O	F	p
Having no mother or father	19	109.05	21.73	G.İ	6000.717	3	2000.23	7.737	.000
Separated or divorced parents	24	102.73	13.45	G.A	20940.168	81	258.52		
Inadequacy of parents to look after	21	98.55	9.69	Total	26940.885	84			
Neglect or abuse	21	85.64	17.87						
Total	85	98.89	17.90						

As it is seen in the Table 3.2, the reason for staying in the children's home constitutes significant difference on the need satisfaction level of the children ($F = 7.737$, $p < .01$). When the test results were examined, it was found that the scores of the need satisfaction level of the adolescents whose reasons for staying in the children's home are having no mother or father ($\bar{X} = 109.05$), and separated or divorced parents ($\bar{X} = 102.73$), are significantly higher than the reason for staying is neglect or abuse ($\bar{X} = 85.64$).

Table 3.3. The results of the standard deviation and variance analysis related to need satisfaction

Frequency of seeing mother	N	\bar{X}	SS	V.B	K.T	Sd	K.O	F	p
Several times a month	26	99.78	20.60	G.İ	41.470	2	20.73	.063	.939
Several times a year	27	98.01	20.89	G.A	26899.415	82	328.04		
Not seeing anymore	32	98.90	12.62	Total	26940.885	84			
Total	85	98.89	17.90						

level scores of adolescents staying children's home with regard to the frequency of seeing mother

As it is seen in the Table 3.3, the frequency of seeing mother does not constitute a significant difference on the need satisfaction level of the children ($F = .063$, $p > .05$).

Table 3.4. The results of the standard deviation and variance analysis related to need satisfaction

Frequency of seeing father	N	\bar{X}	SS	V.B	K.T	Sd	K.O	F	p
Several times a month	29	102.07	20.57	G.İ	41.470	2	20.73	.063	.939
Several times a year	23	97.87	17.28	G.A	26899.415	82	328.04		
Not seeing anymore	33	96.80	15.86	Total	26940.885	84			
Total	85	98.89	17.90						

level scores of adolescents staying children's home with regard to the frequency of seeing father

As it is seen in the Table 3.4, the frequency of seeing father does not constitute a significant difference on the need satisfaction level of the children ($F = .715$, $p > .05$).

Table 3.5. The results of the standard deviation and variance analysis related to need satisfaction

Frequency of seeing siblings	N	\bar{X}	SS	V.B	K.T	Sd	K.O	F	p
Several times a month	46	101.36	15.32	G.İ	3021.510	2	1510.75	5.179	.008
Several times a year	20	103.62	18.01	G.A	23919.375	82	291.70		
Not seeing anymore	19	87.91	19.98	Total	26940.885	84			
Total	85	98.89	17.90						

level scores of adolescents staying children's home with regard to the frequency of seeing siblings

As it is seen in the Table 3.5, the need satisfaction level of the children differs significantly with regard to the frequency of seeing siblings ($F_{82} = .715$, $p < .01$). When the test results were examined on the purpose of determining which groups the difference are resulted from, it is seen that the need satisfaction levels of those who do not see siblings at all ($\bar{X} = 87.91$) are significantly lower than the children who see siblings several times a month ($\bar{X} = 101.36$) and several times a year ($\bar{X} = 103.62$).

Table 3.6. The results of the standard deviation and t test related to need satisfaction level scores of adolescents staying children's home with regard to the friend relations

Friend Relations	N	\bar{X}	SS	sd	t	p
Quite good	21	102.96	15.3	83	2.061	.042
Good, rarely argue	64	95.09	18.1			

As it is seen in the Table 3.6, the need satisfaction level of the friendship relations constitute a significant difference on the need satisfaction levels ($t_{83} = 2.2062$, $p < .05$). When checked the aforementioned difference; It can be said that the need satisfaction levels of the adolescents whose

An Analysis of Need Satisfaction Levels of Children Staying in the Children's Home

friendship relations are quite good ($\bar{X} = 102.96$), is significantly higher than those who have good relations and rarely argue ($\bar{X} = 95.09$).

Table 3.7. The results of the standard deviation and t test related to need satisfaction level scores of adolescents living children's home with regard to having step mother, step-father and step-sibling the friend relations

Variables	Status of being adoptive	N	\bar{X}	SS	sd	t	p
Step mother	Yes	21	97.01	16.7	83	-.552	.582
	No	64	99.50	18.3			
Step father	Yes	21	90.71	15.3	83	-	.028*
	No	64	101.08	18.1			
Step-sibling	Yes	20	97.21	14.3	83	-.475	.636
	No	65	99.40	18.9			

As it is seen in the Table 3.7, it was found that the status of having step-mother and ($t_{83}=-.552$, $p>.05$) step-sibling ($t_{83}=-.475$, $p>.05$) does not constitute a meaningful difference; the status of having a step-father constitute a significant difference on the need satisfaction levels of the children.

Discussion

When examined the care services offered to children in need of protection today, children's homes replace the practices of orphans' asylum and nursery. This application enables children to feel themselves in the home environment, however; children may feel lonely, have compliance problems, and a low of future expectation. The absence of need satisfaction of the children may be effective in the appearance of these negative effects. Having a high level of need satisfaction can ensure children feel happier and safer. Therefore, it was studied in this research that, which variables could be effective in children's need satisfaction levels and the results of the research were discussed in related literature.

When examined the need satisfaction levels in regard to the duration of staying in children's home; It can be said that the scores of need satisfaction levels of the adolescents that stayed in children's homes for 4 years or more was significantly higher than the scores of the adolescents that stayed less than 1 year. This case indicates that, those who stay longer in the children's home are more adapted to the children's home environment and meet their needs at a higher level. Similarly, Kosay (2013) found that children's social skills did not differ significantly with respect to the duration of staying in children's home and nursery, Özyürek and Demiray (2010) found that there was not a significant difference between the duration of staying in dorm and the state anxiety and trait anxiety scores.

When examined the need satisfaction levels according to the reasons for living in children's home; it can be said that the scores of need satisfaction level of the adolescents whose reason for staying in children's home is neglect or abuse, are significantly lower than the ones whose reason is having no mother or father and separated or divorced parents. Neglect or abuse are the conditions that negatively affect adolescent development. Individuals who have been neglected or exploited, may fail in being independence, exhibiting their competence and establishing relationship with others. On the other hand, neglect or abuse by the child's own family members may leave deeper traces in his/her life. While Aral et al. (2006) found that the loneliness score average of those who stay in children's home because of divorce, is significantly higher than the parental death and economic reasons, Gursoy and Yildiz Bıçakçı (2005) found that the level of anxiety did not constitute a significant difference with regard to the reason for staying.

While it was determined that the frequency of seeing parents did not constitute a significant difference, it was found that the frequency of seeing siblings constitute a significant difference on the need satisfaction levels of the children. While Karabulut and Ulucan (2011) reported that the

frequency of seeing parents of the adolescents staying in orphans' asylum do not affect the level of problem solving skills, Tmkaya (2005) emphasized that the level of hopelessness of the adolescents decrease as long as the frequency of seeing parents increase. When examined the frequency of seeing siblings; It can be said that the need satisfaction levels of those who never see their siblings, are significantly lower than the ones who see their siblings a few times a month and several times a year. Since the children staying in the children's home develop a reaction to the parents and have the parental deprivation, when they are taken under protection, they often seek support from their siblings. The sibling relationships enable the child to develop socially and emotionally and to shape their behaviors by modeling each other (Lamb and Sutton-Smith, 2014, Howe and Recchia, 2006).

When examined the levels of need satisfaction according to friend relations; It can be said that the need satisfaction levels of adolescents who have a very good friend relationships are significantly higher than the ones who have good relationships and rarely argue. The difference set on behalf of adolescents with good relationships can be explained by the fact that those who have good relations can spend time with their friends and share their problems, thus they become more effective in dealing with problems and meeting their needs. While the friend relationships enable child's emotional and spiritual development and school achievement to increase, the children who do not have friends may face with emotional and mental difficulties in their life (Ferrer-Chancy and Fugate, 2007).

While it was determined that the status of having a step mother and a step sibling did not make a meaningful difference in the need satisfaction levels of the children, it was found that the status of having a step father had a meaningful difference on the level of need satisfaction level. Accordingly, it can be said that the need satisfaction level of the adolescents who do not have a stepfather is significantly higher than the adolescents who have a stepfather. This case may be due to the fact that the adolescents who share their mothers with another person, are disturbed and have the anxiety of sharing the love of their mother with another person or a half-brother. In his research that Aral (2000) conducted, determined that the anxiety of the children who lost their father was higher than the ones who lost their mother. In accordance with these findings, in order to increase the need satisfaction levels of the children;

It may be advisable that;

- To arrange programs that will increase communication and interaction with the parents of the adolescents staying in the children's home,
- To ensure the children to stay with their siblings if they are also taken under protection,
- To organize various activities and artistic activities for the adolescents staying in the children's home and to ensure them participate in such activities,
- To open vocational courses for adolescents staying in the children's home and to direct them to a profession,
- To enable the adolescents to establish a good relationship with their friends in their home by organizing communication seminars,
- To settle the children who have good friendship relationships in the same children's home.

References

- Aral, N. (2000). An Examination of Anxiety and Depression Levels of Children Experiencing and Not Experiencing the Death in Family, *Çağdaş Eğitim*, 25 (271), 23-32.
- Aral, N., Grsoy, F. and Yıldız Bıçakçı, M. (2006). An examination of the loneliness levels of female adolescents staying and not staying in the orphans' asylum, *Journal of Electronic Social Sciences*, 5 (15), 10-19.
- Berridge, D., Biehal, N., & Henry, L. (2012). Living in children's residential homes.
- Çelikkaleli, Ö. And Gndoğdu M. (2005). Psychological needs of the students of the Faculty of Education, *Journal of Education Faculty*, 6 (9), 43-53.
- Starring, Ö. (2015). An analysis of the effect of need satisfaction on positive tendencies in terms of bonding styles in regard to the theory of self-determination. Doctoral Thesis. Ataturk University Educational Sciences Institute, Erzurum.

- Children's homes inspection. (2016). <http://jamoses.co.uk/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/shaw-house.pdf>
- Cihangir-Çankaya, Z. and Bacanlı, H. (2003). The study of Validity and Reliability of the Need Satisfaction Scale. VII. National Council of Counseling and Guidance, Malatya.
- Ercoşkun, M. H. and Nalçacı, A. (2005). The Place and Importance of Psychological Needs in Teaching. Atatürk University Kazım Karabekir Faculty of Education Journal, 11.
- Gelen, İ. and Cinar, G. (2014). The Problems Stated by the Members of Samsun Association of Family Social Politics and Solutions, *International Social Research Journal*, 7 (35), 536-555.
- Gürsoy, F. ve Yıldız-Bıçakçı, M. (2005). Examination of the anxiety levels of the adolescents staying and not staying in the orphanages, *Contemporary Education Journal*, 323, 19-24.
- Gürsoy, F. and Aydoğdu, F. (2016). (Ed. Çamlı, A., Ak, B., Arabacı, R. and Efe, R.) Recent advances in health sciences. St. Kliment Ohridski University Press Sofia. ISBN 978-954-07-4136-9.
- Ferrer-Chancy, M., & Fugate, A. (2007). The importance of Friendship for School-Age Children.
- Howe, N., & Recchia, H. (2006). Sibling relations and their impact on children's development.
- Karabulut, E. O. and Ulucan, H. (2011). Analysis of the problem solving skills of the students staying in the orphanage in terms of various variables (sample of Kırşehir province), *Journal of Ahi Evran University Faculty of Education*, Volume 12, Issue 1, 227-238.
- Kosay, A. (2013). A Comparison of the social skills of children living with their parents and the children in need of protection staying in the nursery and in the children's home. Master Thesis. Dokuz Eylül University Educational Sciences Institute, İzmir.
- Lamb, M. E., & Sutton-Smith, B. (Eds.). (2014). Sibling relationships: Their nature and significance across the lifespan. Psychology Press.
- Morgan, R. (2009). Life in children's homes - a report of children's experiences by the Children's Rights Director for England. London: OFSTED.
- Oksal, A. (1986). The sources of our behaviors. Behavioral Sciences: 1 Ankara: Anadolu University Publications, No: 144.
- Özyürek, A. and Demiray, K. (2010). A Comparison of the anxiety levels of the secondary school students staying in the dormitory and with family, *Dogus University Journal*, 11 (2) 2010, 247-256.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55, 68-78.
- Tümekaya, S. (2005). A Comparison of the hopelessness levels of the adolescents living with their family and in the orphans' asylum, *Journal of Turkish Educational Sciences*, 3 (4), 431-443.
- Yasar, Ö. And Dagdelen, N. (2013). A study on the effect of transition from children's dormitory to children's homes on socio-cultural and psychological development of children in need of protection: sample of Isparta. Süleyman Demirel University Journal of Social Sciences Institute, 2 (18), 199-221.
- Yarkin, E. (2014). Examination of contribution of basic psychological needs level to relationship satisfaction and life satisfaction level. Master Thesis. Istanbul Arel University Social Sciences Institute, Istanbul.
- Yazıcı, E. (2012). Children in need of protection and children's homes, *Mustafa Kemal University Journal of Social Sciences*, 9 (18), 499-525.
- Yazıcı, E. (2013). Social services for children in need of protection in Turkey: a survey on the beneficiaries of institutional care services. Doctoral Thesis. Dokuz Eylül University Institute of Social Sciences, İzmir.

Implementing a Program Based on Integrated Education Approach in Teacher Education

Zeynep Akin Demircan

Introduction

Teachers have important responsibilities in the development of the country, in upbringing skilled manpower, in maintaining peace and social harmony of the community, in the socialization and preparation of the individuals to social life, and in the transfer of community's culture and values to future generations (Ozden, 1999, p.114). In addition, teachers are affected from the research studies, which may run and affect the outcomes (Varış, 1973). Therefore, qualified teachers are needed for high quality education. Since teachers' attitudes, behaviors and traits that affect students are shaped according to the education that they have taken, the qualification of the teachers highly depends on the quality of the education that they had (Kucukahmet, 1995, p.134). This fact requires focusing on education services offered in teacher education programs and adapting these services to the era and to the needs of the community. In order to achieve an education that will allow teachers to have the qualities of the age and social needs, various models should be tested and the most appropriate model should be identified.

To be successful in the schools whose language of instruction is English, learners, who are not native English, should be sufficient in terms of English grammar and vocabulary, and use English effectively. At this point, the use of integrated education approach, which envision systematic implantation of language and content objectives into the subject areas such as algebra, biology, etc., is suggested for the schools and education programs to integrate language and content instruction (Short, 2000, p.11). The integrated education approach can be defined as the specific academic education, which is designed in English, allowing the achievement of the core program objectives using the techniques that make the course easier to understand for the learners. It was emphasized that in this training process, content knowledge and language proficiency are developed together (Echevarria, 1995; by: Read, 2009, p.57). Integrated education approach provides learners with the knowledge and skills that they need to complete their education, as well as allowing them to benefit from the language support service that they need for learning English, for a longer time period. In order to implement integrated education approach effectively, language and content objectives should be inserted systematically into the education programs belonging to the content areas that are applied in all relevant grade levels (Evhevarria, Vogt and Short, 2004, s.11-13).

In this research, it was aimed to determine the effectiveness of the curriculum of "Instructional Technologies and Material Design (ITMD)" course, which has been developed according to integrated program approach in teacher education. The following questions were addressed in the research:

1. What are the opinions of pre-service teachers about the effectiveness of the computer programs/software that were used during the performance of ITMD course curriculum that has been developed according to integrated program approach?
2. What are the opinions of pre-service teachers about the effectiveness of the content covered in ITMD course curriculum that has been developed according to integrated program approach?
3. What are the opinions of pre-service teachers about the effectiveness of the instruction process of ITMD course?

1. Research Method

The research was designed according to case study method, which is a qualitative research method. Case study is a research model that examines a current phenomenon/event within its actual context (Yin, 1984; by: Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008). In this research, a 4-week performance was planned for ITMD course, using integrated program approach.

Implementing a Program Based on Integrated Education Approach in Teacher Education

In the research, the teaching process of ITMD course designed according to integrated education approach was performed as two parts. The first part was conducted by the researcher, in the classroom, using the computer programs/software to introduce the topics selected for ITMD course. The second part was conducted in the computer laboratory, by a faculty member of Computer Education and Instructional Technology Department. During the second part of the performance, computer programs/software used to teach ITMD course topics were introduced and pre-service teachers were asked to design an instruction material to be used in teaching primary school mathematic course. Within the scope of this course, it was intended to integrate ITMD course with information technologies.

The topics covered within the scope of ITMD course and the programs/software used to present these topics are displayed in Table 1:

Table 1. Content of ITMD Course

Week	Topic	Computer Programs/software
1	Instruction Design	Presentation/Video (Powtoon)
2	Use of Material in Education	Banner preparation software (Glogster)
3	Use of Technology in Education	Concept Map Software (Gliffy)
4	Evaluation of teaching materials	Evaluation software (Quizlet)

1.1. Workgroup

Criteria sampling method was used to determine the workgroup of the research. Criteria sampling is based on studying the cases that fulfill a set of pre-determined criteria. These criteria may either be set by the researcher, or a criteria list can be used (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2013, 140). This research was conducted with the participation of 38 pre-service teachers from Elementary Mathematics Education, Undergraduate Program (second-year students), who have completed Computer I-II courses and attending ITMD course.

1.2. Data Collection and Analysis

In this research, which was conducted to determine the the effectiveness of the curriculum of “Instructional Technologies and Material Design (ITMD)” course that has been developed according to integrated program approach, an evaluation form that has been prepared by the researcher was used. The evaluation form was given to pre-service teachers after the completion of the course instruction, and they were asked to evaluate the programs/software used during the instruction of ITMD course, the content of the course and the instruction process.

Descriptive analysis technique, which is the categorization of the data obtained from the research according to pre-determined themes (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008, 204), was used for the analysis of the research data. In this research, the themes were set according to research questions and quotations from the opinion of pre-service teachers were displayed.

2. Findings and Result

In this section, the opinions of pre-service teachers, who participated in the research, about ITMD course curriculum, which was developed according to integrated education approach, are outlined under the following titles: “Pre-service Teachers’ Opinions about Computer Programs/Software Used in ITMD Course Instruction Process”, “Pre-service Teachers’ Opinions about the Topics Covered in ITMD Course Instruction Process” and “Pre-service Teachers’ Opinions about ITMD Course Instruction Process”

2.1. Pre-service Teachers’ Opinions about Computer Programs/Software Used in ITMD Course Instruction Process

The findings reached through the analysis of the data obtained from the evaluation form applied for determining pre-service teachers’ opinions about the effectiveness of the computer programs/software used in the ITMD course are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Pre-service Teachers' Opinions about the Effectiveness of the Computer Programs/Software Used in ITMD Course

Themes
Positive Opinions
Useful
Practical
Enjoyful/nice
Negative Opinions
Unpractical
Not useful
Boring
No answer

The analysis of the data obtained from the interviews conducted with pre-service teachers showed that pre-service teachers' opinions about the computer programs/software used in ITMD course are grouped under "positive opinions" and "negative opinions" themes. The opinions covered under positive opinions theme are distributed among "useful", "practical" and "enjoyful/nice" sub-themes. The examples of statements from pre-service teachers who stated that computer programs/software used in the performance were useful are as below:

P3: "It is a program necessary and suitable for preparing animation. With its diversity, we can get different outcomes in terms of content"

P2: "I liked the banner software very much. I think this kind of materials are quite attractive in the classroom".

P25: "Providing preliminary information through a map at the beginning of the topic is useful"

P12: "With this program, we can get students' interest through small applications"

The opinions of pre-service teachers, who think that computer programs/software used in the instruction process of ITMD course were practical, are as below:

P4: "It is more interesting than other presentation software. It is not difficult to memorize. I can get students' interest through such presentations"

P17: "Glogster is an easy-to-use program that may be useful. I've not seen such a program before. It can be used optionally"

P24: "Gliffy is required at the end of the course for better understanding of the topic and making connections with previous knowledge. The preparation is quite simple and it allows us to show the knowledge that we want to teach more effectively, in a shorter time period"

P1: "It is a practical program for mathematics. It will help to the performance of an effective course"

Pre-service teachers who found the computer programs/software used in the application as enjoyable/nice expressed their opinions as below:

P10: "It is an effective and enjoyable software for material preparation"

P12: "It is a highly entertaining program in terms of visuals. At the same time, it is informative"

P9: "It is an easy application. It doesn't take time and it is colorful, which makes it attention-grabbing. I enjoyed working on this program"

P26: "The software is amusing and not boring. Therefore, it was enjoyable to me and I think it is usable"

The negative opinions of pre-service teachers about the computer programs/software that were used in the instruction process of ITMD course are differentiated under "unpractical", "not-useful", and "boring" sub-themes. The statements of pre-service teachers who think that computer programs/software used in the instruction were unpractical are as below:

P13: "I encountered difficulties in the preparation phase. It was difficult to arrange the timing. Finally, when it was completed, it didn't result with an entertaining material. I think it is more effective for primary school classes"

P22: "It is difficult to use, an unnecessary application. Other programs, even point can be used instead of it"

Implementing a Program Based on Integrated Education Approach in Teacher Education

P1: "It is not practical. It is not too complex, however I had difficulties in preparing a concept map"

P33: "There are many similar applications in the web. I don't think it is practical"

The opinions of pre-service teachers who think that computer programs/software used in ITMD course were not useful are as below:

P14: "... but the program has an intrinsic problem – standing next to the computer while making presentation. In addition, it was difficult to prepare a presentation in powtoon. It takes too much time"

P5: "I don't think it would add much to students. It doesn't include knowledge"

The examples of statements from pre-service teachers who stated that computer programs/software used in the instruction process of ITMD course were boring are as below:

P6: "An amusing program but it is a bit boring. Because the person who prepare it may encounter difficulties while preparing"

The opinions of pre-service teachers, who have participated in the research, about the computer programs/software used in the instruction process of ITMD course, which has been prepared according to integrated education approach, were analyzed. Pre-service teachers stated that they found these programs/software practical, useful and enjoyable, indicating that computer programs/software used in the instruction process were different and interesting; they allowed the use visual elements (picture, video); and they may support the instruction. But other pre-service teachers, who have participated in the research, stated that the computer programs/software used in the instruction process were not attractive enough and they encountered difficulties in preparing instruction materials with them.

2.2. Pre-service Teachers' Opinions about the Topics Covered in ITMD Course Instruction Process

The findings reached through the analysis of the data obtained from the evaluation form applied for determining pre-service teachers' opinions about the topics covered in ITMD course instruction process are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Pre-service Teachers' Opinions about the Topics Covered in ITMD Course Instruction Process

Themes
Positive Opinions
Important / useful
Sufficient
Interesting
Negative Opinions
Boring
No answer

The opinions of pre-service teachers who have participated in the research, about the topics of ITMD course covered in the lectures were analyzed. Pre-service teachers' opinions about the topics set for the first-week of ITMD course are grouped under "positive opinions" and "negative opinions" themes. The opinions of pre-service teacher who have positive opinions about the first week of test application are differentiated under "important/useful", "sufficient" and "interesting" sub-themes. The examples of statements from pre-service teachers, who stated that the topic selected for the first week of the test application was important/useful, are as below:

P11: "Models and design steps are important for teaching. This is a topic that should be known"

P6: "It was a course necessary for us and it was instructed beautifully"

P29: "It was a useful topic in terms of remembering how the materials should be"

P6: "As educators, we should have a grasp of technology. Therefore, it was a course required for us"

The examples of statements from pre-service teachers who stated that the topic covered within the content of ITMD course was sufficient are as below:

P19: "It was emphasized enough. I understood it and I feel confident to transfer my knowledge."

P15: "It should be a useful topic because it consists of the development and use of some materials that allows better and more entertaining instruction of some educational topics to the students"

The example of statements from pre-service teachers who stated that the topic covered within the content of ITMD course was interesting are as below:

P23: "The topic of this week was interesting."

The opinions of pre-service teachers who stated negative opinions about the topics covered in the content of the application are grouped under "boring" sub-theme. The examples of statements from pre-service teachers who stated that the topic emphasized in the first week of the test application was boring are as below:

P36: "Lecture of the topic should have been kept shorter."

P8: "The content was good. The instruction may be more attractive, more effective"

P8: "The topic was boring. Since the program was not entertaining we get bored a lot"

P2: "The topic was too theoretical."

The opinions of pre-service teachers, who have participated in the research, about the topics covered in the curriculum of ITMD course, which has been prepared according to integrated education approach, were analyzed. Pre-service teachers stated that they found the topic covered in ITMD course important/useful, sufficient and interesting, indicating that the topics emphasized in the instruction process of ITMD course will make contributions to their future professional life and will help to facilitate teaching process. But some pre-service teachers, who have participated in the research, stated that the topics emphasized in the ITMD course were boring because the presentation was not effective, they had previous knowledge about the topics and the topics were theoretical.

2.3. Pre-service Teachers' Opinions about ITMD Course Instruction Process

The findings reached through the analysis of the data obtained from the evaluation form applied for determining pre-service teachers' opinions about the instruction process of ITMD course, which was prepared according to integrated education approach, are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Pre-service Teachers' Opinions about ITMD Course Instruction Process

Themes
Positive Opinions
Effective
Negative Opinions
Boring
No answer

The opinions of pre-service teachers, who have participated in the test application, about the instruction process were analyzed according to week of application. Pre-service teachers' opinions about the instruction process are grouped under "positive opinions" and "negative opinions" themes. The opinions of pre-service teachers who have positive opinions about the first week of test application are grouped under "effective" sub-theme.

The examples of statements from pre-service teachers who stated that the instruction process of first test application was effective are as below:

P15: "You gave an hourglass to fill out a paper about what we were thinking before and after the course. Thanks to this application, we tried to pay more attention in the lecture to be able to write something on the paper, which was entertaining and useful for us"

P6: "The concept map that we formed at the beginning and after the lecture was very good. I think this is a good application".

P15: "Showing examples using technology was useful"

P24: "It was a useful lecture. It gave an idea about the tests that we'll make to our students"

The opinions of pre-service teacher who have negative opinions about the instruction process of ITMD course are placed under "boring" sub-theme.

Implementing a Program Based on Integrated Education Approach in Teacher Education

The examples of statements from pre-service teachers who stated that the instruction process was boring are as below:

P35: "I think application courses should start directly. Theory lessons should be given in the form of note"

P27: "The lecture was good. But instructing a subject that we know from everyday life so long was unnecessary."

P6: "The concept map included in the course application was very boring. It could be instructed more leanly. It was a bit boring because we've more or less grasp about the topic"

P2: "It was boring because it was theoretical. Usually students don't like to make definitions."

The opinions of pre-service teachers, who have participated in the research, about the instruction process of ITMD course, which has been prepared according to integrated education approach, were analyzed. It was found that pre-service teachers have found instruction process of ITMD course effective because of the factors such as including different teaching methods and techniques, allowing active participation of the students in the teaching process, and allowing students to speak and share their opinions. On the other hand, some pre-service teachers have found the course boring because they don't enjoy verbal lessons, the topics covered in the teaching process were already-known, some computer programs/software used in the instruction process were not liked.

Conclusion

In this research, it was aimed to determine the effectiveness of the curriculum of "Instructional Technologies and Material Design (ITMD)" course, which has been developed according to integrated program approach in teacher education. For this purpose, a 4-week application was carried out with pre-service teachers from undergraduate program of elementary mathematics education. As a result of the analysis of the data obtained from the evaluation form used for collecting data, it was revealed that pre-service teachers who participated in the study, find the computer programs/software used in the instruction process of ITMD course useful and practical; they find the topics covered in the instruction process important/useful; and find the instruction process effective. However, it was found that some pre-service teachers stated negative opinions about computer programs/software used in ITMD course, covered topics and instruction process of the course that has been prepared according to integrated education approach because they encountered difficulties in using the computer programs/software presented in ITMD course, they had prior knowledge of the topics addressed in the instruction process and the course was verbal.

In future studies, the effectiveness should be checked by using different computer programs/software. The content should be improved by diversifying the topics covered within ITMD course, the appropriateness of integrated education approach should be examined using this approach for the integration of different fields/courses of teacher training.

References

- Echevarria, J.; Vogt, M. E. ve Short, D. (2004). Making content comprehensible for English learners: SIOP model. Boston: Pearson Hall.
- Küçükahmet, L., (1995). Öğretim ilke ve yöntemleri. Ankara: Gazi Kitabevi.
- Özden, Y. (1999). Eğitimde dönüşüm eğitimde yeni değerler. Ankara: Pegem A Yayınları.
- Read, F. D. (2008). The impact of the sheltered instruction observation protocol (SIOP) on the instructional practices of elementary school teachers and on the reading achievement of English language learners. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation thesis). Wilmington University.
- Short, D. (2000). What principles should know about sheltered instruction for English language learners. National Association of Secondary School Principals, 84 (619), 1-27.
- Variş, F. (1973). Eğitimde program geliştirme. Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi Basımevi.
- Yıldırım, A. ve Şimşek, H. (2008). Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri. Ankara: Seçkin Yayınevi.

Role of Interpersonal Competence in Predicting Psychological Well-Being

Esra Asici, Fatma Ebru Ikiz

1. Introduction

In recent years, the researchers have focused on positive aspects of mental health and positive functioning. Well-being has become a popular concept in psychology field and individual differences on well-being have investigated. Although there are two types of well-being, only the type of subjective well-being is predominantly known and studied. Although the type of psychological well-being (PWB) is important for individuals at any age, this concept hasn't been studied enough, in particular, there are very little researches about PWB among college students (Bowman, 2010). College students may experience stress and difficulties because of the transition to higher education, the vocational and academic pressures, differentiating relationships, time management, and financial worries (Mane Abhay, Krishnakumar, Niranjana Paul, & Hiremath Shashidhar, 2011; Cooke, Bewick, Barkham, Bradley, & Audin, 2006) and this may put their mental or physical health at risk. Already, there are studies revealing psychological problems among college students (Abdallah & Gabr, 2014; Morahan-Martin & Schumacher, 2000; Zivin, Eisenberg, Gollust & Golberstein, 2009). Therefore, to examine and promote PWB among the youth is of great value (Klainin-Yobas et al., 2016).

1.1. Theoretical Background

PWB which has emerged after the studies of Ryff (1989a,b) and Ryan and Deci (2000, 2001) derived from eudaimonic view which claimed that well-being comprises more than just happiness (Ryan & Deci, 2001) and includes a sense of life satisfaction, personal growth and flourishing (Diaz, Stavrakaki, Blanco, & Gandarillas, 2015). PWB is basically related to the actualization of human potentials, fulfilling and realizing one's daimon or true nature (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Singer, 2008). Ryff (1989a), who dealt comprehensively with PWB, indicated that many theories on life-span development, personal growth and mental health focused on similar features of well-being, in particular, emphasized six dimensions (self-acceptance, positive relations with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life and personal growth) as major points of positive functioning. *Self-acceptance* refers to positive attitudes toward multiple aspects of oneself including good and bad qualities and one's life. *Positive relations with others* speaks of the importance of warm, satisfying, trusting interpersonal relations; capable of strong empathy, affection and intimacy. *Autonomy* includes the ability to resist social pressures to think or act in certain ways; to evaluate oneself by personal standards; to regulate behavior from within; self-determination and independence. *Environmental mastery* means manipulation and control of the environment, mastery, competence, active participation in a significant sphere of human activity and being capable of choosing and creating context suitable to personal needs and values. *Purpose in life* describes having goals of being productive, changing the world creatively and exercising leadership capacities; having a clear comprehension of life's purpose, a sense of directedness, and intentionality. *Personal growth* contains being open to new experiences, willingness of continuing to develop one's potential, to grow and expand as a person (Ryff, 1989a, 1989b, 1995, 2014; Ryff, Magee, Kling & Wing, 1999; Ryff & Singer, 2008).

Researchers focused on how PWB relates to individual differences. There are significant differences between PWB levels of females and males (Aboalshamat, Hou & Strodl, 2015; Bowman, 2010; Cooke et. al., 2006; Kally, 2015; Ludban & Gitimu, 2015; Roothman, Kirsten & Wissing, 2003; Ryff, 1989b; 1995; Ryff, et. al., 1999) however, the effect of gender changes according to dimensions of PWB. For example, the study conducted by Ludban and Gitimu (2015) showed that females scored higher than males in personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. In a different study, Kally (2015) found that males had higher autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life and self-acceptance. PWB is associated with economic status. Individuals with

higher income have more indicators of PWB (Aboalshamat, Hou, & Strodl, 2015; Bowman, 2010; Ludban & Gitimu, 2015; Shields & Price, 2005). Marital status (Aboalshamat, Hou & Strodl, 2015; Glenn, 1975; Kim & McKenry, 2002) and marital happiness (Glenn, 1975) are related to PWB. Generally the individuals who are married and have marital happiness have higher PWB. However, Ludban and Gutimi (2015) found that there were no differences between married and non-married college students' PWB levels. Besides, the effect of marital status may differ depending on dimensions of PWB. For example, Marks (1996) found that separated or divorced and never-married person had higher autonomy than their married peers. Also, separated or divorced women had higher personal growth. Mindfulness, self-efficacy (Klainin-Yobas et al., 2016) social support (Klainin-Yobas et al., 2016; Wang & Castaneda-Sound, 2008); social skills, (Segrin & Taylor, 2007; Segrin, Hanzal, Donnerstein, Taylor & Domschke, 2007); perfectionism, stress (Chang, 2006) and self-esteem (Wang & Castaneda-Sound, 2008) are seen as variables related to PWB.

Bowman (2010) indicated that PWB may change in response to life transition such as marriage or moving to a new residence. Especially, in first years, adjusting to the college environment presents a host of new challenges for students. Many students are moving from their home for the first time, so they must rely on themselves more for managing academics, socializing, and other aspects of their lives. As a result of these new life conditions college students may face many difficulties (Cooke et al. 2006) and experience intensive stress. Besides, in emerging adulthood basic social need focuses on interpersonal relations (Santrock, 2011). Social interaction becomes increasingly consequential for youth. In terms of college students, having interpersonal competence is very important, because young adults separate from their families of origin and develop new interpersonal relationship. (Armistead, Forehand, Beach & Brody, 1995). Deprivation of social skills which is required to develop meaningful relations with others causes damage to one's personality (Santrock, 2011). In brief, together with difficulties related to college life, the presence of problems about relations with others may cause that PWB levels of college students go from bad worse.

Interpersonal competence (IC) is a concept referring to interpersonal skills in social interactions. According to Buhrmester, Furman, Wittenberg and Reis (1988), IC consists of five domains in peer relationships: *initiation of interactions and relationships* (willingness to starting new relations and interactions), *assertion of personal rights and displeasure with others* (to assert personal rights in disagreements with others), *self-disclosure of personal information* (sharing personal information with other peoples), *emotional supports of others* (to help others to solve their problems and comfort them) and *management of interpersonal conflicts* (coping effectively with interpersonal disagreements).

The young person, who is deprive of IC, may experience difficulty in establishing close relationships and maintaining them (Buhrmester, 1990) and thus, they have been identified as having difficulties in a variety of areas (Armistead, Forehand, Beach & Brody, 1995). Deficits in interpersonal or social skills during emerging adulthood are related to difficulties about transtioning into college (Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan & Majeski, 2004) and being vulnerable to psychosocial problems such as depression, loneliness and social anxiety (Segrin & Flora, 2000; Segrin et al, 2007). Young adults' social competence is closely related with indices of psychological functioning (Larson, Whitton, Hauser & Allen, 2007).

The capable of reading other people's emotional states, communicating their ideas and feelings and managing their own emotional states in social situations leave a positive impression on other people and as a result of this experience, they may easily build successful relationships with other people. Individuals, who have positive relationship with others, may evaluate their quality of life and mastery of the environment positively. So, they may have high PWB level (Segrin & Taylor, 2007). Positive interactions with others consistently promote higher PWB, whereas hostile or negative interactions lead to significant decreases on all dimensions (Bowman, 2010). High level IC may facilitate success in dating and romantic domain, and as a result, it may be associated with higher life satisfaction among youth (Adamczyk & Segrin, 2016). Therefore, the first hypothesis of current research was determined as following:

H1: *There is a significant positive correlation between psychological well-being and interpersonal competence. Interpersonal competence is a significant predictor of psychological well being levels of college*

students.

Because there is little research on PWB among college students, we wanted to investigate the effects of individual characteristics and differences related to PWB levels of college students. For this, we chose gender, economic status and romantic relation status as independent variables. Aforementioned studies revealed that there is difference between PWB levels of females and males; however the difference, in favor of whom, is unclear. Thus, we thought that determining of the relation between gender and PWB in terms of Turkish college students will be beneficial. We recently found that there was no significant difference between Turkish female and male college students in terms of depression, anxiety, negative self (Ikiz, Savci, Asici & Yoruk, 2015) and happiness (Asici & Ikiz, 2015). Therefore, by contrast with previous findings on PWB we hypothesized that:

H2: There will not be significant difference between psychological well-being levels of female and male college students.

PWB is closely related to self-actualization. In Maslow's hierarchy of basic needs, physical needs take place in first step. To advance final step in Maslow's pyramid, self-actualization, the individual have to satisfy physical needs (Weiten, Hammer & Dunn, 2016). Financial gain is a tool for meeting some physical needs such as hunger, harboring. Besides, in college life, there are many social activities or personal growth courses which help students to socialize and develop personally. Financial well-being may provide an opportunity to participate these activities or courses. So, youth may give meaning to their life through these activities and courses. Therefore, in parallel with previous research, it was hypothesized that:

H3: The college students with higher economic status will have higher PWB level than students with lower economic status.

In emerging adulthood period which romantic relations gain importance, to break up with romantic partner brings about negative consequences (Santrock, 2011). Many study investigated effect of marital status; however, romantic relation status, which is important in terms of youth, was neglected. The college students, who are in a romantic relation, may higher PWB level, as a result of meeting a developmental need. Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

H4: College students who have a romantic relation will have higher PWB level than students who haven't a romantic relationship.

There is a need to explore factors related to PWB among college students. This paper handles the concept of PWB among college students and basically aims to determine the predictive role of interpersonal competence (IC) on PWB. Besides, how individual characteristics and differences relate to PWB will be examined.

2. Method

2.1. Research Design and Participants

This study was designed according to predictive correlational research model. The sample consisted of 366 college students who studied at Faculty of Buca Education, Izmir, Turkey. The sample was chosen because of convenience. The distribution of sample according to demographic characteristics was presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Sample

		n	%
Gender	Female	225	61.5
	Male	141	38.5
How do you describe your economic status?	Low	35	9.6
	Medium	303	82.8
	High	28	7.7
Do you have a romantic relationship?	Yes, I have	148	40.4
	No, I haven't	218	59.6
Age average: 21.07		Age range: 17--47	

2.2. Research Instruments

Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWBS): The original PWBS was developed by Deiner and his colleagues (2009, 2010) with 8 item based on 7-point Likert type. It aims to evaluate the level of social-psychological well-being of person. The adaptation study of the scale was carried out by Telef (2013). In the adaptation study fit indices were found as, RMSEA= .08, SRMR= .04, GFI= .96, NFI= .94, RFI=.92, CFI= .95 and IFI= .95. The internal reliability of the scale was calculated as .80.

Interpersonal Competence Questionnaire Short Form (ICQ-SF): The original scale was developed by Buhrmester, Furman, Wittenberg and Reis (1988) with 40 items based on 5-point Likert type. It is used to measure interpersonal skills of individuals in social relations. It contains five sub dimensions (initiating relationships, emotional support, asserting influence, self-disclosure and conflict management). The adaptation study of ICQ-SF was conducted by Sahin ve Gizir (2013). The results of explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis showed that ICQ-SF with 25 items had five-factor structure as the original scale ($X^2=441.40$, $X^2/sd=1.77$, RMSEA=.036, AGFI=.93, GFI=.94, CFI=.96, SRMR=.049). The cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated as .82 for initiating relationships, .81 for emotional support, .79 for asserting influence, .74, for self-disclosure and .83 for conflict management.

Personal Information Form: The demographic characteristics of sample were identified with a personal information form which was prepared by researcher.

2.3. Procedure and Data Analysis

The research instruments were applied by the first researcher in lessons. The implementation of questionnaires took approximately 15 minutes. The obtained data was summarized with descriptive statistics, mean and standard deviation for continuous variables and number and percentage for categorical variables. The normal distribution of data was tested with Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test, skewness and kurtosis coefficients, histograms, P-P and Q-Q Plots. Data analysis was performed with SPSS 22.00 statistical packet program and significance level was accepted as .05. In data analysis, independent t test, one-way ANOVA, Pearson correlation coefficient and multiple linear regression analysis were used.

3. Findings

Table 2 Mean, Standard Deviation and Minimum Maximum Values

		Std. Dev.	Min. Max.
Initiating relationships	15.94	4.22	5-25
Emotional support	19.49	3.39	5-25
Asserting influence	17.01	3.60	5-25
Self-disclosure	14.29	4.07	5-25
Conflict management	17.46	17.46	5-25
Psychological well-being	42.71	7.66	12-56

As can be seen in Table 2, in terms of interpersonal competence, the participants generally had scores which were slightly above the average. While, the students had highest mean score on emotional support ($\bar{X} = 19.49$), they had lowest mean score on self-disclosure ($\bar{X} = 14.29$). Parallel, in terms of psychological well-being ($\bar{X} = 42.71$), the participants had scores which were above the average.

Table 3. The Correlation between IC and PWB

		Sub dimensions of IC				
		Initiating relationships	Emotional support	Asserting influence	Self-disclosure	Conflict management
	r	.395	.369	.326	.175	.442
PWB	p	.001*	.001*	.001*	.001*	.001*
	n	366	366	366	366	366

* $p < .05$, Pearson Correlation Coefficients was used.

As can be seen in Table 3, there were statistically significant linear and positive correlations among psychological well-being and initiating relationships ($r = .395$, $p < .05$), emotional support ($r = .369$, $p < .05$), asserting influence ($r = .326$, $p < .05$), self-disclosure ($r = .175$, $p < .05$) and conflict management ($r = .442$, $p < .05$) scores of college students.

Table 4. The Results of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

	B	Std. Error	β	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	18.222	2.303		7.911	.000		
Initiating relationships	.435	.098	0,242	4.448	.001*	.672	1.488
Emotional support	.197	.124	0,088	1.594	.112	.646	1.548
Asserting influence	.246	.084	0.0145	2.914	.004*	.797	1.254
Self-disclosure	-.121	.095	-0,065	-1.274	.204	.766	1.306
Conflict management	.603	.117	0.0277	5.155	.001*	.687	1.455

$F_{(5,360)} = 28.877$, $p = .001$, $R = 0.535$, $R^2 = 0.276$

As can be seen in Table 4, the regression model was significant ($F_{5,360} = 28.877$, $p < .05$). Accordingly, sub dimensions of interpersonal competence (initiating relationships, emotional support, asserting influence, self-disclosure and conflict management) showed statistically significant association with psychological well-being ($R = .535$, $R^2 = .0276$). Initiating relationships, emotional support, asserting

influence, self-disclosure and conflict management, all together, explained 27.6 % of change on psychological well-being levels of college students. According to standardized regression coefficients, the importance of the predictive variables is found as conflict management, initiating relationships, asserting influence, emotional support and self-disclosure respectively. When regression coefficients (β) about independent variables were examined, it was seen that initiating relationships ($t=4.448$, $p<.05$), asserting influence ($t=2.914$, $p<.05$) and conflict management ($t=5.155$, $p<.05$) had impact on psychological well-being. So, initiating relationships, asserting influence and conflict management were significant predictors of psychological well-being. One unit increase on initiating relationships score, lead to .435 increases on psychological well-being score. When asserting influence score increases 1 unit, psychological well-being score increase .246. Finally, when conflict management score increases 1 unit, psychological well-being score increases .603.

According to gender, there wasn't statistically significant difference between female and male college students' PWB mean scores ($p=.226$). Similarly, there wasn't statistically significant difference between the students who said "I have a romantic relationship" and "I haven't a romantic relationship" ($p=.220$).

According to the results of one-way ANOVA, PWB mean scores of college students differentiated depending on economic status, too ($p=.001$). When the economic status rise, PWB mean scores of college students increase. The mean score of college students reported economic status as low ($\bar{X}=36.94$) was lower than those who reported economic status as medium ($\bar{X}=43.27$) or high ($\bar{X}=43.18$).

4. Discussion

Our first hypothesis was corrected. PWB were positively associated with initiating relationships, emotional support, asserting influence, self-disclosure and conflict management dimensions of IC. Also, initiating relationships, emotional support, asserting influence, self-disclosure and conflict management, all together, explained 27.6 % of change on psychological well-being levels of college students. Initiating relationships, asserting influence and conflict management were significant predictive of psychological well-being. Accordingly, we can say that the development of IC promotes higher PWB. This finding is supportive of studies which found that PWB was associated with social skills (Segrin & Taylor, 2007; Segrin et. al., 2007). The warm, satisfying, trusting interpersonal relations and capable of strong empathy, affection and intimacy are important aspects of PWB (Ryff, 1989a, 1989b, 1995, 2014; Ryff, Magee, Kling & Wing, 1999; Ryff & Singer, 2008). Also, close relation with others is requirement for healthy development of college students. Obtained findings may interpret that students with higher IC may easily develop meaningful relations with others, and as a result their PWB levels increase. The biggest effect on PWB belonged to conflict management skills. The college students, who have developed conflict resolution and management skills, may easily understand emotions of other peoples, manage their negative feelings, and produce a solution for conflict by without damaging the relationship. Hostile or negative interactions causes decrease on PWB (Bowman, 2010), conflict management skills may help to getting rid of hostile or negative feelings and so it can be a protector for PWB. Emotional support was not significant predictor. It is interesting because, emotional support means helping others to solve their problems and comfort them (Buhrmester, Furman, Wittenberg and Reis, 1988) and it may be expected that youths with high emotional support skills are more succeed in establishing and maintaining positive relations. Similarly, self-disclosure was not a significant factor in predicting PWB. Next studies may focus why emotional support and self-disclosure dimensions of IC is not effective on PWB.

The second hypothesis was corrected. Contrary to previous studies, in current study there weren't significant difference between female and male college students' PWB levels (Aboalshamat, Hou & Strodl, 2015; Bowman, 2010; Cooke et. al., 2006; Kally, 2015; Ludban & Gitimu, 2015; Roothman, Kirsten & Wissing, 2003; Ryff, 1989b; 1995; Ryff, et. al., 1999). The discrepancy among findings may be due to that most of the previous studies were conducted with different age groups, and used different research instruments, and the effect of gender on PWB may change depending on demographic characteristics such as age, marital status. Also, culture and the differences of gender roles in different culture may affect the relation between gender and PWB. As indicated that above,

we determined that gender was not related to psychological symptoms and happiness levels of Turkish college students (Asici & Ikiz, 2015; Ikiz, Savci, Asici & Yoruk, 2015) and obtained finding is supportive our previous findings.

The third hypothesis was corrected. Economic status was related to PWB levels of college students. When economic well-being rose, correspondingly, PWB levels of college students increased. The finding is parallel with previous findings (Aboalshamat, Hou, & Strodl, 2015; Bowman, 2010; Ludban & Gitimu, 2015; Shields & Price, 2005). Unless physiological needs fulfillment, it can't be expected that an individual actualize oneself. Youth from higher economic status may easily fulfill their physiological needs and as a conclusion, they may have more indicator of PWB. In current study we asked participants how they perceive their economic status. Next studies may investigate the relation between net income and PWB. Also, there can be factors mediating relation between economic status and PWB. Next studies may focus on determining possible mediator factors.

Our final hypothesis was not corrected. Indeed, in emerging adulthood period which close and romantic relations gain importance, we expected that college students who had a romantic relationship had higher PWB; but current finding didn't meet our expectation. According to this result, it can be thought that the quality or duration of romantic relationship, shares in romantic relationships may be more important for high PWB among college students, rather than just having a romantic relationship or not. In parallel with this thought, in literature it is seen that not only marital status but also marital happiness have important impact on PWB (Glenn, 1975).

It is obvious that, higher social or interpersonal skills promote higher PWB level among college students. For counselors, who serve in higher education institutions, to develop students' interpersonal competence and generate higher PWB, conducting individual or group counseling is suggested.

5. References

- Abdallah, A. R., & Gabr, H. M. (2014). Depression, anxiety and stress among first year medical students in an Egyptian public university. *International Research Journal of Medicine and Medical Science*, 2(1),11-19.
- Aboalshamat, K., Hou, X. Y., & Strodl, E. (2015). Psychological well-being status among medical and dental students in Makkah, Saudi Arabia: A cross-sectional study. *Medical Teacher*, 37(sup1), S75-S81. doi: 10.3109/0142159X.2015.10006612
- Adamczyk, K., & Segrin, C. (2016). The mediating role of romantic desolation and dating anxiety in the association between interpersonal competence and life satisfaction among polish young adults. *Journal of Adult Development*, 23(1), 1-10.
- Armistead, L., Forehand, R., Beach, S. R., & Brody, G. H. (1995). Predicting interpersonal competence in young adulthood: The roles of family, self, and peer systems during adolescence. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 4(4), 445-460.
- Asici, E., & Ikiz, F. E. (2015). Mutluluğa giden bir yol: Bilişsel Esneklik [A pathway to happiness: Cognitive Flexibility]. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy University Journal of Education Faculty*, 1(35), 191-211.
- Bowman, N. A. (2010). The development of psychological well-being among first-year college students. *Journal of College Students Development*, 51(2), 180-200. doi: 10.1353/csd.0.0118
- Buhrmester, D. (1990). Intimacy of friendship, interpersonal competence, and adjustment during preadolescence and adolescence. *Child Development*, 61(4), 1101-1111.
- Buhrmester, D., Furman, W., Wittenberg, M. T., & Reis, H. T. (1988). Five domains of interpersonal competence in peer relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 55(6), 991.
- Chang, E. C. (2006). Perfectionism and dimensions of psychological well-being in a college student sample: A test of a stress-mediation model. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 25(9), 1001.

- Cooke, R., Bewick, B. M., Barkham, M., Bradley, M. & Audin, K. (2006). Measuring, monitoring and managing the psychological well-being of first year university students. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 34(4), 505-517. doi: 10.1080/03069880600942624
- Díaz, D., Stavradi, M., Blanco Abarca, A., & Gandarillas, B. (2015). The eudaimonic component of satisfaction with life and psychological well-being in Spanish cultures. *Psicothema*, 27(3), 247-253. doi: 10.7334/psicothema2015.5
- Diener, E., Wirtz, D., Biswas-Diener, R., Tov, W., Kim-Prieto, C., Choi, D. W., & Oishi, S. (2009). New measures of well-being. In *Assessing well-being* (pp. 247-266). Springer: Netherlands.
- Glenn, N. D. (1975). The contribution of marriage to the psychological well-being of males and females. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 594-600.
- Ikiz, F. E., Savci, M., Asici, E., & Yoruk, C. (2015). Investigation of relationship between problematic internet use and psychological symptoms of university students. *Journal of Human Sciences*, 12(2), 688-702.
- Kállay, É. (2015). The investigation of the relationship between the meaning attributed to life and work, depression, and subjective and psychological well-being in Transylvanian Hungarian young adults. *Cognition, Brain, Behavior*, 19(1), 17-33.
- Kim, H. K., & McKenry, P. C. (2002). The relationship between marriage and psychological well-being a longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Family Issues*, 23(8), 885-911. doi: 10.1177/01925302237296
- Klainin-Yobas, P., Ramirez, D., Fernandez, Z., Sarmiento, J. Thanoi, W., Ignacio, J., & Lau, Y. (2016). Examining the predicting effect of mindfulness on psychological well-being among undergraduate students: A structural equation modelling approach. *Personality and Individual Difference*, 91, 63-68. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2015.11.034
- Larson, J. J., Whittin, S. W., Hauser, S. T. & Allen, J. P. (2007). Being close and being social: Peer ratings of distinct aspects of young adult social competence. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 89(2), 136-148. doi:10.1080/00223890701468501
- Ludban, M. & Gitimu, P.N. (2015). Psychological well-being of college students. *Undergraduate Research Journal for the Human Sciences*, 14(1).
- Mane Abhay, B., Krishnakumar, M., Niranjana Paul, C., & Hiremath Shashidhar, G. (2011). Differences in perceived stress and its correlates among students in professional courses. *Journal of Clinic Diagnostic Research*, 5(6), 1228-33.
- Marks, N. F. (1996). Flying solo at midlife: Gender, marital status, and psychological well-being. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 58(4), 917-932.
- Morahan-Martin, J., & Schumacher, P. (2000). Incidence and correlates of pathological internet use among college students. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 16(1), 13-29.
- Parker, J. D., Summerfeldt, L. J., Hogan, M. J., & Majeski, S. A. (2004). Emotional intelligence and academic success: Examining the transition from high school to university. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(1), 163-172. doi: 10.1016/S0191-8869(03)00076-X
- Roothman, B., Kirsten, D. K., & Wissing, M. P. (2003). Gender differences in aspects of psychological well-being. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 33(4), 212-218.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68. doi: 10.1037//003-006X.55.1.68
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 141-166.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989a). Beyond Ponce de Leon and life satisfaction: New directions in quest of successful ageing. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 12(1), 35-55.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989b). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6), 1069.
- Ryff, C. D. (1995). Psychological well-being in adult life. *Current Directions in*

- Psychological Science*, 4(4), 99-104.
- Ryff, C. D. (2014). Psychological well-being revisited: Advances in science and practice. *Psychother Psychosom*, 83(1), 10-28. doi: 10.1159/000353263
- Ryff, C. D., Magee, W. J., Kling, K. C., & Wing, E. H. (1999). Forging macro-micro linkages in the study of psychological well-being. *The Self and Society in Aging Processes*, 247-278.
- Ryff, C. D., & Singer, B. H. (2008). Know thyself and become what you are: A eudaimonic approach to psychological well-being. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 9(1), 13-39. doi: 10.1007/s10902-006-9019-0
- Sahin, E. E., & Gizir, C. A. (2013). Kişilerarası Yetkinlik Ölçeği-Kısa formu: Geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışmaları [Interpersonal competence questionnaire-short form: Validity and reliability studies]. *Mersin University Journal of the Faculty of Education*, 9(3), 144-158.
- Santrock, J. W. (2011). *Yaşam boyu gelişim* [Life-span development]. (Galip Yuksel, Trans. Eds.). Ankara: Nobel yayınevi
- Segrin, C., & Flora, J. (2000). Poor social skills are a vulnerability factor in the development of psychosocial problems. *Human Communication Research*, 26(3), 489-514.
- Segrin, C., Hanzal, A., Donnerstein, C., Taylor, M., & Domschke, T. J. (2007). Social skills, psychological well-being, and the mediating role of perceived stress. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping*, 20(3), 321-329. doi: 10.1080/10615800701282252
- Segrin, C., & Taylor, M. (2007). Positive interpersonal relationships mediate the association between social skills and psychological well-being. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 43(4), 637-646. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2007.01.017
- Shields, M. A., & Price, S. W. (2005). Exploring the economic and social determinants of psychological well-being and perceived social support in England. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 168(3), 513-537.
- Telef, B. B. (2013). Psikolojik iyi oluş ölçeği: Türkçeye uyarlama, geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması. [The adaptation of psychological well-being scale into Turkish: A validity and reliability study]. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 28(28-3), 374-384.
- Wang, C. C. D., & Castañeda-Sound, C. (2008). The role of generational status, self-esteem, academic self-efficacy, and perceived social support in college students' psychological well-being. *Journal of College Counseling*, 11(2), 101-118.
- Weiten, W., Hammer, E. Y., & Dunn, D. S., (2016). *Psikoloji ve çağdaş yaşam: İnsan uyumu* [Psychology and contemporary life: Human adjustment] (F. Ebru Ikiz, Trans. Eds.). Ankara: Nobel Yayınevi
- Zivin, K., Eisenberg, D., Gollust, S. E., & Golberstein, E. (2009). Persistence of mental health problems and needs in a college student population. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 117(3), 180-185. doi: 10.1016/j.jad.2009.01.001

Burnout Levels of Teachers in Primary Schools with Multigrade Classes

*Süleyman Göksoy

Introduction

Multigrade classroom application is a training activity applied in rural settlements in Turkey as well as many countries worldwide. In a multigrade classroom, a number of classes are combined in a single classroom and training activities are carried out by one teacher. The main reasons of training activities in multigrade classes stems from social, economical and geographical conditions. That is to say, in underpopulated rural areas, there are very few students. Also there is not sufficient physical structure for education. Therefore the number of teachers in primary schools with multigrade classes are not sufficient. A teacher carries out the management functions of the school with managerial prerogative for there is not permanent staff as a manager. The teacher with managerial prerogative carries out the teaching post as well as managerial undertakings such as personnel affairs, student affairs, teaching-learning activities and school management. According to The Ministry of Education statistics of 2013-2014 academic year, 8457 of primary schools in Turkey are performing multigrade classroom application. In these schools, 7402 teachers (4635 male, 2767 female) have been working. In primary schools with multigrade classes, 214048 students (108335 male and 105713 female) have been studying (The Ministry of National Education, 2014).

In terms of students, there are students with different improvement characteristics, different fields of interest and different class levels (1-5, 2-3 grades) who carry out the teaching-learning activities in the same classroom environment. In terms of teacher, she/he needs to manage students from different class levels and handle more than one teaching schedule. This situation reflects also on teaching-learning process. That is to say, while essential lessons (life sciences, social sciences, sciences and technology) are carried out by a teacher, other classes are obligated to study on their own with homework.

The training performed with one teacher and an integration of multiple classes is named training in multigrade classes (Köksal, 2003). In other words, students of different ages, classes and competences have training in the same group (Little, 1994). Considering the classrooms, five classes can be integrated occasionally or two, three or four classes can be integrated according to the number of teachers (Çınar, 2004).

Multigrade classes have been given different names in literature. They can be have been called as *split grades*, *multi-age classrooms*, *family groupings* or *looping classrooms*. While some of these names have positive meaning, some have negativeness. The chosen notions generally reflect one's views about multigrade classes (OECTA, 2009).

Burnout is a consequence of the interaction between individual and workplace (Dinibütün, 2013). Burnout was defined by Herbert Freudenberger first in 1974 and was stated as "the condition of failure, attrition, loss of energy and endurance or depletion of individual resources as a result of unsatisfied requests". Burnout syndrome creates negative impacts both individual and organizational (Freudenberger, 1974: 159' as cited in Polatçı, 2007). Occupational burnout was defined as an occupational syndrome that happens as a result of the inconsistency between the notions of effort and reward (Farber, 1991, Khezerlou, 2012). Any inconsistency happened between individual and these organizational factors has an effect on burnout. Occupational and organizational factors that affects burnout in individuals are principally determined as the workload, a compatible workplace, participation to decisions, managerial support, clarity of the task, coordination, ethical approach and management ability (Dinibütün, 2013). In background studies, a high degree and negative directional relationship was detected between burnout syndrome and organizational devotion (Kervancı, 2013).

There is a meaningful relationship between burnout and personal success, participation to occupational leaning activities (Klavuz, 2006), emotional burnout (Özer, 2013). Occupational burnout may cause mental and physical problems like headache, stomach and intestinal diseases,

hypertension, diabetes, muscle contraction, chronic fatigue syndrome, anxiety, depression and disturbed sleep. Additionally, occupational burnout becomes a problem in educational fields and affects the quality of education, success of students, school atmosphere and social welfare negatively (Khezerlou, 2012). Research results demonstrate that it is impossible for teachers who feel unhappy, exhausted and diffident to devote themselves to their organization and to demonstrate citizenship in the organization frequently (Çetin, 2014).

The importance of the relationship between burnout and teacher competence have been commonly known in literature for the last ten years (Kimav, 2010). The common factors that cause burnout in teaching profession are determined as salary, colleagues, communication with the administrative staff, work overload, physical environment and lack of autonomy (Güven, 2013). According to a study conducted with English teachers, meaningful differences were detected in the variables. The variables are comprised of three subdimensions: emotional burnout, depersonalisation, personal success. In terms of the emotional burnout subdimension, a meaningful difference was found in whether they feel themselves convenient for teaching profession or not and in whether they have chosen teaching profession willingly or not. In terms of depersonalization subdimension, a meaningful difference was detected in whether they feel themselves convenient for teaching profession or not and in whether they have chosen teaching profession willingly or not. Lastly, in terms of the personal success subdimension, a meaningful difference was found in age, period of office and in whether they feel themselves convenient for teaching profession or not (Kurtoğlu, 2011).

According to the research results of Aslan (2009); although the variables like gender, marital status, age, number of children, period of Office, working year at the same institution, the reason to have teaching occupation, the status of seeing themselves convenient for his job, the perception of socio-economic development of the job, being appreciated by superiors and pleasantness of the educational system were found to affect the burnout level, the variables such as the reason of choosing the occupation, socio-economical perception and classroom population were proven to not have an specific impact on burnout. It is suggested that burnout should be evaluated periodically in educational institutions. Ulupınar (2013) stated that there were meaningful differences in the burnout levels of teachers in terms of socio-economical status of the workplace, complacency of the working environment, appreciation of the superiors, willingness to do this job and the number of students in the classrooms.

In this study, it was aimed to determine the burnout levels of teachers who work in multigrade classes formed due to social, economical and geographical conditions. The burnout levels of the teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes should be emphasized. In this way, precautions for burnout can be taken and productivity in the educational system can be provided. These are important aspects in order to provide contribution to teaching profession.

Research Objective

The aim of the research is to determine the burnout levels of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes.

The following questions have been sought an answer in the research:

What are the burnout levels of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes?

What are the burnout levels of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes in terms of;

- a- Their work,
- b-Gender,
- c- Marital status,
- d- Age,
- d- Professional seniority,
- e- State of education,
- f- The number of classroom she/he teaches to.

Research Method

The research method is scanning method of descriptive research methods for it aims to determine the current situation. Scanning methods are the research approaches that aim to define the past or still-continuing situation as it is. The subject of the research, an individual or an object, is endeavoured to define in its own conditions. There is no will to change or affect them in any way (Karasar, 2011:77).

Population

The target population of the study consists of 7402 teachers who still work in primary schools with multigrade classes in 81 cities of Turkey in 2013-2014 academic year (MEB, 2013).

Research Sample

Sampling was used for it was not possible to reach all of the population. The research sample consists of 323 teachers working in primary schools with multigrade classes who attended "Multigrade Classroom Application Seminar" coordinated by The Ministry of National Education in Rize, İstanbul (2), Erzurum and Mersin in 2013-2014 academic year.

The personal information of the research sample is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Personal Information

Variable		f	%
Mission	Managerial prerogative	253	78
	Teacher	70	22
Gender	Female	74	23
	Male	249	77
Marital status	Married	207	64
	Single	116	36
Age	21-30	187	58
	31-40	114	35
	41-50	22	7
Educational Status	2,3 Years Academy	2	0,6
	4 Years Faculty	300	93
	Post Graduate	20	6
	Ph.D	1	0,4
Seniority	1-5 years	148	46
	6-10 years	116	36
	11-15 years	35	11
	16-20 years	20	6
	21 and above	4	1
The number of the teachers	One (1)	173	54
	Two (2)	119	37
	Three (3)	31	9

The research was conducted with 323 teachers. 70 of the participants are female and 253 of them are male. The majority of them (300) are 4 years faculty graduates. In terms of seniority, the majority of the participants have 10 years and more term of office. A clear majority of the teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes have two or three teachers in their schools. Only in the schools of 31 teachers, there are 3 teachers.

Data Collection Tools and Data Collection

Maslach Burnout Inventory was implemented as the data collection tool. The survey is comprised of 2 parts. There is a personal information form on the first part and the second part consists of 22 items. The first subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory is Emotional Exhaustion which is comprised of 9 items (1,2,3,6,8,13,14,16,20), the second subscale is Depersonalization which is comprised of 5 items (5,10,11,15,22) and the third subscale is Personal Accomplishment which is comprised of 8 items (4,7,9,12,17,18,19,21). According to the research of Ergin (1993), the reliability coefficient of Emotional Exhaustion was found as $\alpha=.83$ and in this research it was $\alpha=.85$. In terms of Depersonalization, Ergin (1993) found the coefficient as $\alpha=.65$ and in this research it was found as $\alpha=.69$. According to Ergin (1993), the reliability coefficient of Personal Accomplishment subscale was found as $\alpha=.72$ and in the current research it was found as $\alpha=.73$. The general reliability coefficient of the scale was determined as $\alpha=.73$.

In the scoring carried out according to 7 graded original form of Maslach Burnout Inventory, the criterion were determined as the following: For "Emotional Exhaustion", 27 and above is high, 17-26 is normal, 0-16 is low; for "Depersonalization", 13 and above is high, 7-12 is normal, 0-6 is low; for "Personal Accomplishment", 0-31 is high, 32-38 is normal, 39 and above is low. In the research, while scoring the subscales, "Never" was given 1, "Rarely" was given 2, "Sometimes" was given 3, "Frequently" was given 4, "Always" was given 5.

Table 2. Equivalentents of the scores

Options	Score	Lower-Upper Bound	Comment equaled to the score
Never	0.00	0.00-0.79	Exhausted very little
Rarely	1.00	0.80-1.59	Exhausted a little
Sometimes	2.00	1.60-2.39	Exhausted moderately
Frequently	3.00	2.40-3.19	Mostly exhausted
Always	4.00	3.20-4.00	Extremely exhausted

Statistical Analysis of Data

The answered surveys were analysed by coding them in SPSS packaged software and by applying percentage, frequency, T-Test, single direction variance analysis (ANOVA), Post Hoc tests. The significance level were taken as $p .05$ in each statistical procedure. The normality assumptions were tested initially in the research. With this purpose, "One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov" was used. It was proven that the data provided normality conditions.

Findings

1. Burnout levels of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes in terms of general dimensions and sub-dimensions of burnout

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of subscale scores in the scale

	N	X _{Min.}	X _{Maks.}	\bar{X}	X _{Std. Sap.}	Variance
Emotional Exhaustion	323	1,00	4,56	2,48	,698	,488
Depersonalization	323	1,00	3,60	1,94	,663	,440
Personal Accomplishment	323	1,00	5,00	3,71	,528	,279
Total	323	1,14	4,09	2,80	3,79	,144

As it can be seen in Table 3, the burnout levels of teachers working in primary schools with multigrade classes shift between ($\bar{X} =1,94$ ile $\bar{X} =3,71$). Teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes experience burnout mostly in personal accomplishment ($\bar{X} =3,71$ level) and they experience burnout moderately in emotional burnout and depersonalization aspects ($\bar{X} =2,48$, $\bar{X} =1,94$). Teachers work in primary schools with multigrade classes generally think that they live burnout at the level of ($\bar{X} =2,80$).

2. The burnout levels of teachers working in primary schools with multigrade classes in terms of demographic variables,

In the analysis about whether demographic variables such as gender, mission, marital status, educational status, seniority and the number of teachers affect the burnout levels of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes, no statistic difference was detected ($p>0,05$).

In accordance with the current data, it can be stated that gender, mission, marital status, educational status, seniority and the number of teachers do not affect the burnout levels of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes and that the perception of the teachers does not influenced by this kind of variables.

2. 1. In terms of age variable,

Anova analysis was conducted in order to determine the views of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes about their burnout levels in terms of age variable. The results were given in Table 4.

Table 4. Anova Test Related to Age Variable

ANOVA Results					
	Variance Coefficient	KT	Sd	KO	F P
Intergroup		498,46	2	249,23	
In-group		219,58	320	68,61	3,63
Total		224,04	322		,028*

* $p<0,05$

In Table 4, there is a meaningful difference between the ages of the educators and their burnout levels ($F(2-3,63)=,028 P< .05$). Post Hoc multiple comparison test was applied in order to determine the groups between which the meaningful difference was found. The results of the test is given below.

Table 5 Age Variable Analysis

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
21-30	31-40	2,22	,984	,024	,290	4,163
	41-50	3,52	1,867	,059	-,149	7,197
31-40	21-30	-2,22	,984	,024	-4,163	-,290
	41-50	1,29	1,928	,501	-2,497	5,092
41-50	21-30	-3,52	1,867	,059	-7,197	,149
	31-40	-1,29	1,928	,501	-5,092	2,497

* $p<0,05$

As it is given in Table 5, single directions variance analysis was used in order to determine whether the scores of burnout levels of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes. There is difference between the ages of 21-30 and 31-40 and it is in favor of 31-40 ages (\bar{x} 2,22 $p<0,05$ level). The difference between the arithmetic means of the other groups was not found meaningful ($p>0,05$). In accordance with the obtained findings, it can be said that the burnout levels of teachers working in primary schools with multigrade classes get higher as their ages and their professional time in multigrade classes increase.

2.2. In terms of seniority variable,

Burnout Levels of Teachers in Primary Schools with Multigrade Classes

Anova analysis was conducted in order to determine the views of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes about their burnout levels in terms of seniority variable. The results were given in Table 6.

Table 6. Anova Test Related to Age Variable

ANOVA Results						
	Variance Coefficient	<i>KT</i>	<i>Sd</i>	<i>KO</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Intergroup		776,869	4	194,217		
In-group		216,177	318	68,170	2,848	,024*
Total		224,046	322			

* $p < 0,05$

As it is stated in Table 6, there is a meaningful difference between the ages of the educators who constitute the sample group and their participation to school management ($F(4-420) = 5,832$ $P \leq .05$). Post Hoc multiple comparison test was applied in order to determine the groups between which the meaningful difference was found. The results of the test is given below.

Table 7. Analysis of Seniority Variable

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-5 yıl	6-10 years	1,89	1,023	,065	-,115	3,913
	11-15 years	3,92(*)	1,551	,012	,870	6,977
	16-20 years	4,75(*)	1,967	,016	,889	8,629

	21 years and above	2,95	4,183	,480	-5,271	11,190
6-10 yıl	6-10 years	-1,89	1,023	,065	-3,913	,115
	11-15 years	2,02	1,592	,204	-1,108	5,157
	16-20 years	2,86	1,999	,153	-1,072	6,793
	21 years and above	1,06	4,198	,801	-7,200	9,321
11-15 yıl	6-10 years	-3,92(*)	1,551	,012	-6,977	-,870
	11-15 years	-2,02	1,592	,204	-5,157	1,108
	16-20 years	,83	2,314	,718	-3,717	5,389
	21 years and above	-,96	4,357	,825	-9,538	7,609
16-20 yıl	6-10 years	-4,75(*)	1,967	,016	-8,629	-,889
	11-15 years	-2,80	1,999	,153	-6,793	1,072
	16-20 years	-,83	2,314	,718	-5,389	3,717
	21 years and above	-1,80	4,522	,691	-10,697	7,097
21 yıl ve üzeri	6-10 years	-2,95	4,183	,480	-11,190	5,271
	11-15 years	-1,06	4,198	,801	-9,321	7,200
	16-20 years	,96	4,357	,825	-7,609	9,538
	21 years and above	1,80	4,522	,691	-7,097	10,697

* p<0,05

As it is seen in Table 7, single directions variance analysis was used in order to determine whether the scores of burnout levels of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes. In the groups of teachers who have 1-5 years, 11-15 years and 16-20 years of seniority, a statistically meaningful difference was found and it is in favor of 11-15 years of seniority group (3,92 p<0,05) and also in favor of 16-20 years of seniority group (4,75 p<0,05). Between the seniority years of 16-20 and 6-10, there is a statistically meaningful difference in favor of 6-10 years of seniority group (-4,75 p<0,05). In accordance with the obtained findings, it can be said that the burnout levels of teachers working in primary schools with multigrade classes get higher as their ages and their professional time in multigrade classes increase.

Results, Discussions and Suggestions.

The current research was aimed to determine the burnout levels of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes. The following results were obtained in the research .

Teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes generally see themselves exhausted. Teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes experience burnout mostly in personal accomplishment and they experience burnout moderately in emotional burnout and depersonalization aspects. Teachers working in multigrade classes mostly experience burnout syndrome, defined as the condition of failure, attrition, loss of energy and endurance or depletion of individual resources as a result of unsatisfied requests (Freudenberger, 1974: 159' as cited in Polatçı, 2007). This situation affects the organizational devotion highly and negatively (Kervancı, 2013). Research results demonstrate that it is impossible for teachers who feels unhappy, exhausted and diffident to devote themselves to their organization and to demonstrate citizenship in the organization frequently (Çetin, 2014).

In the analysis about whether demographic variables such as gender, mission, marital status, educational status, seniority and the number of teachers affect the burnout levels of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes, no statistic difference was detected ($p>0,05$). In accordance with the current data, it can be stated that gender, mission, marital status, educational status, seniority and the number of teachers do not affect the burnout levels of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes and that the perception of the teachers does not influenced by this kind of variables.

There is a meaningful difference between the age and seniority of the educators and their burnout levels. In accordance with the obtained findings, it can be said that the burnout levels of teachers working in primary schools with multigrade classes get higher as their ages and their professional time in multigrade classes increase. The current results are paralel with the research findings of the researches conducted by Kurtoğlu (2011) and Aslan (2009). In the studies of Kurtoğlu and Aslan, the burnout levels of teachers demonstrated meaningful differences in terms of age, seniority, and seeing themselves convenient for teaching profession.

There may be so many different factors for the burnout syndrome of teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes and for increaing burnout levels with age and seniority. In various studies carried out on this subject, the burnout of teachers have been determined as the following: salary, colleagues, communication with the administrative staff, work overload, physical environment, lack of autonomy, socio economical conditions of the work environment, complacence of the working environment, appreciation of the superiors, willingness to do this job, the number of students in the classrooms, workload, a compatible workplace, participation to decisions, managerial support, clarity of the task, coordination, ethical approach and management ability (Güven, 2013; Ulupınar, 2013; Dinibütün, 2013). Therefore, teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes can have burnout syndrome for many different factors. In accordance with the obtained results, the following suggestions have been made in order to decrease and eliminate the burnout levels of teachers who work in multigrade classes:

- a) Teachers working in primary schools with multigrade classes at a certain age and seniority can be transferred to another school which have single classrooms.
- b) Personal rights(salary, additional course, transportation, harboring/boarding etc.) of the teachers who work in primary schools with multigrade classes can be enhanced.
- c) Social and cultural activities in the cities of teachers working in primary schools with multigrade classes can be arranged with other teachers' help.
- d) Birleştirilmiş sınıflı ilkokullarda görevli öğretmenlere illerinde rehberlik ve psikolojik destek hizmeti sağlanabilir. Guidance and counselling services can be provided to the teachers in their cities.

References

- Ulupınar, S. (2013), Konya ilinde bulunan yatılı ilköğretim bölge okullarında görev yapan öğretmenlerin tükenmişlik düzeylerinin incelenmesi, Karamanoğlu Mehmetbey Üniversitesi / Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Özer, E., K.(2013). Tükenmişlik sendromu ve toplam kalite yönetimi arasındaki ilişki: Adıyaman ilkokullarında bir uygulama, Adıyaman Üniversitesi / Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Dinibütün, S., R. (2013). Örgüt ikliminin tükenmişlik üzerine etkisini belirlemeye yönelik devlet ve vakıf üniversitelerinde bir araştırma, İstanbul, Marmara Üniversitesi / Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Kervancı, F. (2013). Tükenmişlik sendromunun örgütsel bağlılık ve işten ayrılma niyetine etkisini belirlemeye yönelik bir araştırma Niğde Üniversitesi / Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Aslan, N (2009). Kars ili ilköğretim okullarında görev yapan öğretmenlerde mesleki tükenmişlik düzeyi Kars, Kafkas Üniversitesi / Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.

- Çetin, C. (2014). Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarının ve örgüt kültürünün tükenmişlik üzerine etkisi (Kız Meslek Liselerinde bir araştırma, İstanbul ili Avrupa yakası örneği) İstanbul Yeditepe Üniversitesi / Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Klavuz, D. (2006). Üniversite hazırlık Türk İngilizce okutmanları arasında tükenmişlik ve mesleki öğrenme etkinliklerine katılımın araştırılması, İstanbul Boğaziçi Üniversitesi / Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Kurtoğlu, Ü. (2011). İngilizce öğretmenlerinin mesleki tükenmişliklerinin bazı değişkenlere göre değerlendirilmesi, Kars, Kafkas Üniversitesi / Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Kimav, A., U (2010). Bir Türk devlet üniversitesinde tükenmişlik ve bireysel ve kolektif öğretmen yeterliği üzerine bir araştırma, Ankara, İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent Üniversitesi / Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Güven, G. (2013). Ankara'da iki devlet üniversitesinde çalışan Türk İngilizce öğretmenlerinin tükenmişlik seviyelerinin incelenmesi üzerine bir çalışma, İstanbul Ufuk Üniversitesi / Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Khezerlou, E. (2012). İngilizce öğretmenleri arasındaki mesleki tükenmişlik düzeylerinin kültürlerarası incelenmesi: İran ve Türkiye, Ankara, Hacettepe Üniversitesi / Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Polatçı, S. (2007). Tükenmişlik sendromu ve tükenmişlik sendromuna etki eden faktörler (Gaziosmanpaşa Üniversitesi akademik personeli üzerinde bir analiz). Tokat, Gaziosmanpaşa Üniversitesi / Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Freudenberger, H. J. (1974), "Staff Burnout", *Journal of Social Issues*, 30: 159-165.
- Köksal, K(2003). Birleştirilmiş Sınıflarda Öğretim. Ankara: Pegem Yayınları.
- Karasar N. (2011) .Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemi: Kavramlar, İlkeler ve Teknikler.Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık,
- Little, A. (1994). Multi-Grade Teaching - A Review Of Research And Practice – Education Research Paper. No. 12, 63 P. <http://www.eric.ed.gov/> adresinden 2 Şubat 2009'da alınmıştır.
- Çınar, İ. (2004). Birleştirilmiş Sınıflı İlköğretim Okullarında İlk Okuma Yazma Öğretimine İlişkin Bir Araştırma. *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*.
- OECTA. A (2009). *Discussion Paper On Combined Grades*. <http://www.eric.ed.gov/> adresinden 5 Ocak 2009'da alınmıştır.
- Ergin, C. (1993). "Doktor ve Hemşirelerde Tükenmişlik ve Maslach Tükenmişlik Ölçeğinin Uyarlanması" (Ed: R. Bayraktar ve İ. Dağ) 7. Ulusal Psikoloji Kongresi Bilimsel Çalışmaları El Kitabı. Ankara: Psikologlar Birliği Yayınları, ss.143-154.

EFL Pre-Service Teachers' Beliefs Toward Classroom Management Style: The Case Of Gender And Grade Level

Cevdet Yılmaz

1. Introduction

Classroom management is one of the primary areas of concern expressed by teachers at all levels (Long & Frye, 1989; Weinstein, 1996). This is the case for the field of foreign language teaching where classroom management is among the most frequently addressed topics for EFL teachers (Aliakbari and Heidarzadi, 2015). A considerable body of research indicates that teachers' classroom management skills have an effect on the success of students and the quality of teaching (Yılmaz & Çavaş, 2008). Studies further indicate that the classroom management strategies teachers adopt have a strong potential to positively and effectively influence students achievement and learning (DeLong & Winter, 1998).

Admittedly, one of the teachers' roles falls into the efficient management of the classroom in the interest of creating the optimal learning environment possible. This undertaking, no doubt, is quite a challenging objective to achieve. As Martin (2006) points out, the teacher's role involves a myriad of tasks including, but not limited to, efficient management of the classroom as a whole in addition to developing and organizing the curriculum. Additionally, there is evidence to suggest that the teachers' effectiveness in teaching is evaluated through their ability to effectively manage the classroom and create the classroom climate that is stimulating, energizing, and positive for language learning (Brown, 2007).

Literature indicates that various definitions of classroom management have emerged for decades. A close look at some of these definitions may help conceptualize the notion of classroom management for the purposes of the study. In broad terms, classroom management refers to the full range of teacher efforts to supervise classroom activities, including learning, social interaction, and student behavior (Burden, 2005). Tal (2010) views the classroom management as a cyclical process that includes advanced planning, implementation, assessment and final evaluation that takes into account factors related to children and their environment, intended to bring about progress in the activities carried out for the learning in the classroom. In some definitions available classroom management embodies the interactions taking place between teachers and students. Accordingly, Doyle (2006) argues that classroom management revolves around teachers' and students' attitudes and actions that influence students' behaviors in the classroom. In addition, Brophy (1988) also defines classroom management as a teacher's efforts to establish and maintain the classroom as an effective environment for teaching and learning. To this end, classroom management can potentially be used to address both the students' and the teacher's needs Foutz (2005). In describing her philosophy of classroom management, Karp (2002) emphasizes the importance of classroom setting where the students have the right to learn safely and with dignity, just as the teacher has the right to teach safely and with dignity.

From the definitions given above, it is quite clear that classroom management turns out to be a factor directly affecting the quality of education. Similarly, studies examining factors affecting students' learning revealed that classroom management proves important for students' learning (Shin & Koh, 2007). However, some teachers report that one of the most widespread challenges in the classroom is classroom management (Goyette, Dore, & Dion, 2000). Indeed, it is quite common to observe teachers who are frustrated by frequent disruption issues as they struggle to manage their classroom. In this respect, classroom management points to the teacher's ability to cope with the problems taking place in the classroom. Thus, Savage and Savage (2009) define classroom management as the prevention of problems as well as responses when problems do occur. In this definition, the major focus is on prevention of problems because one of the key variables in successful

classroom management is an emphasis on preventative, rather than reactive, management techniques as shown by other researchers (Emmer & Stough, 2001).

Martin, Yin, and Baldwin (1998) and Martin and Sass (2010) provide a different framework for the conceptualization of classroom management alongside two broad and independent dimensions: instructional management and behavior management. Such a classification is of critical importance because the identification of teachers in accordance with these dimensions would in turn create an avenue so as to determine teachers' differing classroom management orientations. Teachers involved in the instructional management dimension tend to favor activities such as establishing daily procedures, monitoring seat work, monitoring students' independent work, and allocating materials (Martin, 1998). On the other hand, behavior management dimension includes setting rules, providing a reward, establishing opportunities for student input, commenting on behavior, and giving directions (Martin & Sass, 2010). Normally, teachers may adopt different classroom orientations on this theoretical basis. However, a sizeable body of research indicates that teachers differ in their approaches to classroom management (Martin, 2006). Therefore, classroom management orientations adopted by teachers may impact on determination of their reactions toward students' behaviors and teaching activities (Cerit, 2015).

A commonly used approach to conceptualizing classroom management orientations in the literature was developed by Glickman and Tamashiro (1980). In principle they set up a continuum that reflects the extent to which teachers want to exercise control over students, which in turn informs classroom management strategies. The continuum ranges from interventionists at one extreme to non-interventionists at the other (Martin et al. 1998). Notably, the fundamental difference between these two extremes is marked by the distinction drawn between student-oriented approach and teacher-oriented approach. In this context teachers adhering to the non-interventionist orientation are considered student oriented whereas interventionist teachers are supposed to be teacher oriented and tend to take control of the situation by implementing an immediate disciplinary tactic to control the behavior (Witcher et al., 2008). The non-interventionist teachers are the least directive and controlling, but the interventionist teachers are the most controlling and tend to take control of the situation by implementing an immediate disciplinary tactic to control the behavior (Witcher et al., 2008). Despite the assumption that teachers adopt two approaches, one usually predominates (Wolfgang, 1995).

2. Review of literature

Numerous studies have revealed that effective classroom management is of considerable importance for teachers in establishing a convenient and positive learning environment in the classroom. The related literature consistently emphasizes the central role of classroom management for teachers (Shinn, Walker, & Stoner, 2002). In Landau's (2001) view, classroom management strategies, among the others, are the most valuable skills set a teacher can have in the learning process.

It has become clear that a well-maintained classroom helps teachers sustain good relationships with their students; additionally, organization and better instruction is also evident in this type of setting (Psunder, 2004). An effective classroom management profile fosters emotional, organizational and instructional support (Hamre & Pianta (2007). Obviously, as effective classroom management proves beneficial for students in attaining educational goals, the voices of EFL pre-service teachers regarding their on-site observation of how teachers in effect manage the classroom can provide valuable insights into the improvement of teachers' effective classroom strategies. In this regard, Esmaeeli (2002), as quoted in Aliakbari and Heidarzadi (2015), stated that EFL classroom management in particular is one of the major concerns of pre-service teachers.

Importantly many studies (Fowler & Saraplı, 2010; Yazdanmehr & Akbari, 2015) conducted in the field of language teaching addressed the topic of classroom management with an emphasis on the challenges facing teachers in the classroom. According to Fowler and Şaraplı (2010), in a foreign language-learning classroom, where English is used as both the medium and the content of teaching, the significance of effective management becomes more pronounced. They examined the expectations of 88 English language teaching students in regards to their expectations of effective

classroom management. Surprisingly, the results showed that classroom management is just as important to students as it is to teachers. The authors highlighted that this information can be used to help teachers become more effective classroom managers in their future careers.

In a number of studies (Martin & Yin, 1997; Rahimi & Asadollahi, 2012; Aliakbari & Heidarzadi, 2015) the possible effect of various constructs including gender, age, experience, and school type on teachers' classroom management orientations were examined. . Martin and Yin's study (1997) revealed that experienced teachers were significantly more controlling than novice teachers and female teachers were more interventionist than males regarding behavior management. In another study, Aliakbari & Heidarzadi (2015) investigated Iranian EFL teachers' beliefs toward classroom management and the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their actual practices of classroom management in regard with individual variables such as gender, education degree, and teaching experience. The authors found that EFL teachers favored interactionalist orientation on instructional management dimensions. Findings also indicated that male teachers were not significantly different from females in terms of the relationship between their beliefs and actual practices.

3. Statement of the problem

It is widely acknowledged that teachers' conceptions of classroom management are highly important for understanding and improving educational process. This is because they profoundly function as reflecting on teachers' orientation and strategies for dealing with challenges in their profession. While a considerable amount of research has been devoted to assessing teachers' perception of classroom management in Turkish EFL context, to my best knowledge, little research has been done to address this issue from pre-service teachers' points of view. Accordingly, the present study intended to examine EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs toward classroom management while at the same time giving the prospective teachers guidance on effective classroom management. To this end, the current study sought an answer to the following research questions:

1. What are EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs toward classroom management?
2. Is there any significant difference among EFL teachers' classroom management beliefs with respect to their gender and grade level?

4. Methodology

4.1. Participants

The participating pre-service teachers included 105 students (29 males, 76 females) from the English Language Teaching Department at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University in Turkey. Students who participated were from the third and fourth year classes in the faculty. Only voluntary students were recruited for undertaking the questionnaire. The participants' age ranged from 19 to 23, with an average of 21. Before entering university, they had received English education for more than seven years. They were all Turkish students and almost had the same education background.

4.2. Instrument

The behavior and instructional management scale (BIMS) inventory (Martin & Sass, 2010) as the main instrument was employed in the phase of data collection. Pre-service teachers were asked to complete demographic survey questions including gender and grade level along with the BIMS inventory. The behavior and instructional management scale (BIMS) consisted of 24 items which were designed to evaluate two particular areas of interest: behavior management (12 items) and instructional management (12 items). Students were asked to respond on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 showing "strongly disagree" to 5 showing "strongly agree". On this inventory, higher subscale scores indicate a more controlling, interventionist approach, while lower scores are indicative of a less controlling, non-interventionist approach within the framework of classroom management style (Martin & Sass, 2010). In order to calculate the reliability of Turkish version of BIMS inventory, Cronbach alpha coefficient was utilized. Reliability coefficients of the instructional

management subscale and the behavior management subscale were found to be .73, and .78 respectively.

4.3. Procedure

The questionnaires were administered during a regular lesson in February 2017. From the outset, the participants were informed of the purpose of the study and assured that the results would be confidential. They were instructed not to write their names on the surveys. Consistent with student teachers' availability and the researcher's convenience, the questionnaire was distributed among 105 pre-service teachers. Each participant anonymously completed the questionnaire and the demographic information. After one week, all of the participants returned completed questionnaires. The data elicited from students' responses were computer-coded using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 18.0 Software for Windows. Cronbach alpha index of reliability for the student questionnaire proved to be high and displayed a strong correlation among questionnaire items. Descriptive statistics was used to calculate the means and standard deviation of the variables and subscales of the questionnaire. Then, Independent t-test was run in order to determine significant variation in pre-service teachers' beliefs toward classroom management styles by gender and grade level.

5. Results

Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations for each of the 24 items designed for analyzing the EFL pre-service teachers' classroom management beliefs. Based on the analysis of the questionnaire data obtained in this study, the research questions have been analyzed as follows:

What are EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs toward classroom management?

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for EFL students' beliefs toward classroom management

Group	Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
BM	1.intervening when students talk	105	1	5	3.43	.96
IM	2. use of whole class instruction	105	1	5	4.10	.68
BM	3. limiting student chatter	105	1	5	3.07	.99
IM	4. exploring questions	105	1	5	4.00	.72
BM	5. rewarding students	105	1	5	3.93	.98
IM	6. engaging students	105	1	5	4.37	.68
BM	7. moving the student away	105	1	5	2.65	1.03
IM	8. establishing a teaching routine	105	1	5	3.88	.94
BM	9. use of input for creating rules	105	1	5	4.37	.75
IM	10. use of group work	105	1	5	3.58	.89
BM	11. allowing students to get out of their seat	105	1	5	2.23	1.02
IM	12. using student input for creating student projects	105	1	5	4.25	.60
BM	13. strict when it comes to student compliance	105	1	5	2.80	.94
IM	14. using inquiry-based learning	105	1	5	3.53	.91
BM	15. redirecting students back to the topic	105	1	5	3.61	.73
IM	16.directing students' transition	105	1	5	4.05	.61
BM	17. insisting that students follow the rules	105	1	5	3.65	1.02
IM	18. adjusting instruction	105	1	5	4.03	.73
BM	19. monitoring off task behavior closely	105	1	5	4.22	.76
IM	20. using direct instruction	105	1	5	3.82	.93
BM	21.enforcing classroom rules strictly	105	1	5	3.11	1.05

IM	22. not deviating from pre-planned learning	105	1	5	3.11	.91
BM	23. demanding that students comply with classroom rules	105	1	5	3.58	.83
IM	24. using a teaching approach	105	1	5	4.37	.76

Overall, the results shown in Table 1 illustrate the mean score and standard deviation of behavior ($M= 3.39$; $SD= .35$) and instructional management ($M=3.92$; $SD= .32$) subscales of classroom management. The mean scores on both dimensions were quite higher than midpoint on the rating scale of classroom definition, indicating that pre-service teachers' beliefs were found to be interventionist on both behavior and instructional management. The results also showed that they favor to take more controlling approach to instructional management than behavior management.

As clearly depicted in Table 1, the items 6, 9 and 24 in the survey had the highest means ($M= 4.37$) respectively. Among these, the items 6 and 24 are indicative of instructional management orientation while the item 9 corresponds to behavior management style. The item 6 ($M= 4.37$; $SD= .68$) involves engaging students in active discussion about issues related to real world applications. As to the other item 9 ($M= 4.37$; $SD= .75$), pre-service teachers tended to favor the use of instructional management approach in that teacher uses input from students to create classroom rules. Another most frequently used strategy perceived by pre-service teachers was the item 24 ($M= 4.37$; $SD= .76$) indicating that teachers nearly always use a teaching approach that encourages interaction among students along with instructional management strategy. Likewise, the interest in this way of management is manifested in the mean score of the item 12 ($M= 4.25$; $SD= .60$). This suggests that pre-service teachers overwhelmingly agree with the view that teacher uses input when creating student projects. As opposed to these highest mean scores in the survey, some items had relatively lower scores. In this respect, it was found that the item 11 had the lowest score, which involves allowing students to get out of their seat without permission. As seen in the BIMS inventory, this view relates to behavior management dimension.

Is there any significant difference among EFL teachers' classroom management beliefs with respect to their gender and grade level?

Table 2: Independent samples *t*-test comparing male versus female students

Items	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
allowing students to get out of their seat (BM)	Male	29	2.75	1.11	2.69	.09
	Female	76	2.06	.93		
using direct instruction (IM)	Male	29	3.45	1.05	-2.10	.03
	Female	76	3.95	.87		

As shown in Table 2, a series of independent samples *t*-test determined differences between male and female pre-service teachers with respect to beliefs on classroom management. The results of data analysis reflect that the gender differences were statically significant at ($p= .05$) in both instructional and behavior management approach. Female pre-service teachers ($M= 3.95$; $SD= .87$) scored more interventionist than their male counterparts ($M= 3.45$; $SD= 1.05$) in terms of instructional management dimension while male pre-service teachers outsourced their female counterparts ($M= 2.75$; $SD= 1.11$) on behavior management.

Table 3: Independent samples *t*-test on students' classroom management beliefs with regard to grade

Items	Grade	N	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
engaging students (IM)	3 rd year	61	4.45	.64	2.01	.04
	4 th year	44	4.10	.73		
strict when it comes to student compliance (BM)	3 rd year	61	2.62	.79	-3.16	.00
	4 th year	44	3.36	1.16		
not deviating from pre-planned learning (IM)	3 rd year	61	2.96	.81	-2.64	.01
	4 th year	44	3.57	1.07		

To investigate whether there was any statistically significant relationship among pre-service teachers' classroom management beliefs with reference to their gender, Independent samples *t*-test was run. As depicted in Table 3, the results revealed significant differences at ($p = .05$) among pre-service teachers' classroom management beliefs according to grade variable. It was found that third year pre-service student were more sensitive to the classroom management strategy which involves engaging students in classroom work. On the other hand, fourth year pre-service teachers reported more frequent classroom strategies on both instructional and behavior management than third year pre-service teachers did. Accordingly, they believed that teacher would be strict when it comes to student compliance in classroom, and additionally, they felt that it was important for the teacher not to deviate from his pre-planned learning activities.

6. Discussion and Conclusions

There can be little doubt that pre-service teachers observe a variety of strategies experienced by teachers in the classroom. Their beliefs about these experiences and the way they approach them work together with a view to better understanding of, what Martins and Yin (1997) call, creating a unique and individual style of classroom management. They further argue that this would in turn facilitate the process of university level of instruction of pre-service teachers. As such, pre-service teachers' beliefs are key to enhancing educational process because they are linked to techniques and strategies employed by teachers in the classroom. As Wolfgang and Glickman (1980) assert, teachers' behavior and actions are closely linked to how they manage their classrooms. Accordingly, this study was undertaken in an effort to explore the beliefs of EFL pre-service teachers toward classroom management.

The first set of questionnaire data in the survey revealed that pre-service teachers scored high in a more interventionist direction on the Instructional Management and Behavior Management subscales. This finding is in line with the previous studies of Martin & Yin (1997) and Fowler & Şaraplı (2010). This implies that, as Martin and Yin (1997) highlights, interventionists are likely to be comfortable in well organized, predictable environments. The results of this study show that pre-service teachers expect a strict classroom in their future teaching career. They have a tendency to take control of situation and behavior by setting strict rules and giving directions in the process of language learning.

The findings from the study also demonstrated that there was statistically significant difference between male and female EFL pre-service teachers in terms of classroom management. Surprisingly, It was found that female pre-service teachers scored significantly higher (more controlling and interventionist) than their male counterparts on instructional management dimension. Conversely, this result does not seem to corroborate the literature regarding gender differences (Martin & Yin, 1997; Amin, 1994; Zaremba & Fluck, 1995). On the other hand, males scored significantly higher (non-interventionist or interactionist) than females on behavior management subscale. This is because, to my best knowledge, male EFL pre-service teachers tend to be more supportive of Turkish traditional cultural customs and beliefs. As Martin and Yin (1997) concludes, they are likely to consider themselves as rigorous followers of rules and policies.

Additional analysis of the data revealed that more experienced pre-service teachers at the fourth year were more inclined to make effective use of classroom management strategies than the less experienced student teachers at their third year. Drawing on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that final year pre-service teachers scored more interventionist than their third year counterparts on both instructional and behavior management, which is a direct reflection of how years of learning experience plays a significant role on student teachers' classroom managements. For one thing, fourth year pre-service teachers get this experience through making observations and practicing language teaching skills during practicum on a regular basis. Thus, this pedagogically adds to their experience by building up real classroom atmosphere. In support of this, similar conclusions about experience in classroom management were drawn by the studies of, for example, Aliakbari & Heidarzadi (2015) and Horak & Roubinek (1982).

As a consequence, the results of this study might provide valuable insights into empowering pre-service teachers with various classroom management strategies required for overcoming the emerging problems in their classroom. It is the hope of the author that prospective EFL teachers in Turkey will benefit from these findings in an effort to become more effective classroom managers and educators.

6.1. Research suggestions

This study is limited to the population composed of EFL pre-service teachers attending third and fourth classes at a university in Turkey. Further studies of this type with larger samples are needed in order to validate the behavior and instructional management scale (BIMS) inventory. Such replication studies undertaken cross-culturally can allow for a clearer understanding of different type of classroom management strategies. Many studies have used a questionnaire method to examine the management orientations. More qualitative tools like in-depth interview should be employed across diverse contexts in order to gain a rich understanding of the teachers' management approaches.

7. References

- Aliakbari, M & Heidarzadi, M. (2015). The relationship between EFL teachers' beliefs and actual practices of classroom management. *Cogent Education*, 2, 1039255.
- Amin, M. E. (1994). Gender as a discriminating factor in the evaluation of teaching. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 19 (2), 135-143.
- Brophy, J. (1988). Educating teachers about managing classrooms and students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 4, 1-18.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. White Plains, NY: Pearson.
- Burden, P. R. (2005). *Powerful classroom management strategies: Motivating students to learn*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Cerit, Y., Yüksel, S. (2015). Teachers' perceptions of classroom management orientations in Turkish and Latvia contexts: A comparative study. *Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in the World*, 5(3), 1-10.
- DeLong, M. and D. Winter. 1998. Addressing Difficulties with Student-Centered Instruction. *PRIMUS*, (4), 340-364.
- Doyle (2006 Doyle, W. (2006). Classroom organization and management. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (3rd ed.). New York: Simon and Schuster.
- Emmer, E. T., & Stough, L. M. (2001). Classroom Management: A Critical Part of Educational Psychology, With Implications for Teacher Education. *Educational Psychologist*, 36(2), 103-112.
- Esmaeeli, M. (2002). Classroom management. *Roshd Journal*, 4, 12-29.
- Foutz, A. (2005). Classroom Management Plan, Retrieved 2017 from <http://www.calstatela.edu/faculty/classmgmt.html>.
- Fowler, J., & Şaraplı, O. (2010). Classroom management: What ELT students expect. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 3, 94-97.
- Glickman, C. D. & Tamashiro, R.T. (1980). Clarifying teachers' beliefs about discipline. *Educational Leadership*, 37, 459-464.
- Goyette, R., Dore, R., & Dion, E. (2000). Pupils' misbehaviors and the reactions and causal attributions of physical education student teachers: A sequential analysis. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 20, 3 - 14.
- Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2007). Learning opportunities in preschool and early elementary classrooms. In R. Pianta, M. Cox & K. Snow (Eds.), *School readiness and the transition to kindergarten in the era of accountability* (pp. 49-84). Baltimore: Brookes.
- Horak, W., & Roubinek, D. (1982). *Alternative education programs: Their effect on selected student's attitudes* (ERIC Reproduction No. ED207961, Arizona, United States of America).

- Karp, H., Fuller, C., & Sirias, D. (2002). *Bridging the boomer Xer gap. Creating authentic teams for high performance at work*. Palo Alto, CA: DaviesBlack Publishing.
- Landau, B. M. (2001). *Teaching classroom management: A stand-alone necessity for preparing new teachers*. Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Seattle, WA, April 2001 (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 453 165).
- Long, J. D. & Frye, V. H. (1989). *Making it till Friday*, 4th ed. Princeton, NJ: Princeton Book Company, Inc.
- Martin, N. K., & Zin, Y. (1997). *Attitudes and Beliefs Regarding Classroom Management Style: Differences Between Male and Female Teachers*. Paper presented at the 20th Annual Conference of the Southwest Educational Research Association, Austin, TX., January 1997.
- Martin, N. K., Yin, Z., & Baldwin, B. (1998). Construct validation of the attitudes and beliefs on classroom control inventory. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, 33(2), 6-15.
- Martin, N. K., Yin, Z., & Mayall, H. (2006). *Classroom management training, teaching experience and gender: do these variables impact teachers' attitudes and beliefs toward classroom management style?* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association, Austin.
- Martin, N. K., & Sass, D. A. (2010). Construct validation of the behavior and instructional management scale. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 1124–1135.
- Psunder, M. (2004). How effective is school discipline in preparing students to become responsible citizens? Slovenian teachers' and students' views. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21, 273-286.
- Rahimi, M., & Asadollahi, F. (2012). On the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' classroom management orientations and teaching style. *Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 31, 49–55.
- Savage, T. V., & Savage, M. K. (2009). *Successful Classroom Management and Discipline: Teaching Self-Control and Responsibility* (3rd edition). Sage Publications, Inc.
- Shinn, M. R., Walker, H. M., & Stoner, G. (Eds.). (2002). *Interventions for academic and behavior problems: Preventive and remedial approaches*. Silver Springs, MD: National Association of School Psychologists.
- Shin, S. & Koh, M.S. (2007). A cross-cultural study of teachers' beliefs and strategies on classroom behavior management in urban American and Korean school systems. *Education and Urban Society*, 39(2), 286-309.
- Tal, C. (2010). Case studies to deepen understanding and enhance classroom management skills in preschool teacher training. *Early Childhood Edu Journal*, 38, 143-152.
- Weinstein, M.H. (1996). Improving safety programs through total quality. *Occupational Hazards*, 58(8).
- Witcher, A. E., Jiao, Q. G., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Collins, K. M., James, T. L., & Minor, L. C. (2008). Preservice teachers' perceptions of characteristics of an effective teacher as a function of discipline orientation: A mixed methods investigation. *The Teacher Educator*, 43(4), 279-301.
- Wolfgang, C. H., & Glickman, C. D. (1980). *Solving discipline problems: Strategies for classroom teachers* (1st ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Wolfgang, C. H. (1995). *Solving discipline problems: Strategies for classroom teachers* (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Yazdanmehr, E., & Akbari, R. (2015). An expert EFL teacher's class management. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 3 (2), 1-13.
- Yılmaz, H. & Çavaş, P.H. (2008). The effect of the teaching practice on pre-service elementary teachers' science teaching efficacy and classroom management beliefs. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science & Technology Education*, 4(1), 45-54.
- Zaremba, S. B. & Fluck, S. E. (1995, March). *Gender and patterns of communication*. Proceedings of the 9th Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology (ERIC Document #ED389378).

Opinions of the Advisors towards the Counseling Process in the Post-graduate Education

Adil Çoruk, Burcu Bilir, Şefika Melike Çağatay

1. Introduction

The most important task in the development of a country falls on highly qualified work force. Qualified postgraduate education in the training of the manpower needed is of vital importance, especially for underdeveloped and developing countries (Sevinç, 2001). Postgraduate education is a training program that train individuals who can research, produce, are creative and sensitive to country problems (Sayan & Aksu, 2005). Oğuzkan (1981) defines postgraduate education as education given to those who have received a bachelor's degree in order to provide specialization by doing master's or doctorate degree in a field they are interested in. According to Çakar (2001), postgraduate education is a training program that trains high-level expertise with higher knowledge and effectiveness than undergraduate education.

Variş (1972) describes the general purpose of postgraduate education as training high-quality manpower such as scientists and faculty members that the country needs, solving country problems and conducting research on technical field development. According to Heper (2000), postgraduate programs provide opportunities for faculty members to discuss their research and receive feedback from students. For this reason, it is necessary to give importance to the postgraduate programs. The elite in society, especially in higher education and science, can be trained through doctoral programs in universities. Postgraduate education is a link that makes and strengthens the integrity of teaching and research in higher education (Tuzcu, 2003).

One of the basic elements affecting the quality of the postgraduate education period is advisors. Advisors are people who train scientists for the future. A advisor should be able to transfer his experiences to the students and guide them to show the right way (Köser & Mercanlioğlu, 2010). Rose (1988) emphasizes the role of advisors for success in postgraduate education. According to Rose, a advisor checks and constructs the dissertation preparations and maintains links with the institutions and communities necessary for the conduct of the research. Moses (1992) states that traditionally advocates three distinct stages of advisor involvement: helping the student to choose a viable topic and initiate data collection (intensive), monitoring student progress (less intensive), and writing up (intensive).

Throughout the period of postgraduate education studies, a key person in a student's life is his or her research advisor; therefore, an effective working relationship between the advisor and the student is crucial (Bair & Hawoth, 2004; Murphy, Bain & Conard, 2007; Shariff, Ramli & Ahmad, 2014; Tahir, Ghani, Atek & Manaf, 2012). The student-advisor relationship is an important determinant of the quality of supervision process (Ali, Watson & Dhingra, 2016). Cannister (2009), Barnes and Austin (2009), Turner and Thompson (1993), Davis (2010) and Johnson et al. (2000) also point out that a advisor plays an important role in the success and satisfaction of students in postgraduate education. According to Ives and Rowley (2005), a good consultant-client relationship provides satisfaction to students and helps to speed up the graduate education process. Relationships that students have with their advisors determine the quality of a dissertation they will write (Heath, 2002). The communication styles of advisors and students and their mutual anticipations affect the dissertation process and its outcomes (Summak et al., 2010).

Students experienced many difficulties during their research process. Some of them are not familiar with the research topic and some of them are lack of knowledge about research methodology. Numerous research have pointed out that there are high proportions of graduate student who fail to complete their studies within the time given. Many factors contributing to this and the major problem is related to the advisory contribution. Lack of student-advisor relationship will caused them to extend their studies and have difficulty to finish their project. This situation will also lead to a poor quality of students' research. (Abiddin, Ismail & Ismail, 2011). Trigwell and Dunbar-Goddet (2005)

point out that more frequent advisor meetings are associated with students' perceptions of a more supportive research environment; and students who experience more supportive supervision are more likely to say that they develop graduate skills and express higher satisfaction with their research experience. For this reason, it is important to determine the difficulties experienced in the postgraduate education process and resolve them according to the opinions of the advisors. The focus of this study is to determine the perceptions of the advisors about their experiences with the students in the postgraduate education process.

The Purpose of the Study

According to the Regulation on Postgraduate Education and Training (2017), the doctoral program gives the student the ability to conduct an independent research, interpret and analyze scientific problems with a broad and deep perspective, and to reach new synthesis. In this process, it is very important to work in harmony with the student and the advisor. However, some problems arise during this process. The aim of this research is to present the opinions of the advisors on the consulting process in the postgraduate education and the problems they encountered in this process. For this purpose, the following questions were searched for in the research:

1. What are the opinions of the advisors regarding the consultant setting process and the problems encountered in this process?
2. What are the opinions of the advisors on the process of determining the dissertation subject and preparing the dissertation proposal and the problems encountered in this process?
3. What are the opinions of the advisors on the dissertation writing process and the problems encountered in this process?

2. Method

All This study is a qualitative research. Creswell (2013) states that qualitative research is appropriate for the investigations aimed at exploring rather than using existing information or adopting existing research findings. The qualitative approach is designed as case study. As Merriam (1998) points out, a qualitative case study involves an intensive, holistic definition and analysis of a situation, a phenomenon, or a social unit.

In this study, advisors who deal with the advising process in the context of graduate programs were identified. The current situation is limited to academics who consult and/or mentor in doctoral programs in the field of educational sciences at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University.

As the data collection tool; a semi-structured interview form prepared by the researchers was used. The interview form is based on the relevant field literature. A pilot study was conducted with two academics who were out of the study group. The form was rearranged after the pilot interviews and applied to the study group.

Study Group

The study group was determined by the criterion sampling approach from purposeful sampling methods. The reasoning behind the choice of purposeful sampling is to select wealthy situations so that the research can be deeper (Patton, 2014). The academics who have Ph.D. in the Department of Educational Sciences (this is the criteria of sampling) at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University constitute the study group of this research. The interviews were conducted with 5 academics who are 2 females and 3 males before the interviews.

The researchers conducted face-to-face interviews and recorded them using a voice recorder. In addition, new and old regulations for graduate education were included to data sources. The researchers applied descriptive analysis method for data analysis process. As to the inter coder reliability formula of Miles and Huberman (1994) [opinion consensus / (opinion consensus + opinion discretion) x 100, it is calculated as 80%. This result shows coding has a high-level of reliability and can be accepted.

3. Findings

In the research questions, the problems related to the advising process were resized. Research questions were accepted as a theme in the analysis of data.

1. Advisor Determination Process

Under this theme, the categories are explained as follows. In accordance with the first purpose of our research, participants were asked "Who is an advisor?"

"...the master-apprentice relationship. / advisor's working principles, student involvement, communication and, as a result, a more qualified product emerges" (G1).

"... it is like a compass. Life coach, academic visionary " (G2).

"... guiding the student correctly". (G3)

"... the process of strengthening the student in a scientific way." (G4)

It appears that the respondents' answers identified the advisor as "the person directing the student".

Advisor assignment.

Another question directed at the participant advisor setting process relates to the assignment of advisors.

Current state. Participants had put forward different perspectives as expressed in the following opinions:

"... a correspondence between the students and the instructors takes place within an official procedure" (G1).

"... More student teachers are identified. We allow students to choose in some branches of education " (G2).

"... students identify and rank" (G3, G4, G5).

Participants pointed out that while the advisor explained the current situation regarding the process of appointment with the above views, it is necessary to take the opinion of the student in the process of "should-be" advisor setting.

"... to take lessons from student inquiry / advisor" (G1-G5).

Participants also comment on the advisor change like this: *"... Harmful (G1, G2, G4); They can be changed (G3, G5).*

Problems.

The opinions of the academics on the problems encountered during the advisor setting process are as follows: *"... the problems brought by academic titles" (G1, G2); "... not to take time and leave student time" (G1); "... staff trouble (in quantity)" (G3); "... the consciousness of the lesson" (G3); "... Advisor change" (G2).*

2. Determining Dissertation Subject and Preparing Dissertation Proposal

Questions related to the process of determining the dissertation topic and preparing the dissertation proposal were analyzed in the categories of "determining the dissertation topic, preparing the dissertation proposal and problem categories.

Determining Dissertation Subject. The views of the academics on the process of determining the dissertation topic differs as in the following:

"... the intellectual and preliminary information of the learner, a comprehensive literature search" (G1, G2, G3).

"... the advisor chooses the subject or offers some subject proposals" (G4).

"... the advisor directs the subject if he or she can not identify the subject (G5).

It is the opinion of the advisor who consulted that the subject should be determined by himself, but that it is based on a sound literature review.

Dissertation Proposal Preparation Process.

In the process of preparing the dissertation proposal, the participants explained this like that; "... to make the research comprehensive and full of research on the dissertation topic" (G1); "... making frequent conversations" (G2); "... create a projection of bird flight" (G3) process.

Problems.

Under this theme, participants classify problems as "student-focused and subject-oriented" problems. The views and problems are exemplified:

"... if a subject that the learner does not want works, he is reluctant" (G4).

"...Marriage, having children" (G5).

"... subject area and problem situation" (G5),

3. Dissertation Writing Process

The opinions about the dissertation writing process are explained in the following seminar / field specialization courses, dissertation tracking committees, dissertation completion, defense categories.

Seminar, Field Specialization Courses.

Participants emphasize that seminar and field specialization courses must be carried out in a healthy way.

"... I see these courses as absolutely necessary courses that must be fulfilled" (G1), (G5).

"... Students should take the seminar course well in that semester without going to the dissertation proposal. In that seminar course, you need to summarize the research and to synthesize it in an ordeal, covering all lessons the doctor has taken during his Ph.D." (G2), (G3), (G5).

"... Field specialization courses must be done" (G1-G5).

Seminars and field specialization courses emphasize the absence of students even if emphasis is given by advisors.

Dissertation Monitoring Committees. Though the emphasis is on the functioning of the dissertation monitoring committees, the participants note that some advisors do not do it properly.

"... there is also serious making on paper" (G3, G4).

"... very important, in terms of creating issues such as follow-up, direction and method" (G1, G2).

Completion of a doctoral dissertation is accomplished by the recommendation and approval of the dissertation advisory committee.

Finish of the dissertation

The participants' opinions on deciding to finish the dissertation are as follows:

"... it is decided together with the Committee" (G1, G3).

"... the advisor decides" (G1, G2).

"... In order for the dissertation to finish, the counselor and members of the dissertation monitoring committee should say" yes this is the study ". This is unhealthy in us. A date is set before the person's work is finished. We see that the process continues with the advisors' approval, mainly " (G4).

"... the advisor decides, sometimes accepted for the advisor's sake" (G5).

These opinions reveal that, while deciding whether to complete the dissertation, decision-making with the advisor and the committee is both acceptable and necessary, sometimes there are different decision-making situations for advisor and student to enter the student's test.

Defense.

The final stage after the completion of a dissertation, the dissertation suggests that there should be objective, criticized and pre-prepared examination for participant's opinions about the defense examination.

"... telling your research is easier if dissertation monitoring committees succeeds" (G1)

"... the advisor should be objective and criticized in defense" (G1, G3).

"... to make preparations for the presentation of the learner. Advisor should be your support "(G2)

"... the advisor's decision to make the healthiest decision is important" (G4, G5).

On the other hand, the participants have a consensus on the appropriateness of the prepared dissertation to the relevant institute's dissertation writing guide: "*The dissertation should be in accordance with the institute's writing guidelines*" (G1, G2, G3, G4, G5).

4. Discussion

Katz (1997) describes five stages of the postgraduate education: (1) preparation for research, (2) graduate program design, (3) proposal development, (4) dissertation research and (5) dissertation defense (Tonbul, 2017). Students deal with issues such as learning how to conduct a good research, interacting with the advisor, writing reports, making presentations and trying to get originality in the this dissertation is study that they have done in the undergraduate education process (Cryer, 2000). It is expected that the students who reach to the dissertation writing stage will gain the knowledge, skills and behaviors required for this process. When the relevant literature is examined, there are research findings that students do not earn enough in the course of their proficiency (Denicolo, 2004; Katz, 1997). In this respect, in determining the topic of the dissertation and especially in the dissertation writing phase, the advisory process is more important.

The nature of advisor support, advisor's time allocation and expertise play a key role in achieving the desired level of research skills and attitudes of the graduate or doctoral student (Le & Seale, 2007). The consulting process in post-graduate education is very important in terms of qualified work and scientific knowledge production. According to the results of this research, the opinions of the academics about how this process occurs currently and how it should be ideally show that they do not overlap. It has become clear that the consultant selection process is not as desirable due to the reasons such as inadequate teaching staff, students' concentration on certain people, and titles of instructors.

In this study, in the stages of selecting the dissertation topic and preparing the dissertation proposal, the results reveal that there are some problems originating from both student-oriented and academics-oriented factors. It is seen that the students try to determine the dissertation topic without conducting adequate research on the area they are interested in and there are some mistakes. Bakioglu and Gurdal (2001) emphasized that doctoral students had taken various courses on research skills and began studying dissertation enthusiastically, but the fact that many of the students were not equipped with basic skills were noticed at the stage of finding a suitable topic. At this stage, the students organize their literature review and have difficulties in making the drafts they make meaningful. Further, a large number of students stop working since they think they cannot complete the dissertation or loose time (Bakioglu & Gurdal, 2001). Thus, the importance of the advisory process is emerging at this point. that the study results show that the dissertation would be more qualified when doctoral research process successfully executed within a satisfactory student-adviser interaction from selecting a research topic to the defense stage. In addition, it is emphasized that dissertation proposal should be considered in a very detailed way and a good dissertation proposal is one of the most important stages of the dissertation. The research conducted by Karadağ (2009) emphasized that the research in education has made considerable progress in recent years, but the field of educational sciences in Turkey is behind this progress. As a solution to this situation, it is suggested that students and advisors should be more careful in the selection of subjects to be studied in postgraduate studies.

Suggestions

The relationship between advisor and student in post-graduate education is very important. In order for this process to be more qualified, several criteria must be established since it is necessary to reduce the course load of faculty members. For this purpose, the number of teaching staff needs to be increased and in a planned manner.

For better processing of the dissertation phase, Seminar and Field Expertise courses should be done more efficiently. Some practices that give functionality should be put into these lessons. Advisors and

students should be open to the views of different academics during the dissertation. In determining the dissertation topics, the value of the contribution to the area and the needs of the area should also be considered. In particular, incentive precautions might be taken to make the dissertation monitoring committees more efficient. Since doctoral dissertation defenses will also contribute to the development of other students, it can also be open to teaching staff and other students.

5. References

- Abiddin, N.Z., Ismail, A. & Ismail, A. (2011). Effective supervisory approach in enhancing postgraduate research studies. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 1(2), 206-217.
- Ali, P.A., Watson, R. & Dhingra, K. (2016). Postgraduate research students' and their supervisors' attitudes towards supervision. *International Journal of Doctoral Studies*, 11, 227-241.
- Bair, C.R., & Hawoth, J. G. (2004). Doctoral student attrition and persistence. In J. C. Smart (Ed.), *Higher education: Handbook of theory and research*. Dordrecht: Kulwer.
- Bakioğlu, A., & Gürdal, A. (2001) Lisansüstü tezlerde danışman ve öğrencilerin rol algıları: Yönetim için göstergeler. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 21, 9-18.
- Barnes, B.J. & Austin, A.E. (2009). The role of doctoral advisors: A look at advising from the advisor's perspective. *Innovation Higher Education*, 33(5), 297-315.
- Cannister, M.W. (2009). Faculty mentoring and the spiritual wellbeing of college freshmen. *Journal of Research on Christian Education*, 8(2), 197-221.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri Beş Yaklaşım Göre Nitel Araştırma ve Araştırma Deseni* (M. Bütün ve Ş. B. Demir, Çev.). Ankara: Siyasal Kitabevi.
- Cryer P. (2000). *The research students guide to success*. Buckingham, Philadelphia: Open University Press. Retrieved from [http://www.cycledoctoralfactec.com/uploads/7/9/0/7/7907144/\[pat_cryer\]_the_research_students_guide_to_succes_bokos-z1_.pdf](http://www.cycledoctoralfactec.com/uploads/7/9/0/7/7907144/[pat_cryer]_the_research_students_guide_to_succes_bokos-z1_.pdf)
- Çakar, Ö. (2001). *Fen bilimleri alanında bilim adamı yetiştirme: Lisansüstü eğitim, bilim adamı yetiştirme lisansüstü eğitim*. Ankara: TÜBA Bilimsel Toplantı Serileri: 7, 65-75.
- Davis, D.J. (2010). The academic influence of mentoring upon African American undergraduate aspirants to the professoriate. *The Urban Review*, 42(2), 143-158.
- Denicolo, P. (2004). Doctoral supervision of the veneer of satisfaction and competence. *Studies in Higher Education*, 29(6), 693-707.
- Heath, T. (2002). A qualitative analysis of PhD students' views of supervision. *High Education Research & Development*, 21(1), 41-53.
- Heper, M. (2000). *2000'li yılların eşliğinde Türkiye'de devlet ve üniversite, Dünya'da ve Türkiye'de bilim, etik ve üniversite*. Ankara: TÜBA Yayınları Bilimsel Toplantı Serileri: 1, 13-21.
- Ives, G. & Rowley, G. (2005). Supervisor selection or allocation and continuity of supervision: PhD students' progress and outcomes. *Studies in Higher Education*, 30(5), 535-555.
- Johnson, W.B., Huwe, J.M. & Lucas, J. L. (2000). Rational mentoring. *Journal of Rational-Emotive & Cognitive-Behavior Therapy*, 18(1), 39-54.
- Karadağ, E. (2009). Eğitim bilimleri alanında yapılmış doktora tezlerinin tematik açıdan incelenmesi. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 10 (3), 75-87.
- Katz, E. L. (1997). Key players in the dissertation process? *New Directions for Higher Education*, 25(3), 5-16.
- Köser, B.D. & Mercanlıoğlu, Ç. (2010). Akademik danışmanlık hizmetinin önemi ve Türkiye'deki üniversitelerde akademik danışmanlık hizmetinin değerlendirilmesi. *Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Dergisi*, Cilt 2, Sayı 2.
- Le, S. & Seale, C. (2007). Managing criticism in PhD supervision: A qualitative case study. *Studies in Higher Education*, 32(4), 511-526.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative Research and Case Study Applications in Education*. San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Miles, M. B. ve Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook* (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Moses, I. (1992). Research training and supervision. Proceedings from the ARC and AVCC sponsored conference in Research Training and Supervision held at Canberra in May, 1992. (AVCC and ARC, Canberra).
- Murphy, N., Bain, J.D. & Conard, L.(2007). Orientation to research higher degree supervision. *Higher Education*, 53, 209-234.
- Oğuzkan, F. (1981). *Eğitim terimleri sözlüğü*. Ankara: Türk Dil Kurumu Yayınları.
- Patton, M. Q. (2014). *Nitel Araştırma ve Değerlendirme Yöntemleri*. (Çev. M. Bütün ve S. B. Demir). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Rose, S.D. (1988). Practice experiments for doctoral dissertations: research training and knowledge building. *Journal of Social Work Education*, (2), 115-22.
- Shariff, N., Ramli, K.I. and Ahmad, R. (2014). Factors contributing to the timely completion of PhD at the Malaysian IPTA: The case of University Utara Malaysia. Proceedings of International Conference on Postgraduate Research, 131-141.
- Sayan, Y & Aksu, H. (2005). Akademik personel olmadan lisansüstü eğitim yapan bireylerin karşılaştıkları sorunlar üzerine nitel çalışma. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Buca Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, Özel Sayı:1, 59-66.
- Sevinç, B. (2001). Türkiye’de lisansüstü eğitim uygulamaları, sorunlar ve öneriler. *Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi*, 34(1), 125-137.
- Summak, S.M., Summak, E.G. & Balkar, B. (2010). Yüksek lisans tez sürecinde danışman ve öğrencilerin görev ve sorumluluklarına ilişkin beklentilerinin incelenmesi. *Çağdaş Eğitim Dergisi*, 35(372), 23-31.
- Tonbul, Y. (2017). Sosyal bilimler enstitülerinin lisansüstü eğitimin niteliğini artırmadaki rolü. *Yükseköğretim ve Bilim Dergisi*, 7 (1), 150-162.
- Trigwell, K. & Dunbar-Goddet, H. (2005). *The research experience of postgraduate research students at the University of Oxford*. Oxford: Institute for the Advancement of University Learning, University of Oxford.
- Varış, F. (1972). *Türkiye’de lisansüstü eğitim: Pozitif bilimlerin temel ve uygulamalı alanlarında*. Ankara: A.Ü. Eğitim Fakültesi Yayını, No: 23.
- Tahir, I.M., Ghani, N.A., Atek, E.S.E. & Manaf, Z. A. (2012). Effective supervision from research students’ perspective. *International Journal of Education*, 4(2), 211-222.
- Turner, C.S.V. & Thompson, J.R. (1993). Socializing women doctoral students: Minority and majority experiences. *Review of Higher Education*, 16(3), 355-370.
- Tuzcu, G. (2003). Lisansüstü öğretim için yurtdışına öğrenci göndermenin planlanması. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi*, Sayı:160.
- YOK. (2017). Lisansüstü Eğitim Öğretim Yönetmeliği, [Erişim Tarihi: 25.04.2017 http://www.yok.gov.tr/documents/10279/23688337/lisansustu_egitim_ve_ogretim_y%C3%B6n_etmeliği.pdf/8451c3e1-7975-40f1-bc81-3ca01cb288c8]

Teaching Mathematics And Material Development Process For Total Blind And Visually Impaired Students

Jale İpek, Duygu Vargör Vural

Introduction

Mathematics is a course in which concepts are symbolized by symbols, these concepts are shaped by operational skills, and therefore, visual and spatial skills are heavily used. The basic aim and behavior of the mathematics course is to develop the students' problem analysis, comprehension, critical thinking, associating and solving skills and determine appropriate methods for this. There are individuals who live in the houses within the borders of the Republic of Turkey and are reported to have a disability rate of at least 20% in the health report [TÜİK]. In survey carried out by the Ministry of Family and Social Policies, % 8.4 of disabled people consists of visually impaired people. Visually impaired students include students with totally blind and partially blind students. Visually impaired individuals in Turkey are studying in primary and secondary schools in different schools (Primary school for the visually impaired), in secondary education and higher education, they are studying as inclusive education.

Persons with disabilities must be educated and professed on equal terms with other members of society. When we investigate how a visually impaired student can learn mathematics, there is no available material or method defined. Often solutions such as drawing in the palm, making the equations in a single line (Brazier, Parry & Fischbach, 2000) and printing them on embossed paper (Thompson, 2005) have been tried. Only a small number of visually impaired people have access to this information and fewer of them have been able to use them. However, mathematics is a discipline needed in every field of life. For this purpose, the educators should think about how visually impaired students will be able to learn maths and make efforts to spread the solutions they find (Bülbul et al., 2012).

These studies should be shared and different methods and techniques should be used for visually impaired students. Since visually impaired students cannot use their visual sense in math and geometry education, different materials such as magnifying glass, embossed tools are used. As a result of the studies done, the working senses of the visual impairments do not show any superiority in terms of sensitivity according to the people who have eyesight. Their only superiority is their experience of interpreting the stimuli they receive through these senses (Ench, 1981). It is understood from this that it is necessary to give importance to learning with the senses apart from the visual sense in the education of the visually impaired students. Students should be trained to use their other senses (Demir & Sen, 2009). There is a false misconception that these students will not learn or understand some subjects. For example, during the national examinations held in Turkey, these students are exempted from certain subjects. However, with the help of the right methods and materials, it is possible to understand these topics with the course activities.

The use of materials in learning environments creates a situation that centers on the student, provides opportunities for richer learning, provides that students do mathematics and like it, makes mathematics teaching fun, gives opportunity for mathematics to be written and discussed. There are a lot of researches that the education carried out by developing the materials that make the mathematics relate to daily life and to make it concrete and touched by hand contribute positively to motivation of the students, the desire to participate in the lessons and the achievements. (Birgin and Tutak, 2006, Gündüz et al., 2008). Visually impaired students do not differ from those who see with respect to cognitive and mental competence, but as they cannot use visual elements, they need to use touching-hearing, then smelling more to integrate knowledge.

It is revealed it must not be forgotten that visually impaired students are skillful at solving problem, making decision, making logical analysis of ideas, systematic planning and it is very important to

learn by practising in students who have this kind of style. (Demir and Sen, 2009). For this reason, various activities should be prepared by the teacher with the help of appropriate materials. However, if the teacher is visually impaired, it is not possible to have activities that require the teacher to use the sense of sight. For this reason, both teacher and student factor should be considered. The studies on visually impaired students until today have been ignored in the case of visually impaired teachers. Due to the difficulties in writing some images in mathematics and geometry as Braille (embossment), difficulties in writing algebraic expressions, visually impaired students suffer from problems requiring visual and spatial intelligence skills.

In addition, these students cannot get support from interactive boards because they cannot use features such as video player, audio on / off set by screen readers, fast forward and rewind.

In this work done, mathematics teacher's blindness prevents the use of technological equipment in the classroom environment. Documents and e-books in Eba within the frame of Fatih project are not suitable for the visually impaired students, and this creates the unjust suffering for disabled students for using interactive boards.

In our age, developments in the field of technology have increased the importance of education. The effort to change the quality of the educational system and human power has gained importance. With the increasing value granted to human beings, approaches centered on individuals with disabilities have come to the forefront. Due to the fact that special education is a specialist field, it is necessary to increase the quality and quantity of the teachers to work in this area (Öztürk, 2008). Individual studies or group work can be done in the education of visually impaired students. Here, the method and the class activities that the teacher applies are gaining importance. For this reason, importance should be attached to the development of new methods and tools for disabled people in material development courses in Primary and Secondary Mathematics Teaching Undergraduate Programs.

In the light of all this information, the aim of this study is to present alternative methods and techniques for visually impaired mathematics teacher to teach basic geometry subjects by using similar materials used in previously achieved studies to the visually impaired students. It has been shown special importance that the materials used are easy to find, portable, understandable, feasible, cost-effective and applicable to touch. Since no studies have been conducted on visually impaired teachers in the studies carried out up till today, it is aimed to provide solutions to the difficulties that these teachers have experienced in teaching and use of teaching materials.

The purpose of this study is to prepare activities that can be used both for visually impaired teachers and visually impaired students and that can be used later as well.

Method

In this study, the case study has been used among descriptive research methods (Çepni, 2010). In this approach, there is an effort to identify the topic worked on, the fine details as they are and to reveal the cause-effect relations without generalization. The application prepared in this direction lasted for 2 weeks in 10 class hours in Aşık Veysel Visual Impairments Secondary School (Aşık Veysel Görme Engelliler Ortaokulu) during spring semester of 2016-2017 Academic Year. The activities were conducted on five visually impaired 7th Grade, four 8th Grade students of a visually impaired mathematics teacher.

During the research process, a classroom environment in which students can express themselves easily was prepared and processes of natural descriptions of the students were observed. Based on the principle "Every child can learn mathematics", it was aimed that disabled individuals could learn mathematics as well.

In the work done, students have been provided to try to find out the properties of these objects by touching geometric shapes and objects in geometry lesson which has a visualized curriculum. The objectives determined by the Ministry of National Education were targeted in the activities done.

It is sought to answer the following problems in the investigation depending on this purpose:

For 7th Grade students:

- Can s/he explain the edge and angle properties of regular polygons?
- Can s/he determine the diagonals of the polygons, internal and external angles, calculate the sum of internal angles and external angles measurements?
- Can s/he identify rectangle, parallelogram, trapezoid and equilateral quadrilaterals, and determine the angle properties?
- Can s/he create equilateral quadrangular and trapezoid area correlations and solve related problems?

For 8th Grade students:

- Can s/he know the right prisms?
- Can s/he know the basic features and elements of the right prisms?
- Can s/he construct a right circular cylinder and draw its development?
- Can s/he create the surface area correlations of the right circular cylinder and solve the related problems?
- Can s/he create the volume correlations of the right circular cylinder and solve the related problems?
- Can s/he recognize the right pyramid and identify the basic elements?
- Can s/he build a big right pyramid and draw its development?
- Can s/he know the right cone and can identify the basic elements?
- Can s/he build the right cone and draw the development?

Prior to the study, necessary observations and examinations were made regarding the scope of the subject and the selection of materials that could be used, and the thoughts of the visually impaired and non-visually impaired teachers were taken into consideration. The selection of the materials needed to design the subject content and activities in the solution direction was determined through dialogues and observations with the students and teachers. It has been determined that there have been problems as a result of the fact that the geometry curriculum is based on visual theories and that there is no room for any mathematics material on the schools. For this reason, polygons and quadrilateral for 7th Grade students, and activities related to geometric objects for 8th Grade students were prepared using appropriate materials. Plastic and wooden bars, geometry board and rubber, embossed polygonal board, pattern blocks, and polygons prepared from the cardboard were used in activities held with 7th grade students. The embossed polygonal board is taken from the 3D printer and the figures are printed as embossed. Wood and plastic unit cubes, cardboard, plastic and wooden geometric objects, open and closed forms of geometric objects were used in the activities held with the 8th grade students (Figure 1).



Figure 1. Some of the materials used during the lesson

In order to achieve the objectives above, 7th grade students were tried to grasp the polygons by using plastic and wooden bars, geometry board, pattern blocks, embossed polygonal boards and polygons prepared from the cardboard and by conducting activities appropriate for the level of the class and students. It has been provided that the students discovered the polygons and their features, compared and generalized from the their thinking techniques by using inductive method (Table 1).

Teaching Mathematics And Material Development Process

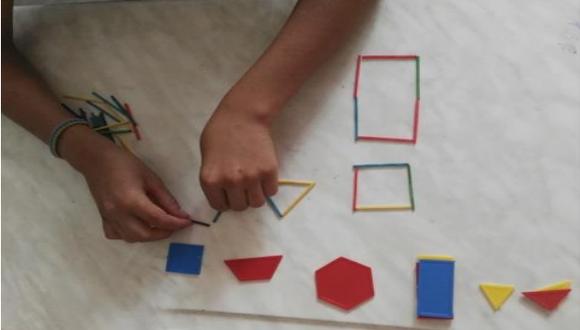
<p>1) The concept of angle, corner, edge is explained with the help of pipettes and plastic rods and the definition of polygon is given. In addition, the concepts of diagonal concave and convex polygons were taught and students were able to imagine them by touching.</p>	
<p>2) Using the geometry board, all students were asked to make polygons with the help of plastic nails and rubbers. Concave and convex polygons were described with the paper folding activity. They are asked to make concave and convex polygons.</p> <p>3) Using the embossed polygonal board, it has been asked that they recognize concave and convex polygons by touching them.</p> <p>4) With the help of pattern blocks, students are asked to find triangles, quadrilateral, pentagons and hexagons by touching them and to determine them.</p>	
<p>5) The exterior angles of the polygons are shown and the sum of the exterior angles is shown to be 360 degrees with the help of plane coating.</p> <p>6) Students are asked to divide the any polygon into triangles with the help of pipettes, and students have been provided to find the internal angles of the polygon.</p>	
<p>1) Students have been ensured to recognize and learn the angles and characteristics by touching rectangular, square, parallelogram, trapezoid and equilateral quadrangle shapes prepared from thick cardboards.</p> <p>2) Students are asked to make rectangular, square, parallelogram, trapezoid and equilateral quadrangle shapes using a pipette. By using the geometry board, students have been ensured to locate the relations belonging to the quadrilaterals.</p>	

Table 1. Step by Step Usage of Materials in Teaching 7th Grade objectives

In the activities conducted for 8th grade students, students were ensured to learn the basic elements and characteristics of objects by touching the open and closed shapes of right prism, circular cylinder, pyramid and geometric objects made of plastic and cardboard in the form of cone. The activities and

materials were also explained to the visually impaired mathematics teacher and aimed at using in the following lessons (Table 2).

<p>1) By putting sand, pasta, water etc. into the geometric objects prepared from thick cardboard (triangle, quadrilateral, pentagon whose heights are the same and in A4 size), students were taught the concept of volume.</p>	
<p>2) Students are ensured to learn basic elements and their characteristics by touching the right prism, circular cylinder, pyramid and cone shapes prepared from plastic or cardboard.</p>	
<p>3) Students are asked to create area and volume relations by touching the open and closed shapes of the right prism, circular cylinder, pyramid and cone prepared from plastic or cardboard.</p>	

Table 2. Step by Step Usage of Materials in Teaching 8th Grade Objectives

It was also observed that visually impaired students were able to answer questions when they were given the open and closed forms of the questions including shapes according to the students. For example, students were able to give the correct answers when the right cylinders and the right rectangle prisms were given the clear shapes for the questions below. (Figure 2).

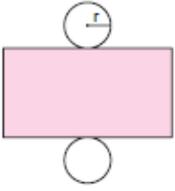
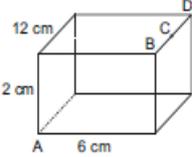
 <p>Bir dik dairesel silindirin açılımı olan yukarıdaki şekilde boyalı bölgenin alanı 48 cm^2 ve $r=3 \text{ cm}$ olduğuna göre, silindirin yüksekliği kaç santimetre olur? (π yi 3 alınız.)</p> <p>A) 2 B) $\frac{8}{3}$ C) 3 D) $\frac{9}{2}$</p>	 <p>Şekilde ayrıtları 2 cm, 6 cm ve 12 cm olan dikdörtgenler prizması verilmiştir. C, [BD]'nin orta noktası olduğuna göre, prizmanın açılımı yapıldığında A ile C noktası arasındaki uzaklık en az kaç santimetre olur?</p> <p>A)5 B)10 C)15 D)20</p>
--	--

Figure 2. Some of the visual questions directed to visually impaired students

Activities were enriched by group work and individual studies based on cooperation in this process (Figure 3). At the same time, they did not use any calculation tool (cube-stone-case, Taylor case, abacus, step plate etc.) to develop the mental skills of the students. In addition, this study provided examples of easy-to-use activities for visually impaired teachers, thereby reducing the number of difficulties experienced during the course work.



Figure 3. Classroom environment in class activities

After the activities, the related questions in EBA were asked to the students and they were able to express themselves in class environment. Some of the answers that students give when asked about their thoughts after the activities are as follows:

"It was very enjoyable, I learned to calculate the area of the triangle, the square, the rectangle, the equilateral quadrangle, the trapezoid and the parallel edge."

"I understand better geometry course when we work with the help of materials by touching."

"By touching geometric shapes, I discovered their characteristics."

"Geometry is a very easy and enjoyable course."

"I can be successful at shaped questions if the open and closed forms of geometric objects are given to us during the exams."

"I can calculate the basic characteristics and elements, areas and volumes of right prisms. I learned very well. "

Conclusion And Recommendations

In this study, it is thought that the activities prepared by using material in Geometry lessons are effective on the better conception of geometric shapes and characteristics for the visually impaired students. Some observations were made at the end of the dialogues made with visually impaired students and visually impaired mathematics teachers as a result of teaching in which there are materials used according to the scope of the subjects. These observations were collected in four main groups:

1) Achievements of Visually Impaired Teacher: It has been learned from interviews with the visually impaired mathematics teacher that after the teacher completed his education at the faculty of education he began to work in visually impaired secondary school as he lost his sense of sight over time from the beginning of his teaching profession. So, he did not receive any education in the university about the ways in which a visually impaired teacher coped with the difficulties during teaching lesson. In the course of the study, teachers are informed about the materials they can use in the lessons and examples of activities they can prepare for the lessons are presented. At the end of the study, the mathematics teachers stated that he can apply the activities in his lessons and that he is affected positively from this study. He demanded that the samples to be sent to him for the reason that it is difficult for him to prepare the special materials prepared in such studies.

2) The development of mathematical process skills: It has been observed that visually impaired students learn geometrical shapes and characteristics of objects by touching them. It has been observed that students are able to imagine these forms in their minds and answer the questions by using mathematical process skills such as prediction, mental process, producing and using information, reasoning, associating, comparing and generalizing. It has come to the conclusion that students have improved their ability to use concept-processing knowledge. They also learned how to use the materials in their hands in geometry lessons.

3) Development of affective skills: It has been observed that the visually impaired students are willing to learn during the activities and they enjoy, collaborate with other students and question suitably, they find mathematics as appreciable, useful and worthwhile, they develop positive attitudes towards mathematics, they have confidence and they can express themselves. Some students stated that they gave up their prejudices that they would fail in geometry class because they lost the sense of sight. Thus, the most important goal of the National Curriculum established on the principle that "Every student can learn mathematics" was achieved.

4) The development of learning skills: As the visually impaired students do not have enough information and equipment on any geometric concepts and objects, it has been provided that they have had this experience by touching. After the activities, it was observed that they can calculate by relating different geometric concepts to each other and by manipulating geometric shapes and areas

and volumes of objects in their minds. In addition, it has also been concluded that students developed the skills of predicting from process skills, mental transaction skills and producing and using information skills.

5) Realization of learning objectives: It has been observed that 7th grade visually impaired students can define edge and angle characteristics of regular polygons, determine diagonal, internal and exterior angles, calculate the sum of internal and exterior angles measurements, identify rectangular, parallelogram, trapezoid and equilateral quadrangle, determine the angle characteristics, create the area relations of equilateral quadrangle and trapezoid and solve related problems better. It has been observed that the ability of 8th grade visually impaired students to recognize right prisms, to identify basic characteristics and elements, to construct right circular cylinders, right pyramid and right cone, to draw by imagining the development of it, to create surface area relations and to solve related problems, to create volume relations and to solve related problems has been developed. Thus, it has been concluded that the students' visual-spatial intelligence skills have been developed. It is also determined that the shaped questions directed to the students can be answered when embodied with the help of paper, plastic and cardboard materials.

After the study was carried out, the following feedbacks and suggestions were presented by visually impaired students attending the classes:

- Mathematics and geometry lessons should be done with the help of materials according to the contents of the subjects. These students expressed that they could learn geometric objects during these lessons by touching them and after that they could imagine the concept of cubes, rectangles prism, right cone and right cylinder.
- Students with visual impairment stated that they will be able to answer these questions if they are given the suitable materials to them during the national examinations.
- Students with visual impairments stated that they would have difficulty in lessons with visual subjects such as geometry, mathematics and physics during their secondary education. They are worried that they will be victims in situations such as not having adequate equipment in schools, not being able to benefit from the interactive board, and teachers not having information about special education.

References

- Birgin, O., Tutak, T. (2006). "The Effect of Computer Aided Instruction on Student Success in Geometry Teaching", IETC 2008, Eskişehir, Turkey.
- Bülbül, M. Ş., Garip, B., Cansu, Ü., & Demirtas, D. (2012). Design of math teaching material for the visually impaired: Needle page. *Elementary Online*, 11 (4).
- Demir, T., & Sen, Ü. (2009). A Study on Learning Styles of Visually Impaired Students in Terms of Various Variables. *Journal of International Social Research*, 2 (8).
- Enç, M., Çağlar, D., & Özsoy, Y. (1981). *Introduction to Special Education*, Ankara: Sevinç Printing House.
- Erdem, A. R. (2012). The Need for Rearrangement of Field and Field Education Courses in Teacher Training Programs. *Pamukkale University Journal of Faculty of Education*, 31 (31), 219-223.
- Gündüz, Ş., Emlek, B., Bozkurt, A. (2008). "Computer Aided Teaching Trigonometry Using Dynamic Modeling in High School", IETC 2008, Eskişehir, Turkey.
- Jackson, A. (2002). *Communications - The World of Blind Mathematicians*. *Notices of the American Mathematical Society*, 49 (10), 1246-1251.
- Öztürk, M., *Touch of Life-2*, İlke Publishing, İstanbul 2008.
- TÜİK, *Research on Problems and Expectations of Disabled People*, 2010.

ICT, Health and Education Spiral

Fatma Lorcu, Tülay Demiralay

Introduction

From researchers to politicians, both at national and international level, all studies share an important common result: information and communication technology (ICT) plays a positive role in socioeconomic development. However it is not easy to see a direct impact of the ICT on society (Kundu, 2004). However it is not easy to see a direct impact of the ICT on society. As Mansell and When (1998) state “these technologies do not create the transformations in society by themselves; they are designed and implemented by people in their social, economic and technological contexts”. The two sectors affected by ICTs are health and education considered benchmarks of socioeconomic development.

The relationship between health and education, two irrecusably and indispensable institutions that enable individual and social progress and contribute to development (Karaaslan, 2005), has been shown by various studies (for instance Auster, Leveson & Sarachek, 1969; Grossman, 1976; Berger and Leigh, 1989; Behrman and Wolfe, 1989; Kenkel, 1991), and educational attainment, or years of schooling, has been found to be vigorously correlated with health status (Gilleskie & Harrison, 1998). In another study that examines the interrelation among health-related, educational and economic development in EU member and candidate states, the relationship between life expectancy and infant mortality rate and physicians and acute care beds in hospitals variables were analyzed (Boboc, Driouchi & Titan, 2010).

As an engine for socio-economic development, education is vital and has a consequentiality role in the knowledge society. It is not only the means by which individuals become skilled participants in society but is additionally a key driver expanding ICT utilization. Studies showing the impact of ICT in education can also be found (for instance Balanskat, Blamire & Kefala 2006; Kikis, Scheuermann & Villalba 2009; Kaffash, Kargiban, Kargiban & Ramezani, 2010; Mikre, 2011; Aristovnik 2014).

Although numerous hypothetical and experimental efforts have been made to survey the effect of ICT on educational performance in various settings, a few previous studies have examined the relationship between ICT and educational performance on national level. Aristovnik (2012) reviewed some earlier researches examining ICT efficiency and showed that efficiency of ICT, when thinking educational results seriously, differs notably across the considerable larger part of OECD and EU countries via Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA). In the study, four different DEA models were created and ICT expenditure (% of GDP) and Internet users (per 100 people) were used as ICT indicators while teacher-pupil ratio (secondary), school enrolment, all levels (% gross), labor force with tertiary education (% of total) and the PISA 2006 average score were used as education performance indicators. Butcher (2010) concentrates on understanding what a knowledge society is and investigating its relationship to ICT, education, and improvement and highlights some of the difficulties in implementing ICT in education initiatives in Africa. The OECD has been able to demonstrate interesting correlations between home access and use of ICT from one viewpoint and PISA score then again (OECD, 2004). On the other hand, Kundu (2004) has shown that the correlations between ICT indicators and the indicators related to universal primary education are all positive and statistically significant.

Taking its roots in education, ICTs can possibly have real effect on enhancing the wellbeing of the individuals from every class in the general public. On the other hand ICTs as tools for education also affect the health sector. However, it is important to note that the following statement by Wood: “*ICTs are not a vaccine, a water pump, food or a drug. They therefore do nothing directly themselves to prevent or treat disease or poverty. They are a tool for conveying information. This may be directly to individuals such as patients/clients; or by sharing between health (and other) staff i.e. training and management, or from above*” (Chetley, 2015, p.5).

Today, ICT is and will continue to be a very important factor especially in disseminating information about public health services and improving the health services. One of the most significant factors that influence change in the distribution, improvement and accessibility of health services and their indicators has been proven to be ICTs by various studies (for instance Kirilmaz 2005; Micevska, 2006; Wu & Raghupathi, 2012; Boboc, Driouchi & Titan, 2010; Lorcu & Erduran, 2015).

Taking into consideration the studies found in the literature, it is thought that there exists a significant relationship between health, education and ICTs, which makes it necessary for these three to act together. In many studies, the increase in school enrollment leads to an increase in the number of educated individuals, which in return enables individuals to be aware of and make efficient and effective use of health services offered and furthermore reduces the need for health services. The contribution of ICTs to this role of schooling cannot be ignored. It can be seen in various studies that as ICTs find more place in education and health sectors they pave the way for more studies that analyze their effects on these sectors. However, most of these studies deal with ICT effects on the sectors at micro level and give very little space to macro level effects.

In their study on the aggregate effects of ICTs and education and health sectors Boboc, Driouchi, and Titan (2010) showed the relationship between socioeconomic indicators and ICTs by using 2002 and 2012 data from 167 countries. In this study which is at country level life expectancy, the annual population growth rate, under-five infant mortality rate, the rate of vaccination, GDP share allocated to health are used as health indicators while mobile phone subscription, phone line, number of Internet users, ICT share in total imports and ICT index and ranking are used as ICT indicators. Adult literacy rate is the only education indicator in the study.

Analyses

The majority of the above studies contributed in depicting various facets of the features existing between ICT, health, and education. Taking into consideration previous studies and identified relationships, this study analyzes the relationship between ICTs, health and education by using macro indicators with Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).

Taking into consideration that the investments made in the ICTs in education in many countries will lead to an education gap similar to the digital divide and that education is always believed to be a reason or consequence in all matters (Baykal, 2009), this study tries to analyze the relationship between health and the effects of ICTs in education. The study also aims to demonstrate the effects of education, which is in fact in position not only to affect ICTs but also be affected by them, on health services and health indicators which are among the MDGs and socioeconomic development indicators. The study shows the effects of ICTs through education on health indicators. Clarifying the relationship between ICTs education and health and demonstrating ICT's effects on two of the most fundamental indicators of socioeconomic development, education and health, will allow policy makers to take a multidimensional approach.

The variables of the analysis

The analysis uses an IDI index consisting of ten ICT indicators (ITU, 2014, p.9).The weights for the IDI index made up of access, user and skills and other sub-indices are given in Table 1.

Table 1. IDI Index: Indicators and weights

ICT access (ACC)	0.40
1.Fixed telephone subscriptions per 100 inhabitants (ACC1)	0.20
2. Mobile-cellular telephone subscriptions per 100 inhabitants (ACC2)	0.20
3.International Internet bandwidth (bit/s) per Internet user (ACC3)	0.20
4. Percentage of households with a computer (ACC4)	0.20
5. Percentage of households with Internet access (ACC5)	0.20

ICT use (USE)	0.40
1. Percentage of individuals using the Internet (USE1)	0.33
2. Fixed (wired)-broadband subscriptions per 100 inhabitants (USE2)	0.33
3. Wireless-broadband subscriptions per 100 inhabitants (USE3)	0.33
ICT skills (used as an education indicator)	0.20
1. Adult literacy rate (ALR)	0.33
2. Secondary gross enrollment rate (SGE)	0.33
3. Tertiary gross enrollment rate (TGR)	0.33

(Source: ITU, 2014: 10).

As access and user sub-indices highly correlate with each other ($r=0.936$; $p=0.000<0.05$), the AUI variable is created with their average. However, as skills sub-index includes education indicators and these variables are thought to affect not only ICT development but also health indicators, they were not included in the ICT development. As indicators under the skills sub-index of the IDI indicators cannot be used, instead "affordability" and "application" factors are used which Wu and Raghupath (2012) also included in their study. Under the affordability sub-factor are the residential fixed line tariff (US\$/month), mobile cellular prepaid tariff (US\$/month) and fixed broadband Internet access tariff (US\$/month) indicators. By giving these factors equal weight they were averaged and AFF variable was created. E-government site measurement index and the allocations to ICT from GDP were included in the applicability sub-factor; however, as there was insufficient data for the allocations to ICT from GDP, only the e-government site measurement index was used within the APP variable. In this case the variables as indicators of ICT are *AUI*, *AFF* and *APP*.

As education indicators are located under the skills sub-index, these variables were not included in the ICT factor. By adding the primary gross enrollment-AGE variable to the other variables (adult literacy rate-ALR, secondary gross enrollment- SGE and tertiary gross enrollment rate-TGR) in this sub-index, education indicator was created. Education indicator is identified with *ALR*, *AGE*, *SGE* and *TGR* variables respectively.

Since there are many variables that are used as indicators of the health of a society many difficulties arose in the selection of these variables. The variable selection of health indicators, studies examining the relationship between ICT is based on the Millennium goals. The study shows that the correlations between ICT indicators and the indicators are all positive and statistically significant. There additionally to be significant reduction in child mortality and improvement in maternal health with the development of ICT. This is obvious from the strong negative correlation between television users, telephone and cellular mobile subscribers, etc. and rates of maternal mortality, infant mortality and child mortality. In addition, rates of people with sustainable access to water sources and urbanites having improved sanitation facilities show strong positive correlation with all the ICT indicators, the coefficients being statistically noteworthy (UNDP, 2004). Likewise, in the area of MDGs it was as stressed that there is a link between MDG targets and different health interventions utilizing ICTs (Chetley, 2015). In the same report, the relationship between ICTs and the health targets in the MDGs is explained with examples from different countries. Considering the relevant literature, this study also decided that the Millennium goals of health and education and health-related goals should be taken into account.

Starting from earlier studies and Millennium indicators, it was firstly decided that healthy life expectancy (HLE), maternal mortality, infant mortality, under-five child mortality, adult mortality and incidence rates for various diseases (HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis) would be used under the health indicator. However, as infant mortality and under-five child mortality were highly correlated ($r=0.986$; $p=0.00$), under-five child mortality was selected, but again as it was highly correlated with maternal mortality ($r=0.928$; $p=0.000$), maternal mortality rate (MM) was used as a health indicator as it refers not only to infant health but also to maternal health. Also, as there was a high correlation between adult mortality and healthy life expectancy ($r=-0.913$; $p=0.000$), only healthy life expectancy (HLE) variable was included in the analysis. Tuberculosis incidence rates (TI) were

included in the analysis as related to spread of diseases. The variables as indicators of health are *HLE*, *MM* and *TI*.

ICT data used in the analysis were gathered from the 2010 health data published by the World Bank; health statistics were gathered from the 2012 health statistics published by the WHO, and education data were gathered from UNICEF statistics (<http://www.unicef.org/sowc2013/statistics.html>). AMOS software package was used for model studies with the identified variables in the analysis.

Method

Based on exploratory factor analysis and path analysis, SEM is a multivariate statistical method that has been widely used in recent years to examine unclear causation and causal effects. SEM makes it easier to analyze certain theoretical structures that contain perceptions, emotions and thoughts and could be measured by certain indicators. Such structures, called latent or unobserved, can be measured with directly observable variables. Latent variables are concepts (e.g. intelligence, anxiety, organizational culture, motivation, depression, social support, mathematical ability, socioeconomic status, etc.) which are available in certain hypothetical structures. Observed variables can be measured and recorded with a sample such as performance in a specific test, inventory or survey (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006, p.9). Therefore, researchers identify and describe measurable behaviors and actions that they believe represent the latent variables they want to examine.

SEM, within the framework of its unique structure, not only allows for the examination of many external (independent) variables and simultaneous equations but also makes it possible to see the measurement errors of internal (dependent) and external (independent) variables. As a synthesis of econometrics and psychometrics, SEM provides a powerful approach (Bollen & Long, 1993).

In traditional simple or linear regression models, the part independent variable explains variability of the dependent variables is calculated and indirect effects are overlooked. Yet, SEM's ability to reveal both indirect and direct effects makes it more advantageous than conventional models.

Used to test the causal relationship between observed and latent variables, SEM is also a model of strong theoretical infrastructure. After deciding on a model by assessing relevant theories and defining the selected model, researchers make a comparison between the measurement models with the theoretical model. However, if they do not have the full knowledge on the theory of their research subject, they may decide on a wrong model and end up measuring relationships that do not actually exist.

In the SEM process, it holds an important place to represent the theoretical model with path diagrams based on the theory behind the research subject. These diagrams which represent causal relationships with symbols and single and double-headed arrows provide a graphical visualization of hypothetical relationships.

In determining the level of the relationship between variables a correlation analysis is performed whereas in describing the functionality of these relationships a regression analysis is performed. However, if the correlation coefficient between two variables is affected by another variable or if the cause-and-effect relationship between two variables is related to the effect of a third variable, correlation coefficients are insufficient to explain such relationship. In such cases where correlation and regression analyses remain insufficient, SEM is used that estimate the significance and magnitude of the causal relationship between variable groups (Tatlidil, 2009). In SEM external (independent) variables have a continuous direct effect on internal (dependent) variables. However, sometimes a factor can have an effect on another factor. In this case, models that can identify the intermediary effects can be used during the SEM process.

SEM has on certain assumptions as in other multivariate analyses. In SEM analysis it is often assumed that observed and latent variables have a multivariate normal distribution and are linear and not outliers, that there is indirect measurement, multiple indicators and uncorrelated error terms, and that there are no multiple linear connections and the sample is size sufficient. Although there is not a full consensus in the literature on sample size, it is generally accepted that the size is small if there are less than 100 samples, medium if there are 100-200 samples and large if there are more than 200 samples (Simsek, 2007, p.55).

Results of Analysis

Firstly the relevant variables in the analysis were examined for outliers and missing data. The missing data in certain countries were filled with the variable average in the income group the countries belonged to, but countries that lacked data in more than two variables were not included in the study. When observing the outliers, the Mahalanobis distance values were used. If a country had a Mahalanobis distance value with significance level less than 0.1 percent, it was excluded from the data set. After this analysis, there were only 132 countries left the data set, including Turkey.

First of all, multivariate normality, one of the key assumptions in SEM, was analyzed with a Mardia test but could not be achieved. Therefore the analysis was performed by the Bootstrap Maximum Likelihood (ML) method.

After examining the outliers and missing values, SEM was applied to find the associations ICT, education and health indicators. ICT, education and health indicators are included in model as latent variables with their corresponding observed variables as defined above. The first step, all the available observed variables are examined according to whether or not clustered in one dimension and found those variables are clustered one dimension and confirmatory factor analysis was applied. According to confirmatory analysis results it was revealed that following observed variables significantly construct the corresponding latent variables.

ICT latent variable: AUI, AFF and APP

Education latent variable: ALR, AGE, SGE and TGR

Health latent variable: HLE, MM and TI

In the second step, the structural model is constructed. However, the assumed causal relationship is between the ICTs and health could not be obtained from the analysis (*Standardized $\beta = -0.026$ $p > 0.05$*). The model created by removing relevant way is appeared in Figure 1.

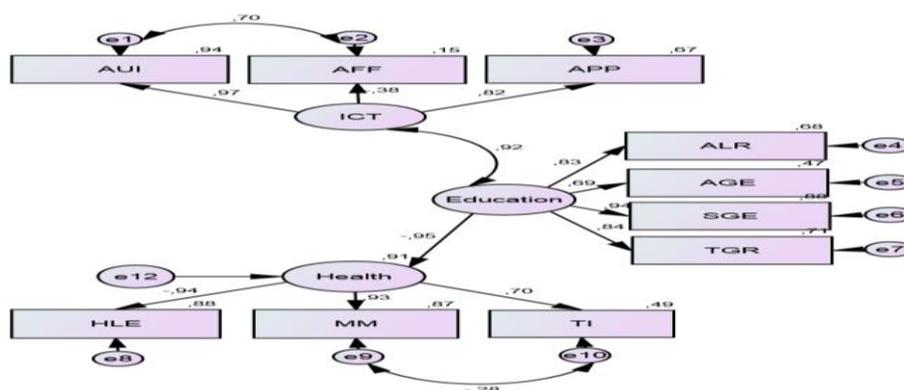


Figure 1. Structural equation model

When the model given is Figure 1 examined it is clear that education has a direct impact and ICT has an indirect impact on health. In Figure 1, the numbers represent the standardized coefficient of the model indicating the level of association between variables. When Table 2 examined the coefficient between *Health* and *Education*, it can be seen that this coefficient is significant with p-value of 0.000.

Table 2. Path coefficients for model, t values and squared multiple correlations

Variables	Regression Weights	t-Value (CR)	Standardized Regression Weights	Squared Multiple correlations	p Value
Health<--- Education	-6.126	-8.658	-0.951	0.905	0.000
AUI<---ICT	1.000	-	0.970	0.941	0.000
AFF<---ICT	-5.947	-4.078	-0.382	0.146	0.000
APP<---ICT	0.084	13.760	0.819	0.670	0.000
TI<---Health	1.000	-	0.698	0.487	0.000
MM<---Health	1.701	9.212	0.931	0.867	0.000
HLE<---Health	-0.077	-10.042	-0.939	0.881	0.000
ALR<---Education	1.000	-	0.826	0.682	0.000
AGE<---Education	0.474	8.907	0.689	0.474	0.000
SGE<---Education	1.540	14.237	0.936	0.876	0.000
TGR<---Education	1.469	11.886	0.841	0.707	0.000

It is also clearly seen that the observed variables that construct the latent variables also significant. The observed variables TI, MM and HLE that construct the health latent variable are also significant. From Table 2, it is seen that standardized coefficients are *0.698*, *0.931* and *(-0.939)* for TI, MM and HLE, respectively. These standardized regression coefficients belong to the observed variables are called as factor loadings and all are meaningful. The largest contribution was made by the HLE. HLE coefficient is seen to be opposite of TI and MM coefficients. Countries, while trying to reduce disease and maternal mortality rates, are trying to increase their healthy life expectancy. Similarly the coefficient between the health and education has a negative value. When these two signs are taken into consideration, it can be said that education increases healthy life expectancy whereas decreases spread of diseases and maternal mortality. Standardized coefficients for all the variables of the education latent variables are positive. Improving all the relevant variables contributes to education but SGE is the largest contributor.

It is also seen the observed variables AUI, AFF and APP that construct the ICT latent variable are also significant. From Table 2, it is seen that standardized coefficients are *0.970*, *(-0.382)* and *0.819* for AUI, AFF and APP respectively. Among these standardized regression coefficients, only AFF's is reverse which stems from the fact that price of ICTs affect ICT purchases negatively. The biggest contribution to ICT is made by the AUI variable.

Whereas no direct causal relationship was found between ICTs and health, a strong and significant relationship was detected between ICTs and education ($r=0.92$ $p<0.05$). Looking at this correlation between ICTs and education, it can be said that increase in education reduces maternal mortality and disease spreading rates and boosts healthy life expectancy.

Goodness-of-fit indices values are in Table 3. Good-to-fit indices used to compare the theoretical model with the measurement model are called absolute fit indices, incremental fit indices, limited compliance indices, inferential, descriptive and alternative indices and normed and non-normed fit indices (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008, p.53-56). There is a standard value for each of the compliance index, but can vary according to the researchers. Standard values listed in Table 3 were formed assembled from different researchers.

Table 3. Goodness-of-fit indices of structural model and overall fit indices

Fit Measure	Good Fit	Acceptable Fit	Model
χ^2 (CMIN)	$0 < \chi^2 < 2df$	$2df < \chi^2 < 3df$	120.442
χ^2/df (CMIN/df)	≤ 3	$\leq 4-5$	3.885
GFI	≥ 0.90	0.89-0.85	0.850
CFI	≥ 0.97	≥ 0.95	0.926
RMSEA	≤ 0.05	0.06-0.08	0.148
NFI	≥ 0.95	0.94-0.90	0.904
IFI	≥ 0.95	0.94-0.90	0.927

(Source: Meydan & Sesen, 2011)

When the goodness-of-fit indices of the proposed model are compared with standard values in Table 3, it can be understood that the indices are acceptable and verify the structural model. It is also seen that the *Chi-Square* (χ^2) value is not significant, *Chi-Square/Degree of Freedom* (χ^2/df) value is acceptable, *Comparative Fit Index* (CFI) value is quite close to standard values, *The Root Mean Square Error* (RMSEA) value does not fit well, and *Normed-Fit index* (NFI), *Goodness of Fit Index* (GFI) and *Incremental Fit Index* (IFI) values are at an acceptable level.

Results from the *Consistent Akaike Information Criterion-CAIC* (261.630<323.554) and *Bayesian Information Criterion-BIC* (237.630<268.554), which were used to determine the consistency of the model, show that the selected model is the closest one to reality. This consistency means that comparison values of the independent and saturated model are higher than the research model. In addition, the causal relationship between the latent variables of education and health can be explained by the $Health = -6.126 \cdot Education$ simultaneous equation.

Conclusion

In this study, the first model created with ICT, education and health latent variables no causal relationship was found between ICTs and health and the model could not be verified. In the new model created by removing the causal relationship between the two variables (Figure 1) consistency criteria were at acceptable levels when compared with standard values and the model was verified. Values related to the consistency of the model provided that this model actually gave data closest to reality.

The confirmed model demonstrated that there is a causal relationship between health and education and ICTs highly correlate with education ($r=0.92$ $p<0.05$). Accordingly it can be said that increase in the education level reduces maternal mortality and disease spreading rates while boosting healthy life expectancy, which can be attributed to its relationship with ICTs. This also expresses that health indicators of a country improve with education and is highly correlated with ICTs. Kundu (2004) has shown that the correlations between ICT indicators and the indicators related to universal primary education are all positive and statistically significant. Aristovnik (2012) showed that most of the countries under thought hold incredible potential for expanded effectiveness in ICT and for improving their educational yields and results.

Largest contributor to the health latent variable is HLE followed by MM and TI. This shows that health indicators of a country can be improved by adding to the weights of the variables involved.

Largest contributor to the education latent variable is SGE followed by ALR. The biggest contribution to ICT latent variable is made by the AUI variable which is composed of access and usage sub-indices. The AFF showing the affordability of ICT makes minimum contribution. But there is one more thing that should be taken into account here. AFF is a variable that is not only relevant to ICTs but also to economic status of the countries and purchasing power of the individuals to a great extent. Therefore, in theory, it is not expected of the ICT latent variable to have too much of weight.

Various studies demonstrate educating women and children, especially girls, has an important impact on child health determinants (World Bank, 1998). Yet many developing countries through technology can overcome infectious diseases. The spread of the infectious diseases provides another dramatic illustration of the value of education. Numerous overviews demonstrate that more-educated men and women will probably know about methods for sickness by the help of ICT. Individuals who are more

educated through schooling will be aware of and benefit more properly from health services. Schooling will allow benefiting efficiently from health services and reducing the need for health care. Cutler, Lleras-Muney and Vogl (2008) found that in USA and European countries the existence of a fair relationship between socio-economic status and health and remarked that mortality risk rises when individuals do not reach upper secondary education. Boboc, Driouch of and Titan (2010) also showed that there exists a link between socioeconomic indicators of one country and ICTs.

As revealed in this study, there exist both casual and direct relationships among ICT, education and health variables. Therefore, it would not be a right decision to only invest in health when trying to improve the health of one country. When making policies to improve the health indicators of a country, both education and ICTs should be taken into consideration.

References

- Aristovnik, A. (2012). The impact of ICT on educational performance and its efficiency in selected EU and OECD countries: a non-parametric analysis. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*. 11(3), 144-152.
- Aristovnik, A. (2014). Development of the information society and its impact on the education sector in the EU: Efficiency at the regional (NUTS 2) level, *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*. 2 (13), 54-60.
- Auster, R., Leveson, I. & Sarachek, D. (1969). The production of health: an exploratory study. *Journal of Human Resources*. 4, 411-436.
- Balanskat, A., Blamire, R. & Kefala, S. (2006). *A review of studies of ICT impact on schools in Europe*. Brussels: European School net.
- Baykal, A. (2009). The view of the international framework of development indicators in the context of Turkey. *Bogazici Journal of Education*. 26(2), 1-13.
- Behrman, J. & Wolfe, B. (1989). Does more schooling make women better nourished and healthier?: Adult sibling random and fixed effects estimates for Nicaragua. *Journal of Human Resources*. 24, 644-663.
- Berger, M. & Leigh, JP. (1989). Schooling, self-selection, and health. *Journal of Political Economy*. 24, 433-455.
- Boboc, C., Driouchi, A. & Titan, E. (2010). *Interrelations between education, health, income and economic development in Europe with emphasis on new members of European Union, Internet*. Retrieved April 21, 2015, from <http://mpira.ub.uni-muenchen.de/22235/>
- Bollen KA. & Long, JS. (1993). Testing structural equation models-Introduction. In A.K. Bollen & J.S.Long. (Eds.). *Testing structural equation models* (pp. 1-10). USA: SAGE Publications.
- Butcher, N. (2011). *ICT, education, development, and the knowledge society, GeSCI African Leadership in ICT Program*. Retrieved February 07, 2015 from, <http://www.gesci.org>.
- Chetley A., Davies J., Trude B., McConnell H., Ramirez R, Sheilds T, et al. (2015). *Improving health, connecting people: the role of ICTs in the health sector of developing countries*. Retrieved April 21, 2015 from, http://www.healthlink.org.uk/PDFs/infodev_frame.pdf
- Cutler, D.M, Lleras-Muney & Vogl, T. (2008). *Socio economic status and health: dimensions and mechanisms*. NBER Working Paper 14333. Retrieved March 14, 2014 from, <http://www.nber.org/papers/w14333.pdf>.
- Gilleskie, D.B. and Harrison, A.L. (1998). The effect of education endogenous health inputs on the relationship between health and education. *Economics of Education Review*. 17(3), 279-295.
- Grossman, M. (1976). The correlation between health and schooling. In NE. Terleckyj (Eds.), *Household production and consumption*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Hooper, D., Coughlan, J. & Mullen, MR. (2008). Structural equation modeling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*. 6(1), 53-60.
- ITU (2014). *Measuring the Information Society Report 2014-Executive Report*. Geneva Switzerland.
- Kaffash, H.R., Kargiban, Z.A., Kargiban, S.A. & Ramezani, M.T. (2010). A close looks in to role of ICT in education. *International Journal of Instruction*. 3 (2), 63-82.

- Karaaslan, E. (2005). Public sector analysis of education spending. *Journal of Finance*. 149, May-December, 36-73
- Kenkel, D.S. (1991). Health behavior, health knowledge, and schooling. *Journal of Political Economy*. 99, 287-305.
- Kırılmaz, H. (2005). *Issues and information technology in the health system*. Paper presented at the 2nd National Medical Informatics Conference' 05, Belek, Antalya.
- Kikis, K, Scheuermann F.& Villalba E (2009). A framework for understanding and evaluating the impact of information and communication technologies in education, assessing the effects of ICT in education indicators, criteria and benchmarks for international comparisons. Retrieved April 8, 2015 from http://www.crie.minedu.pt/files/@crie/1278088469_AssessingTheEffectsOfICTinEducation.pdf.
- Kundu, A. (2004). *Technical Paper – ICT and Human Development: Towards building a composite index for Asia*. UNDP, Elsevier.
- Lorcu, F. & Erduran, G.Y. (2015). *The impact of information communication technologies on health indicators*. Paper presented at the XVIth International Symposium on Econometrics Operations Research and Statistics Conference, Edirne.
- Mansell, R. & When, U. (Eds.). (1998). *Knowledge societies: Information technology for sustainable development*. Report for the United Nations Commission on science and technology for development. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Meydan, C. H. & Sesen, H. (2011). *Structural Equation Modeling - Applications of AMOS*, Ankara: Detay Publishing.
- Micevska, M. (2006). ICT for pro poor provision of public goods and services: A focus on health. In M. Torero & J. Von Braun (Eds.), *Information and communication technologies for development and poverty reduction: The potential of telecommunications* (pp:312-336). Baltimore: The John Hopkins University Press.
- Mikre, F. (2011). The roles of information communication technologies in education: Review article with emphasis to the computer and Internet. *Ethiopian Journal of Education and Sciences*. 6(2), 1-16.
- OECD (2004). *Are students ready for a technology rich world? What PISA studies tell us?* Paris: OECD.
- Raykov, T. & Marcoulides, G. A. (2006). *A first course in structural equation modeling* (2nd Edition). USA: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Publishers.
- Simsek, Ö.F. (2007). *Introduction and Basic Principles of Structural Equation Modeling and Applications of LISREL*. (1st. Edition). Ankara: Ekinoks Publications.
- Tatlidil, H. (2010). *Economics summer school lecture notes*. Pamukkale University. Denizli.
- UNDP (2004). *ICT and human development: Towards building a composite index for Asia realizing the Millennium Development Goals*. Technical Paper.
- UNICEF (2013). Retrieved February 23, 2015 from, <http://www.unicef.org/sowc2013/statistics.html>
- The World Bank (2012). Retrieved February 23, 2015 from, www.worldbank.org
- World Health Organization-WHO- (2014). Retrieved February 23, 2015 from, www.whois.org
- Wu, S. J., & Raghupathi, W. (2012). A panel analysis of the strategic association between information and communication technology and public health delivery. *J. Med Internet Res*. 14(5), 147.
- World Bank. (1998). *Knowledge for Development*. World Development Report 1998/1999: New York: Oxford University Press Retrieved February 23, 2015 from, <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/5981> License: CC BY 3.0 IGO.

The Views of Classroom Teachers for Qualified Teacher

Bilgen Kiral, Bertan Akyol

1. Introduction

Qualified individuals, qualified products, qualified administrators and qualified education are the basis of social development, and keeping up with the level of contemporary civilizations. The word of “quality” is defined as features observed without measurement (Hançerlioğlu, 1970, 195) the feature of being good or bad that shows how something is and distinguishes it from others (Dictionary of Turkish Language Association, 2016), and somebody or something being distinguished from others, having a unique features (Oxford Dictionary, 2016). Qualified education is the basis of qualified product and qualified individuals. Education is founded on students, teachers and educational programme. The most important of these is teacher factor. The quality and efficiency of education and teaching are directly related with the quality of teachers (Şişman, 2001).

Good and Brophy (1994) define the teachers, who can value educational time in the best way, use different materials in accordance with student needs, plan different opportunities to develop skills and knowledge of students, enable student progress and are active, as qualified teachers. Qualified teachers provide motivation to attain objectives; and conduct re-teaching when they consider necessary. Additionally, they are teachers, who provide active participation of students in the lessons, guide student skilfully, and encourage students.

Wortruba and Wright (1975, cited in: Witcher and Onwuegbuzie, 1999) listed the characteristics of qualified teachers as follows. They are educators, who are intellectual in their fields, do their jobs fondly, teach the subjects enthusiastically, use different teaching strategies and techniques, are flexible in terms of technique, communicate with students effectively, behave students positively, and are just in assessing achievements and behaviours of students. Whitlock and DuCette (1989), who interviewed 10 teachers in their research, found that qualified teachers did their jobs fondly, had self-confidence, were knowledgeable and could transfer their knowledge to their students, and had strong motivation for success. In addition to these, Milgram (1979) stated that qualified teachers were intelligent, creative and could use their intelligence and objectivity as they assessed and judged students socially (sympathetic, sensitive, etc.).

Shulman (1987) stated that there was certain knowledge that every teacher should have. These are content knowledge related to the field, pedagogical content knowledge (knowing students’ abilities, personalities, conditions and taking these as a whole), general pedagogical knowledge (principles and strategies in classroom management, organizational content), curriculum knowledge (program knowledge, materials and tools for teachers to be used in the program), knowledge of students and their characteristics, knowledge of context and educational context (group, class, region, society), educational outputs, and knowledge of objectives and values. Wubbels, Levy, and Brekelmans (1997) added that effective and qualified teachers could establish strong teacher-student relationship, they had positive classroom climate, they could empathize, provide students with flexibility, and were both authoritarian and holistic. Polk (2006) listed 10 characteristics of qualified teachers. These are good classroom performance, positive communication skills, creativity, expertise in profession, knowledge in pedagogy, mastery in assessment and evaluation techniques, openness to self-development and life long learning, good character, field knowledge, and modelling student. Steele (2010) stated that qualified teachers could use their body language well, teaches effectively and had leadership qualities.

Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and James (2002) listed the characteristics of qualified teachers as; being student-centred (loving students and being optimistic, supportive, kind, patient and helpful towards them), having effective classroom and behaviour management skills (authoritarian, leadership qualities, careful), expert educators (creative, open to new teaching techniques, explaining students the subject to be taught, encouraging students’ skills), ethical (just, honest, reliable,

objective, true, respectful), doing their jobs fondly (loving the subject, passion in teaching, willing to teach, commitment to the profession), knowledgeable in the field (knowledge of effective teaching and the material to be used) and expertize in the field (disciplined and good communicator). Harmer (1998, cited in: Mullock, 2003) defined good teachers as the ones, who make lessons interesting, love their profession, have good character, feature students' personalities, have knowledge and are entertaining.

In the related literature, many studies have been conducted on the subjects, such as characteristics of qualified teachers, effective teachers and good teachers. Some of these were conducted by Cortazzi and Jin, 1996; Young, Whitley, and Helton, 1998; Witcher, and Onwuegbuzie, 1999; Harslett, Harrison, Godfrey, Partington and Richer, 2000; Crumbley, Henry, and Kratchman, 2001; Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and James, 2002; Mullock, 2003; Kane, Sandretto and Heath, 2004; Okpala and Ellis, 2005; Özabacı and Acat, 2005; Arnon and Reichel, 2007; Onwuegbuzie, Witcher, Collins, Filer, Wiedmaier and Moore, 2007; Maden, Durukan and Aslan, 2010, Taşkaya, 2012.

Cortazzi and Jin (1996, cited in: Mullock, 2003), who conducted a study on 135 Chinese students, reported that expectations of Chinese students from good teachers were; mastery in the subject, expertize in the field (expectations of 67% of the participants), patience, sense of humour, ethically model, friendly, the skill to integrate students to real life, sympathetic and understanding, raising interest among students, ability to effectively use teaching methods, caring students, helping, and explaining the subjects clearly. Young, Whitley and Helton (1998), who conducted a study on 321 students and asked them about their ideal teacher, and these students stated that the exams they gave and difficulty levels of the exams, discussions in the classroom, tone of voice, sense of humour, enthusiasm to teach, addressing to students, using instructional materials, and sincerity towards students were some of the features that ideal teachers should have. Witcher, and Onwuegbuzie (1999) conducted a study on 219 university students (pre-service teachers) found that the highest expectation from an ideal teacher was being student-centred from 79.8% participants, which was followed by doing the job fondly, being ethical, good classroom and behaviour management, mastery in teaching methods and the field.

Onwuegbuzie, Witcher, Collins, Filer, Wiedmaier and Moore (2007) conducted a study on 912 university teachers to find out the characteristics of effective university teaching staff. 58.8% of the participants stated that student-centred teaching staff was effective, which was followed by mastery in the field, doing the job fondly, sharing knowledge, being holistic, good managers, ethical and sensitive. The least expressed of these features was being sensitive. Harslett, Harrison, Godfrey, Partington and Richer (2000) studied the effective teachers in terms of pedagogical relationships, management of student behaviours, and understanding in their research. They found that the most qualified teachers were the ones who understood about the culture, family, history and background of the students.

Kıral and Akyol (2016) interviewed 70 pre-service teachers in their study, and asked them about the qualities a teacher should have, and which of these qualities teachers lacked. According to their findings, teacher qualities were classified in two groups as professional qualities and personal qualities. Personal qualities are; being model, establishing positive communication, patience, good humour, tolerance and understanding, while the professional qualities are being professionally equipped, self-development, openness to innovations, and expertize in classroom management. More than half of the participants stated that teachers in the education system didn't have these qualities.

The common point of all those afore mentioned studies is that they tried to find out the ideal teacher. Teacher quality is a subject that is important for every culture. This is why it has been the subject point of many researches. Advancement of societies is based on the qualities of educational systems and qualified teachers. Accordingly, the purpose of the present research is defining the views of teachers who serve in the education system about the qualified teachers, and finding out whether the teachers in the education system have these listed qualities. The statement of the problem of the present research is "What are the views of the classroom teachers who serve in the education system about the qualified teacher?"

In accordance with this main purpose, the answers to the following questions are sought:

1. What are classroom teachers' views of qualified teacher?
2. According to classroom teachers, which of these qualities is lack for the teachers the encounter?

2. Method

The present research adopted descriptive survey model (Karasar, 1991, 77). Researches conducted in descriptive survey model provide a detailed description of the research subject (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel, 2008). The present research was conducted in accordance with qualitative research method, and tried to describe classroom teachers' views for qualified teacher.

Study Group

The study group of the present research consists of 45 classroom teachers who serve in Efeler district of Aydın Province in 2015-2016 academic year. Of these classroom teachers, 23 were male and 22 were female. Additionally, 10 teachers' ages ranged between 30-39, 30 teachers' between 40-49 and 5 teachers' between 50-59.

Data Collection Tool and Analysis

Before starting the research, the researchers gathered information about the subject and created a semi-structured interview form in accordance with the related literature. After getting specialist view from a professor of the field, pre-application was conducted with a teacher, and the form was finalized. The interviews were recorded on the forms. Interviews recordings on the forms were then transferred to the computer, by numbering each form. Views transferred on the computer were then split into categories and sub-categories (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005). Categories and sub-categories were coded, then the data were analysed. The reliability of the research was tested with Miles and Huberman (1994) equation ($\text{Reliability} = \frac{\text{Agreements}}{\text{Agreements} + \text{Disagreements}} \times 100$). Accordingly, the reliability of the present research was calculated as 100%. Then frequencies of the expressions teachers used to present their views were calculated. Views of the teachers were included in the research without any changes. Each of the participating teachers was given a code (Interview 1: I1), and these codes were used in the research.

3. Findings

This part of the research includes findings related to the qualities teachers should have, and which of these qualities teachers in the education system are lack of.

Findings Related to the Qualities Teachers Should Have

The qualities that teachers should have were analysed in two categories as personal qualities and professional qualities. For personal qualities, 206 views, and for professional qualities category 224 views were gathered. The findings related to these qualities are presented below.

Findings Related to the Personal Qualities Teachers Should Have

For the personal qualities that teachers should have, 206 views were obtained from the teachers who serve in education system. These views and their frequencies are presented in Table 1.

The Views of Classroom Teachers for Qualified Teacher

Table 1. Personal Qualities Teachers Should Have

Category	Sub-Categories	f	Category	Sub-Categories	f
Personal qualities	Positive communication	25	Personal qualities	Problem solving	4
	Patient	23		Empathetic	4
	Humanist	16		Responsible	4
	No discrimination	14		Reliable	4
	Research, questioning	11		No prejudice	4
	Serving as Model with behaviours	9		Compassion	3
	Clean speech	8		Consistent	3
	Idealist	8		Clean and Tidy	2
	Tolerant	8		Devoted	2
	Good humour	8		Hardworking	2
	Understanding	7		Protective	2
	Justice	7		Planned	2
	Honest	7		Determined	1
	Respectful	6		Good listener	1
	Clean, legible writing	5		Courage	1
	Hardworking	5			
Total					206

As presented in Table 1, five highest-ranking personal qualities were positive communication (25 views), patience (23 views), humanist (16 views), no-discrimination (14 views) and research-questioning (11 views); while the three views with the lowest frequency were determination, courage and good listener. Some quotations from the participants related to these views are presented below.

- *A teacher must be patient when they teach students. They must think how much of what they teach the students can learn, and try to understand them by putting themselves in their shoes. A teacher must be understanding, they must think that the student in the classroom might have encountered some problems at home or on the road to school (I9).*
- *Undoubtedly, the first quality a teacher should have is patience. Besides this, they should be tolerant, understanding, in good relationship with their students, and can establish good communication with them (I25).*
- *A teacher must be good-humoured, and establish communications with both the students and their families. They shouldn't discriminate between students, be able to use the language correctly and be understanding (I34).*
- *A teacher must be articulate, should establish good communication with the students and their parents, be model for the society with their behaviours, patient, tolerant, not discriminate between students by language, religion and nation, and have the ability to empathize (I36).*
- *Teachers should serve as models in protecting national and sentimental values with their behaviours, and have researcher and questioning qualities (I42).*

Findings Related to the Professional Qualities Teachers Should Have

For the professional qualities that teachers should have, 224 views were obtained from the teachers who serve in education system. These views and their frequencies are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Professional Qualities Teachers Should Have

Category	Sub-Categories	f
Professional qualities	Professional equipment	35
	Openness to innovations and changes	30
	Constant self-development	27
	Reading habit	25
	Love of profession	25
	Being student-centred	15
	Behaving in accordance with student psychology	14
	Using different methods and techniques	14
	Love for children	12
	Not imposing own ideas	5
	Using technology effectively	5
	Transferring knowledge effectively, in accordance with student level of knowledge	5
	Disciplined	3
	Non-violence	3
	Classroom management	3
Guidance	3	
Total		224

As presented in Table 2, for the personal qualities that teachers should have, 224 views were obtained from the teachers. Five highest frequency professional qualities were professional equipment (professional knowledge, field knowledge, general knowledge) (35 views), openness to innovations and changes (30 views), constant self-development (27 views), reading habit (25 views) and love for profession; while the four with the lowest frequency were discipline, non-violence, effective classroom management and guidance. Some quotations from the participants related to these views are presented below.

- *The first quality a teacher must have is professional love and commitment. Because teaching is a heart of heart. It cannot be done just for money (I1).*
- *First of all, a teacher must be competent in the professional and their field. They should be able to transfer their knowledge to the students in the best way, and love and understand the profession and children (I6).*
- *Teachers should be experts in their fields, developed professionally and have enough general knowledge and field knowledge (I8).*
- *Teachers should read a lot, love reading and impose the love of reading in a world where information constantly changes (I44).*
- *I think the most important quality a teacher should have is the love for the profession. If a teacher loves teaching, they can perform their profession properly (I45).*

Findings Related to the Qualities Teachers Lack

The qualities that teachers lack were studied in two categories as personal qualities and professional qualities. For personal qualities, 39 views, and for professional qualities category 116 views were obtained. The findings related to these qualities are presented below.

Findings Related to the Personal Qualities Teachers Lack

For the personal qualities that teachers lack, 39 views were obtained from the teachers who serve in education system. These views and their frequencies are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Personal Qualities Teachers Lack (or bad qualities)

Category	Sub-Categories	f
Personal qualities	Communication	8
	Strict discipline	6
	Anger	5
	Discrimination	5
	Patience	3
	Respect to students	3
	Being solution oriented	3
	Motivation	1
	Understanding	1
	Serving as model with clothing	1
	Prejudice	1
	Commitment	1
Affection	1	
Total		39

As presented in Table 3, the first four bad qualities teachers have were communication (8 views), strict discipline (6 views), discrimination (5 views) and anger (5 views); while the ones with lowest frequency (1 remark each) were clothing, prejudice, lack of commitment and lack of affection. Some quotations from the participants related to these views are presented below.

- *I believe teachers have many deficiencies in communicating with students. Student cannot easily communicate with their teachers, and share their problems (I10).*
- *What I observe in many teachers that, they neither love nor respect their students. They despise their students, and yell at them. I think this cannot be teaching (I12).*
- *The greatest problem I observe in teachers is that they cannot communicate with their students. They cannot behave their students objectively, and conduct lessons with certain students. Some teachers still have the sense of strict discipline. They get angry with the students who cannot understand what they teach (I30).*
- *I observe that teachers lack patience, because they can scold or yell at students in case of a slightest problem (I35).*
- *The number of teachers, who discriminate, is not limited at all in the system. Additionally, there are some teachers, who only work with certain students, cannot communicate with or insult students (I40).*

Findings Related to the Professional Qualities Teachers Lack

For the professional qualities that teachers lack, 116 views were obtained from the teachers who serve in education system. These views and their frequencies are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Professional Qualities Teachers Lack

Category	Sub-Categories	f
Professional qualities	No love for profession	15
	Seeing teaching as a guarantee job, with long holidays and little work load	13
	Not applying modern methods and techniques	13
	Not following innovations and developments	13
	No self-development	13
	Not having reading habit	13
	Field knowledge	8
	Love for children	7
	Unwillingness to work	7
	No professional studies	5
	Ineffective use of technology	3
	Trying to impose own opinions	2
	Classroom management	1
	Inability to teach at student level	1
	Threatening with grades	1
	Self control	1
	Total	

As presented in Table 4, the six bad qualities teachers think their colleagues have are, no love for profession (15 views), seeing teaching as a guarantee job with long holidays and little work-load (13 views), not applying modern methods and techniques (13 views), not following innovations and developments (13 views), no self-development (13 views), not reading (13 views), while the ones with lowest frequency (1 remark each) were classroom management, inability to teach at student level, threatening with grades and self control. Some quotations from the participants related to these views are presented below.

- *Teaching is seen as a guarantee job, with long holidays and little work load. I think this results in decrease in professional achievement. In other words, teaching is only seen as an occupation, not as the art of raising humans (I2).*
- *Parrot fashion can be still observed in some teachers. They don't put in effort for students to learn. The greatest problem here is that they don't love teaching, which is the greatest deficiency. Education system is not focused on raising teachers with necessary qualifications, but ones who can get high scores in the examinations (I6).*
- *There are some teachers who cannot keep up with the changing world. Those who cannot use technology efficiently... I think these are the greatest deficiencies (I7).*
- *I believe teachers aren't competent enough in following innovations and changes in the field, and they don't read enough books (I28).*
- *There are still teachers who just lecture or use question-answer method. They cannot implement different methods and techniques. These teachers may have experience or field knowledge, however this isn't enough because they don't follow anything after graduating from university and don't read enough. These teachers didn't prefer teaching, they became teachers involuntarily or by coincidence. Teaching is a heart of heart (I45).*

4. Conclusion

The present research consists of two parts as; qualities teachers should have and qualities teachers lack; and these parts consist of two categories as personal qualities and professional qualities. The personal qualities teachers should have with the highest frequency were positive communication, patience, humanism, no discrimination and researcher, questioning qualities, while the professional qualities with highest frequency were professional equipment, openness to innovations and changes, constant self-development, reading habit and love for profession. More views were obtained for professional qualities category. For the personal qualities that teachers lack (or bad qualities),

communication, strict discipline and discrimination were the most repeated sub-categories. According to the participants of the present research, among the professional qualities that teachers lack (or bad qualities) are not loving the profession, seeing teaching as a guarantee job, with long holidays and little work load, not applying modern methods and techniques, not following innovations and developments and not having reading habit. It was found that, most of the lacking qualities were professional qualities, and the number of lacking personal qualities was one third of lacking professional qualities. Accordingly, participants expressed that teachers should have more professional qualities, and also teachers they knew mostly lack professional qualities. Teaching is a heart of heart. It can continue only with love, constant self-development with reading habit, and adapting to the changing times. Teachers, who lack these qualities, cannot raise qualified students, qualified individuals, qualified doctors or qualified engineers. For this reason, it is of utmost importance for the future of a society that young people who are educated at faculties of education are individuals who adopt these qualities.

Milgram (1979), Whitlock and DuCette (1989), Wubbels, Levy, and Brekelmans (1997), Witcher, and Onwuegbuzie (1999), Harslett, Harrison, Godfrey, Partington and Richer (2000), Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and James (2002), Polk (2006), Onwuegbuzie, Witcher, Collins, Filer, Wiedmaier and Moore (2007), Kırıl and Akyol (2016) also obtained similar findings in their researches. Young, Whitley and Helton (1998), stated that the exams they gave and difficulty levels of the exams, discussions in the classroom, tone of voice, sense of humour, enthusiasm to teach, addressing to students, using instructional materials, and sincerity towards students were some of the features that ideal teachers should have. Steele (2010) found that qualified teachers could use their body language well, teach effectively and had leadership qualities. Qualified teacher, ideal teachers has been a subject that has been studied from past to present, and will one of the most important subjects to be studied in the future. Teachers can be qualified when they educate their students in accordance with the needs of the modern times, and accordingly when their students have high qualities.

In accordance with the findings of the present research, following suggestions were developed;

1. Teachers should be provided with in-service training on their field and pedagogical formation.
2. Successful teachers should be awarded in various ways.
3. Successful teachers can be provided with the opportunities to go abroad for summer schools in order to develop themselves, follow innovations, and learn different techniques and strategies.
4. Teachers, who don't love their profession, can be assigned in different duties.
5. Similar researches can be conducted on different groups with qualitative methods and techniques.

References

- Arnon, S. ve Reichel, R. (2007). Who is the Ideal Teacher? Am I? Similarity and Difference in Perception of Students of Education Regarding the Qualities of a Good Teacher and of Their Own Qualities as Teachers. *Teachers and Teaching*, 13(5), 441-464.
- Büyüköztürk, Ş., Çakmak, E. K., Akgün, Ö. A., Karadeniz, Ş. ve Demirel, F. (2008). *Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemleri*[Scientific Research Methods]. Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Crumbley, L., Henry, B. K. ve Kratchman, S. H. (2001). Students' Perceptions of the Evaluation of College Teaching. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 9, 197-207.
- Good, T. L. ve Brophy, J. E. (1994). *Looking in classrooms*. NewYork: Harper Collins.
- Hançerlioğlu, O. (1970). *Felsefe Sözlüğü*[Philosophy Dictionary]. İstanbul: Remzi Kitabevi.
- Harslett, M., Harrison, B., Godfrey, J., Partington, G., & Richer, K. (2000). Teacher Perceptions of the Characteristics of Effective Teachers of Aboriginal Middle School Students. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 25(2).

- Kane, R., Sandretto, S. ve Heath, C. (2004). An Investigation into Excellent Tertiary Teaching: Emphasizing Reflective Practice. *Higher Education*, 47, 283–310.
- Karasar, N. (1991). *Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemi*[Scientific Research Method]. Ankara: Nobel Yayınları.
- Kiral, B. ve Akyol, B. (12-14 Mayıs 2016). Öğretmen Adaylarının Gözünden 'Nitelikli Öğretmen'[Qualified Teacher from the Perspective of Prospective Teachers]. 11. Ulusal Eğitim Yönetimi Kongresi, Kuşadası.
- Maden, S., Durukan, E. ve Aslan, A. (2010). Türkçe Öğretmeni Adaylarının Öğretmen Niteliklerine Yönelik Görüşleri. *Turkish Studies International Periodical for the Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*. 5 (4), 1364-1378.
- Miles, M. B. ve Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis*. Thousand Oaks, Sage.
- Milgram, R. M. (1979). Perception of teacher behavior in gifted and nongifted children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71, 125–128.
- Minor, L. C., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Witcher, A. E. ve James, T. L. (2002). Preservice Teachers' Educational Beliefs and Their Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective Teachers. *The Journal of Educational Research*. 96(2), 116-127.
- Mullock, B. (2003). What makes a good teacher? The perceptions of postgraduate TESOL students. *Prospect*. 18(3), 3-24.
- Okpala, C. O., & Ellis, R. (2005). The perceptions of college students on teacher quality: A focus on teacher qualifications. *Education*, 126, 374–378.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Witcher, A. E., Collins, K. M. T., Filer, J. D., Wiedmaier, C. D. ve Moore, C. W. (2007). Students' Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective College Teachers: A Validity Study of a Teaching Evaluation Form Using a Mixed-Methods Analysis. *American Educational Research Journal*. 44 (1), 113–160.
- Oxford Sözlüğü. <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/quality> adresinden 01.03.2016 tarihinde indirilmiştir.
- Özabacı, N. ve Acat, M. B. (2005). Öğretmen Adaylarının Kendi Özellikleri İle İdeal Öğretmen Özelliklerine Dönük Algılarının Karşılaştırılması[The Comparison of Prospective Teachers for Their Views of Their Features and Ideal Teacher]. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi*. 42, 211-236.
- Polk, J. A. (2006). Traits of Effective Teachers. *Arts Education Policy Review*. 107 (4), 23- 29.
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1–22.
- Steele, N. A. (2010). Three Characteristics of Effective Teachers. *Applications of Research in Music Education*. 1-8.
- Şişman, M. (2001). *Öğretmenliğe Giriş*[Introduction to Teaching Profession]. Ankara: PegemA Yayınları.
- Taşkaya, M. S. (2012). Nitelikli Öğretmende Bulunması Gereken Özelliklerin Öğretmen Adaylarının Görüşlerine Göre İncelenmesi[The Analysis of Qualities of Teachers from the Perspective of Prospective Teachers]. *Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*. 33 (2), 283-298.
- Türk Dil Kurumu Sözlüğü[Dictionary Turkish Language]. (2016). tdk.org.tr adresinden 01.03.2016 tarihinde indirilmiştir.
- Witcher, A. ve Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (17-19 November1999). Characteristics of Effective Teachers: Perceptions of Preservice Teachers. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association.
- Whitlock, M. S. ve DuCette, J. P. (1989). Outstanding and average teachers of the gifted: A comparative study. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 33, 15–21.
- Wubbels, T., Levy, J., ve Brekelmans, M. (1997). Paying attention to relationships. *Educational Leadership*. 54(7), 82-86.
- Yıldırım, A. ve Şimşek, H. (2005). Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri[Qualitative Research Methods in Social Sciences]. Ankara: Seçkin Yayınları.

The Views of Classroom Teachers for Qualified Teacher

Young, B. N., Whitley, M. E. ve Helton, C. (4-6 November 1998). Students' Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective Teachers. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South.

Management Approaches Affectional to School and Classroom

*Süleyman Göksoy

Introduction

Considering management history, it is obvious that changes in the field of organizational management occurs in the process starting from traditionality and proceeding to scientific and contemporary approaches (Yeniçeri, 2002:57). Traditional management approaches have tackled human factor in the background and regarded the organization as a machine, accordingly human was a part of this machine (Şimşek, 2002). According to classic approach, organization is a closed system which barely has interaction with its environment (Barutçu, 2000). Classic organizational structure represents a system in which the obedience to authority is targeted. It is based on a hierarchical supervision in which the power and responsibilities are determined strictly. Also the power of decision is carried out by some few people (Tokat, 2003; Elif, 1995).

Those who follows classic method have focused mostly on management and managers and they have determined general principles about management. They regarded employees as a production tool and a part of the machine. By focusing on the formal organization and relations, they ignored informal organization and relations. They believed that they could encourage people to work by offering economic and financial rewards and advocated the human and economic view for organization. In terms of current era and characteristics of employees, some of the principles that have been stated in classic organization and management theory may be regarded as considerable from the point of educational and cultural levels. However, changing conditions have made some different management views a current issue (Şişman ve Turan, 2002:15).

The idea, suggested by traditional management, of regarding the employees as machines have been replaced by human relations approach as a result of series of research findings known as Hawthorne researches (Can, 1997:39). In these researches, it is understood that controlling the working conditions could not prevent employees from interacting and producing out of this control. Accordingly, human relations era have started (Bursalıoğlu 2003,28).

The approach which holds the idea that people in the organization have their own motives, beliefs, attitudes and values suggests that it is not possible to regard individuals as tools for the organization (Onaran, 1971:16). According to human relations management theories, human is social and efficient. An individual desires to live in a society; gets motivated for his needs; likes building good relationships, working for his goals, taking responsibilities, creating self-management; finds groups that he can attend in the organization; adopts the values, norms, principles, rules of the group; identifies with the organization; works for the organization and takes the necessary responsibilities (Başaran, 2000:50).

Management of human relations approach is based on the idea that productiveness is only possible if the employees are behaved well. This approach focuses on the necessary changes in the individual values and behaviors and examines the effects of changing organizational managers' values and behaviors on other elements of the organization (structural and technologic aims). It focuses on the insufficiency of figural communication rules, advantages of direct, face to face communication and necessity of group communication (Çelebioğlu, 1990; Tokat, 2003).

Human relations theorists emphasized that communication channels should be bidirectional, top-down, bottom-up, unengaged and open. They stated that commands can be transferred top to bottom and information can be transferred bottom to top and the internal harmony of the organization

can be preserved in this way (Varol, 1993:30). As it is seen, this theory suggests that changes in the human factors of the organization underpin the organizational change.

Educational management has become the vocation of relations and interactions as a result of reflection of neoclassical management theory on education system (Yücel and Turan, 2006). Human relations are interactions of people with any kind of objects and situations via mutual actions to achieve their goals. Human relations aim to work with people for people and to create effective relationships with other people. As for human relations in management, the aim is to encourage employees to teamwork in order to perform organizational goals effectively and fulfil the transactors' requirements. Human relations do not contain doing everything that transactors say, de-stressing them, having no problems with them, making unnecessary concessions, sympathizing or emoting.

The management approach which treats organization as a system and proves that this system can get influenced by other internal and external sub-systems is contingency approach (Efil, 2006). According to contingency approach which emphasizes the importance of change in the contemporary management theory, organizations shape upon their environments, not upon some invariable principles. This kind of approach requires different management applications for each changing situation. For this, organizations should become flexible and organic structures that can adapt environmental conditions (Tüz, 2004; Genç, 2004). This theory rejects the principles that previous theories asserted as universal truth. Situations and conditions are taken into consideration in contingency approach. Therefore there is no management or an organizational structure that fits everytime and in every condition. Contingency approach emphasizes the importance of applying the most convenient management approach. In other words, it suggests that each organizational requirement and condition creates its own management perception and attitude.

Researches and theoretical data have shown that teachers and managers play a great role in the quality of the school (Hargreaves, 1994; Shulman, 1987). Managers who determines the quality of the school affects the school and classroom management with their management approaches. Current research aims to detect the management approaches that school managers apply in schools and in classrooms and to reveal the extent of them. In the direction of the stated aim, the following questions have been seeked for an answer:

Within the scope of traditional, human relations and situational management approaches in school and classroom managements:

- a) Which applications have been applied? Which applications are supposed to be applied?
- b) Which of the current applications should not be applied?
- c) Which applications should be added to the current applications?

2. Method

2.1. Research design

The research was carried out with qualitative research design in order to examine the meanings that occur as a result of experiences systematically and present the perceptions and events realistically and holistically (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011). Phenomenology, one of the qualitative research designs was used. Phenomenology is the description of a phenomenon in terms of experiences of individuals or of a specific group. The main question in a phenomenologic research is: What are the meaning, structure and content of these experienced phenomena for a specific person or people? (Christensen, Johnson, Turner, 2015). In a phenomenologic research, lifeworld of each participant is tried to be reached in order to examine how participants experience the management approaches. In this research, it is aimed to detect the management approaches that school managers apply in schools and in classrooms and to reveal the extent of them.

The steps that have been followed in the direction of phenomenologic research design are (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011):

- ✓ Following the literature about the management approaches, sample situations, applications and questions for each approach (traditional, behavioural and situational) have been formed.

- ✓ Working groups that will attend the research and the seating arrangement in the classroom according to school degrees have been determined.
- ✓ Sample situations and questions have been distributed to groups and activities have been done (reading, discussing, determining the similar and different applications, comparing, summarizing, generalization).
- ✓ Group work documents have been collected and they have been associated with sub problems.
- ✓ Opinions have been integrated.
- ✓ Descriptive analysis and interpretation of the data have been performed.
- ✓ The study have been reported.

2.2. Working Group

Criterion sampling and maximum variation sampling of purposeful sampling methods were used in determining the working group of the research (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011). The working group consists of school managers appointed in 2014-2015 academic year. School managers in the working group were determined with using disproportionate quota sampling of improbable sampling methods. Improbable sampling methods are used especially in qualitative researches and they aim to give extensive information about substantial phenomena (management approaches) (Şahin, 2012). In improbable sampling method, dispersion of the feature that sets the quota in the population is not given importance (Akbulut, 2012).

The criteria in the research are being a school manager and working for at least one year. The reason of deciding on these criteria is that awareness levels of school managers about management approaches are higher. School managers have been chosen by fives from each educational degree (8 from preschool, 8 from primary school, 8 from secondary school, 8 from high school). The working group consists of 32 managers in total. Research data have been obtained from three separate management courses held in Düzce University between 02/02/2015-01/06/2015 with school managers. The research consist of 16 female and 16 male school managers and 24 of them are bachelor's degree and 8 of them are postgraduate degree.

2.3. Data collection tool

Phenomenological research method demands participants to focus on their own phenomenal self and to describe their experiences (daily or past) with their own terms. The main data collection tool in a phenomenological research is depth interview with open-ended questions. This is generally performed with participants' writing their experiences (Christensen, Johnson, Turner, 2015). In the study, researcher collected the data by precedent, team work, interview and discussion. In this purpose, researcher adapted the three types of school samples described in "Supervisory and Educational Leadership, A Developmental Approach" written by Glickman, Gordon and Gordon (2014) as 'High school X', 'Primary school Y' and 'High school Z'. The fundamental philosophy and principles of management approaches were submitted to participants as a text and the participants were requested to examine and discuss them. Thereafter, the groups were inquired the following questions:

- ✓ Which of these educational environments do you have in your school?
- ✓ Which of these educational environments do you have the deficiency in your school?
- ✓ What are the sample applications that you can apply in your school?
- ✓ What are the sample applications that you do not want to apply in your school?
- ✓ What do you think these sample schools lack and what can be applied alongside these applications?

2.4. Data analysis

Data were analyzed with descriptive analysis techniques. In descriptive analysis, similar data are gathered within the frame of notions and themes in order to reach out for the concepts and relations that can explain the collected data (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011). Accordingly, similar data were gathered within the frame of specific notions and themes. Also data were interpreted and organized

in a way that readers can comprehend. The views were placed in themes regarding the similarities, differences and relationships of the interpretations. Total numbers of views were not included in the themes for the reason that each person stated more than one views. Opinions of participants are transferred without any alterations. Voluntariness of participants are given great importance. In the scope of phenomenological research (Christensen, Johnson, Turner, 2015), each participant was requested to state their opinions about their experiences. It is tried to detect some significant and important opinions (words, phrases, sentences) related to management approaches. After reading and re-reading the determined and recorded word phrases, they were listed and structured by their meanings. Later on, meaning expressions were edited according to management approaches (traditional, behavioural and situational).

Validity and Reliability

Reliability of a research corresponds to accuracy and substantiality of research findings or of inferences acquired from findings (Christensen, Johnson, Turner, 2015). The most important factor in the reliability of qualitative researches is the consistency of findings with collected data (Merriam, 2013). The following strategies were followed in order to increase the validity and reliability:

- ✓ Findings were reflected without any changes. Any kind of manipulation or a control were not done.
- ✓ Purposeful sampling method was used in order to get further and more explanatory information and the working group was chosen in informative quality for the purpose of getting information about management approaches.
- ✓ Data obtained from the working group were not used for an empirical generalization into population.
- ✓ Researches tried to show empathetic posture, sensitiveness, awareness in the interviews and tried to understand participants by showing reactions.
- ✓ Multiple explanations and perspectives were used in order to facilitate the interpretation and explanation of the data.

3. Findings and Interpretations

Findings obtained from school managers have been presented in tables and interpreted.

Opinions of managers about application of management approaches in schools and classrooms

a) Application of traditional management approach in schools and classrooms

Opinions of school managers participated in the research about sample applications of traditional management approaches are given in Table 1. School managers participated in the research have stated the same opinions to all sub categories, therefore no different frequency is given for each sub category in the table.

Table 1. Reflection of Traditional Management Approach to School and Classroom

Theme	Explanation	Sub Categories	f (40)
Traditional Management	Activities that have been applied and that should be applied in the school and classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - determining the rules of the classroom and of the school - students' participation to learning actively - evaluation of the conducted studies - preparation for the next lesson -feeling comfortable while entering the institutional units and managers' rooms - school layout plan 	
Traditional Management	Activities that have been applied but should not be applied in the school and classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -inflicting punishment on students in the classroom and school - similar classrooms - teaching in the same level and with the same book in all classes - teachers' teaching a lesson only by lecturing - strict rules - use of same book of teachers who teach the same lesson - extraordinary seriousness of educators - empty and silent school corridors - silent classrooms - meeting with the teacher during the lesson - use of same equipment -lining the pews and desks one after the other (not having a seating organisation) - changing the teachers frequently 	
Traditional Management	Activities that have not been applied but are necessary to be applied in the school and classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - informing the management about guests - not too much differences between classrooms - supervising the classrooms frequently - academic success of students - managers' visiting teachers in the classrooms systematically - effective usage of time, starting lessons on time 	

- 1) Activities that have been applied and that should be applied in the school and classroom are; determining the school and classroom rules, behaving properly, evaluation activities, layout plans, feeling free to enter managers' rooms and lesson preparations.
- 2) Prominent traditional management activities that have been applied but should not be applied in the school and classroom are punishing students, routinized classrooms, use of the same coursebook in the same time, teacher-centered lessons, stricts rules, excessive seriousness of the educators, negativeness of the silence in the classrooms and in the school, lecturing with the similar equipments, traditional sitting plan.
- 3) Activities that have not been applied but are necessary to be applied in the school and classroom are informing the school management about the guests, classroom variatons, supervision of the classrooms once in a year, academic success of the students, managers' visits to teachers systematically, effective usage of time and starting lessons on time.

b) Application of behavioural management approach in schools and classrooms

Opinions of school managers participated in the research about sample applications of behavioural management approaches are given in Table 2. School managers participated in the research have stated the same opinions to all sub categories, therefore no different frequency is given for each sub category in the table.

Management Approaches Affectional to School and Classroom

Table 2. Reflections of Behavioural Management Approach to Schools and Classrooms

Theme	Explanation	Sub Categories	f (40)
Behavior aApproac h	Activities that have been applied and that should be applied in the school and classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - students are respectful - students feel comfortable while talking to each other and to their teachers - teachers make jokes with each other and with students -parents meet managers and teachers in the school and classroom - teachers and students have a conversation in breaks - teachers are relaxed, stressless and peaceful - warning students at times -students are not free to do anything they want (about playgrounds and materials) - teachers act in unison - teachers and students behave in a relaxed manner - happiness - sincereness - students like each other -teachers are independent determining the methods and techniques in lessons - annual meetings that are open to discussion - warm and supportive school and classroom environments 	
Behavior aApproac h	Activities that have been applied but should not be applied in the school and classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - unhappiness - institutional pressure -extraordinary independence -closed classroom doors - ready made/standardized programs - similar classrooms - discipline by fear or punishment - managers and teachers acts on their own - strict dependence on plan and program -stress 	
Behavior aApproac h	Activities that have not been applied but are necessary to be applied in the school and classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - teachers and students rush to classroom when the bell rings - different types of classrooms - teachers and managers have a lunch together once in a week - educators visit each other on weekends - greeting each guest personally and showing interest - presenting the school to parents - smooth school and classroom environments - teachers and students know what they are required - breakfast opportunity in the school - lack of classroom supervisions - stuff reflects their own views 	

- 1) Prominent reflections of behavioral management approach that have been applied and that should be applied in the school and classroom are respect, affection, sincereness, happiness, independence of teachers on determining the methods and techniques in lessons, relaxed and stressless teachers, easy communication among students and between students and teachers.
- 2) The items that have been accepted as the consequence of behavioral management approach and that have been decided not to be in a classroom and school environment are unhappiness, institutional pressure, extraordinary independence, closed classroom doors, ready made/standardized programs, similar classrooms, discipline by fear and punishment,

single-handed acts of managers and teachers, strict dependence on plan and program and stress.

- 3) Activities that behavioral management approach contains and that should be applied in classrooms and schools are: awareness of tasks and responsibilities in terms of time management, different types of classrooms, weekly lunches of teachers and managers, visitations of educators on weekends, personal greetings of guests in the school, introduction of the school to parents, smooth school and classroom environments, awareness of requirements, breakfast opportunity in the school, less classroom supervisions and opportunity for staff members to reflect their own views.

c) Application of situational management approach in schools and classrooms

Opinions of school managers participated in the research about sample applications of situational management approaches are given in Table 2. School managers participated in the research have stated the same opinions to all sub categories, therefore no different frequency is given for each sub category in the table.

Table 3. Reflections of Situational Management Approach to Schools and Classrooms

Theme	Explanation	Sub Categories	f (40)
Situation a Approach h	Activities that have been applied and that should be applied in the school and classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - sharing, collaboration and cooperations among teachers - school managers teach lessons as well - study oriented groups/teams - teachers ask questions related to lessons and teach lessons by getting the opinions of students - teachers give feedback to student performances - students are encourage to think 	
Situation a Approach h	Activities that have been applied but should not be applied in the school and classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - school managers takes the decisions about the applications on their own, they are dominant 	
Situation a Approach h	Activities that have not been applied but are necessary to be applied in the school and classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the least difference between the success levels of students - group works - educational leadership - peer coaching - school leadership committee - participation to decisions - democratic management - taking decisions by majority of votes - participation of students to the lessons actively - renovating the vision and misson of the school - providing alternative educational opportunities - project works - interdisciplinary collaborative works - special care for students with learning difficulties - teachers do not discuss about lesson plans, they download ready made plans - research environment and action research - teachers are uninterested about visions and missions of the school - exchange of ideas between teachers by brainstorming - daily evaluation meetings with managers and teachers at the end of the lessons 	

		<i>different plans and programs</i> <i>- managerial leadership</i> <i>- planning and processing the lessons according to constructivist approach</i>
--	--	--

- 1) Prominent activities that have been applied and that reflects the situational management approach are; sharing, collaboration and cooperation among teachers, lectures given by school managers, study oriented groups/teams, questions related to lessons and lessons based on student views, feedbacks to student performances given by teachers and encouraging students to think.
- 2) Activity that has been applied but should not be applied in the school and classroom is that school managers takes the decisions about the applications on their own. This item has been stated briefly, however it is an important issue.
- 3) Activities that have not been applied but that should be applied in the frame of situational management approach are; Less differences between the success levels of students, group works, educational leadership, peer coaching, school leadership committee, participation to decisions, democratic management, renovating the school vision and mission, alternative educational opportunities, project Works, interdisciplinary collaborative studies, special care for the students with learning difficulties, teachers' not discussing on lesson plans, downloading ready made plans, research environment and action research, indifference of teachers about the mission and vision of the school, exchange of ideas between teachers by brainstorming, daily evaluation meetings with managers and teachers at the end of the lessons, different plans and programs, managerial leadership and planning and processing the lessons according to constructivist approach.

4. Results and Suggestions

It is possible to perceive the traces of classical/traditional, behavioral and situational organizational theories on school and classroom management. It can be inferred that school and classroom managements contain the synthesis of principles and rules of management theories. The following results are obtained based on research findings:

- 1- **The current positive activities that have been conducted in schools and classrooms and that should be maintained in the frame of classical/traditional, behavioral and situational management theories are: (classical/traditional, behavioral and situational respectively)**
 - a) Determining the school and classroom rules, behaving properly, evaluation activities, layout plans, feeling free to enter managers' rooms and lesson preparations.
 - b) Respect, affection, sincereness, happiness, independence of teachers on determining the methods and techniques in lessons, relaxed and stressless teachers, easy communication among students and between students and teachers.
 - c) Sharing, collaboration and cooperation among teachers, lectures given by school managers, study oriented groups/teams, questions related to lessons and lessons based on student views, feedbacks to student performances given by teachers and encouraging students to think.
- 2- **Activities that should not be applied in school and classroom management in the frame of classical/traditional, behavioral and situational management theories are: (classical/traditional, behavioral and situational respectively)**
 - a) Punishing students, routinized classrooms, use of the same coursebook in the same time, teacher-centered lessons, stricts rules, excessive seriousness of the educators, negativeness of the silence in the classrooms and in the school, lecturing with the similar equipments, traditional sitting plan.
 - b) Unhappiness, institutional pressure, extraordinary independence, closed classroom doors, ready made/standardized programs, similar classrooms, discipline by fear and punishment, single-handed acts of managers and teachers, strict dependence on plan and program and stress.

- c) Decisions taken by the school manager single-handedly and dominance of the manager.
- 3- Activities that have not been applied but that are necessary to be applied in the frame of classical/traditional, behavioral and situational management approaches are: (classical/traditional, behavioral and situational respectively)**
- a) Informing the school management about the guests, classroom variations, supervision of the classrooms once in a year, academic success of the students, managers' visits to teachers systematically, effective usage of time and starting lessons on time.
- b) Awareness of tasks and responsibilities in terms of time management, different types of classrooms, weekly lunches of teachers and managers, visitations of educators on weekends, personal greetings of guests in the school, introduction of the school to parents, smooth school and classroom environments, awareness of requirements, breakfast opportunity in the school, less classroom supervisions and opportunity for staff members to reflect their own views.
- c) Less differences between the success levels of students, group works, educational leadership, peer coaching, school leadership committee, participation to decisions, democratic management, renovating the school vision and mission, alternative educational opportunities, project Works, interdisciplinary collaborative studies, special care for the students with learning difficulties, teachers' not discussing on lesson plans, downloading ready made plans, research environment and action research, indifference of teachers about the mission and vision of the school, exchange of ideas between teachers by brainstorming, daily evaluation meetings with managers and teachers at the end of the lessons, different plans and programs, managerial leadership and planning and processing the lessons according to constructivist approach.

References

- Anna, C., Pratt (1999). Discretionary Power, Law and Administration of the Canadian Immigration Act. *Social@Legal Studies. An International Journal*, Vol: 8, issue 2, Canada.
- Toffler, Alvia.** Gelecek Korkusu Şok (Çev: Selami Turgut) İstanbul: 1998.
- Keçecioğlu, Tamer. Bir Değişimin Anatomisi. İstanbul: 2001.
- Barutçu, Esin. "Örgütsel Değişim Yönetimi ve Denizli Tekstil İşletmelerinde Bir Uygulama". Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Konya Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, 2000.
- Genç, Nurullah. Yönetim ve Organizasyon Çağdaş Sistemler ve Yaklaşımlar. Ankara: 2004.
- Tüz, V. Melek; Değişim ve Kaos Ortamında İşletme Davranışı, Uludağ Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi, 2004.
- Barutçu, Esin. (2000). "Örgütsel Değişim Yönetimi Ve Denizli Tekstil İşletmelerinde Bir Uygulama". Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Doktora Tezi. Konya,
- Başaran, İ. E. (1982). Örgütsel Davranış. Ankara: A.Ü. Eğitim Fakültesi Yay. No:108.
- _____. (1992). Yönetimde İnsan İlişkileri, Yönetimsel Davranış, Kadioğlu Matbaası, Ankara:
- _____. (1986). *Yönetim*. Ankara: Gül Yayınevi.
- Bursalioğlu, Z. (2003). Eğitim Yönetiminde Teori Ve Uygulama. Ankara: Pegema Yayıncılık,
- _____. (1994). Okul Yönetiminde Yeni Yapı Ve Davranış, Genişletilmiş, 9. Baskı, Pegem Yayın No: 9, Ankara:
- Can, H, (1997). Organizasyon Ve Yönetim, Ankara: Siyasal Kitabevi,
- Çelebioğlu, Fuat. (1990). Örgütsel Değişim. İstanbul,
- Elif, İsmail. (1995). İşletmelerde Yönetim Ve Organizasyon, Bursa,
- Onaran, Oğuz (1971). Örgütlerde Karar Verme. Ankara: A.Ü. Sbf.
- Robbins, P. Stephen. (1994). Örgütsel Davranışın Temelleri. (Çev: Sevgi Ayşe Öztürk), Eskişehir: Etam A.Ş. Basım Ve Yayımları,
- Şimşek, M. Şerif Ve Akın, H. Bahadır. (2003). Teknoloji Yönetimi Ve Örgütsel Değişim, Çizgi Kitabevi, Konya.
- Şimşek, H. (2010). Toplam Kalite Yönetimi, Seçkin Yayınevi, Ankara.

- Şimşek, M., Akgemici, Ş., Çelik,A.(2001). Davranış Bilimlerine Giriş Ve Örgütsel Davranış, Ankara: Nobel Yayınları, Ss. 295,.
- Şimşek, M.Şerif. (2002).Yönetim Ve Organizasyon. Konya,
- Şişman, M.(2006). *Eğitim Bilimine Giriş*. Ankara: Pegem Yayıncılık
- Şişman, Mehmet Ve Selahattin Turan. (2005). "Eğitim Ve Okul Yönetimi," Edit.: Yüksel Özden) Eğitim Ve Okul Yöneticiliği El Kitabı. Ankara: Pegem A Yayıncılık, 2. Baskı.
- _____. (2002). Eğitimde Toplam Kalite Yönetimi. Ankara: Pegem A Yayıncılık,
- Şişman, Mehmet. (2004). Öğretim Liderliği, Ankara: Pegem A Yayıncılık.
- Tokat, Bülent. (2003) "Örgütsel Değişim Ve Değişim Yönetimi". Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Varol, Muharrem (1993).Halkla İlişkiler Açısından Örgüt Sosyolojisine Giriş. Ankara: A.Ü. İletişim Fakültesi.
- Yeniçeri, Ö. (2002). Örgütsel Değişimin Yönetimi:Sorunlar, Yöntemler, Teknikler, Stratejiler Ve Çözüm Yolları, Ankara : Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- Yıldırım, A. Ve Şimşek, H. (2005). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri*, (5. Bs.), Ankara: Seçkin.
- Yücel, C Ve Turan S. (2006). "Correlates Of Work Contexts İn Principalship." Annual Meeting Of [American Educational Research Association](#), "Division A" International Committee. San Francisco.
- Shulman, L. S. Knowledge and Teaching: Foundations of the New Reforms. Harvard Educational Review, 1987, 57(1), 1–22.
- Hargreaves, A. Changing Teachers, Chan Fullan, M. Leading in a Culture of Change. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2001.
- Akbulut, Y. (2012). Veri çözümlene teknikleri. A. Şimşek (Ed.) Sosyal Bilimlerde Araştırma Yöntemleri, Anadolu Üniversitesi Yayını No: 2653.
- Şahin, B.(2012). Metodoloji. A. Tanrıöğen (Ed.) Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri. Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Yıldırım, A. ve Şimşek, H. (2011). Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research: choosing among five traditions*. London: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research design and methods*, London: Sage Publications.
- Christensen,L,B, Johnson, R.,B, Turner, L.,A (2015). Araştırma Yöntemleri Desen ve Analiz. (Çeviri Editörü: Ahmet Apay) Ankara, Anı Yayınları.
- Merriam, S. B. (2013). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education* (Çev. S. Turan). Ankara: Nobel Yayınevi.
- Efil, İ. (2006). İşletmelerde Yönetim ve Organizasyon. 8. Baskı, Alfa Akademi Basım Yayım Dağıtım Ltd. Şti., İstanbul.
- Glickman, C. D., Gordon, S.P., Gordon, J. M. R. (2014). Denetim ve Öğretimsel Liderlik, Gelişimsel Bir Yaklaşım. . (Çeviri Editörleri: Mualla Bilgin Aksu, Esmahan Ağaoğlu) Ankara, Anı Yayınları.

An Analysis Of The Sight-Reading Problems In Piano Instruction Experienced By Students In The Music Teaching Program Of An Education Faculty

Zafer Tural

Introduction

In music education, training for all instruments from the beginning level is mainly carried out with pre-written studies and works. Formal, rhythmic, harmonic, musical dynamics and the stylistic characteristics of the learned works are arranged in pedagogical development stages. This research examines the concept of sight-reading, which we use for to understand the studies and works that we encounter for the first time in instrument education in terms of piano education. The Turkish word for sight-reading, *deşifre*, derives from French with the prefix, *de*, at the beginning of the word, *chiffre*, which means "all signs used for hidden communication" (Özgür, 1995, cited by Kurtuldu, 2014).

Deşifre is sight-reading in English, which means reading and playing at once in English. Important factors in sight reading include the speed of hand positioning, hand and eye coordination, the speed of note reading, the speed of visual perception to fine motor skills, practice period, form and harmonic structure. In addition, circular reading according to Küçük (1994) is also an important skill for sight-reading. Circular reading is a technique that allows you to perceive the notes of the work vertically and horizontally and to read every variable on the musical note such as musical dynamics, finger numbers, harmonic codes, motifs and cues, quickly and at the same time. According to Fenmen (1991), fast reading is necessary for every musician. Thus, by reading new works, we become more familiar with music literature (Fenmen, 1991: p.31). We can improve our repertoire by recognizing many works more effectively in piano literature by developing sight-reading.

We can examine sight-reading in two ways as "play-through" and "play-out" (Küçük, 1994). Sight-reading is trying to play works that are easier than the students' playing levels at a tempo that is close to normal, making as few mistakes as possible and without starting over even if they make mistakes (Küçük, 1994). If it is a working sight-reading, we can evaluate the level of the student as new technique learning and repertoire extension. It is unlikely that the student will play at real speed here. It is considered to be an ordinary situation that the work is decipher the works. The teacher attaches importance to the details of the work or *étude* and has the student play as slowly and carefully as possible. Deciphered works are learned as they are developed, and the piano education level progresses with new repertoire.

The process of sight-reading is a complicated process in which rhythm and interval analysis is done at the same time, which means that psychomotor skills are very important. Sight-reading consists of two steps, preparation and application. Having knowledge about the characteristics of the work and its harmonic structure before a new work is sight-read is important because it can be learned in a shorter time. That is, sight-reading skill is a skill that has many sub-dimensions, develops as it works and requires lifelong education and practice (Henry & Mobberley, 2000).

The aim of this research is to reveal the views of the fourth-year students at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University's Faculty of Education, Fine Arts Education Department, Music Education Department about the evaluation of sight-reading problems in piano education.

Method

This study used the descriptive research method. The descriptive research method focuses on a particular group and their ideas about a topic of discussion (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). The study group of the research was composed of 6 students selected from the fourth-year students in the Music Education Department of the Fine Arts Education Department of the Faculty of Fine Arts Education of ÇOMÜ Education Faculty in 2016-2017 academic year. Of them, three are female, and three are male. The selection of the participants was based on a sampling method that is used to explain facts and

events that are applied in many cases (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008). Easily accessible case sampling offers speed and convenience to the researcher. In this context, the researcher used judgement to choose the best students for the sample (Balçı, 2004).

Data Collection Tool

The data were collected in semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews allow researchers to modify the interview to adapt to unexpected or novel situations (Özgüven, 2004). Semi-structured interviews are not as rigid as structured interviews, and not as flexible as unstructured interviews, but located between two extremes (Karasar, 2009). The interview form developed by Canbey et al. (2012) was used as data collection tool in the study. Canbey et al. (2012) first prepared an interview form by conducting a pilot interview with four students from outside the study group. It was then reviewed by field experts to ensure its internal validity. After the necessary revisions, the form was finalized. There are six questions on the form. The investigator recorded the interviews. Each interview took 15-20 minutes on average.

The interviews were done individually with each student in an environment where the participants felt comfortable and could easily express their thoughts. The researcher had the freedom to ask additional questions (Glesne, 2012) in order to have more in-depth knowledge of the participants' responses. Therefore, the researcher also asked additional questions when necessary. These were the interview questions:

1. How much time do you devote to studying to improve your sight-reading skills outside the classroom?
2. What is the level of the sight-reading studies in the undergraduate piano curriculum?
3. To what degree is it possible to sight-read in piano lessons?
4. Are you successful in sight-reading for the piano? Explain the reasons for your success or failure.
5. What are the variables that make sight-reading difficult for you? Why do they make it difficult?
6. If you are having difficulty sight-reading, what should you emphasize in your studies?

Analysis of the Data

The data obtained from the research were analyzed using descriptive analysis. Descriptive analysis allows data to be presented by considering research questions (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008). Descriptive analysis often involves direct quotations with the aim of presenting the thoughts of the interviewed individuals in a striking way. Direct citation is important for validity (Wolcott, 1990). On the basis of confidentiality, the names of the students who participated in the study were not included. Instead, they were designated by gender and a number. During the analysis of the data:

Preparation of the interview coding keys: The interviews were dictated and interviews were recorded in a separate word file for each participant. Encoding keys were established according to the interview questions directed to the participants. The data was processed according to the encoding key. The data were then analyzed descriptively in the form of frequencies according to the questions on the interview form. In the direction of the findings obtained, the data were interpreted by the researcher directly and supported with quotations. The frequency distributions of the responses of participants to each question are shown in tables.

Reliability of the study: The responses of the participants were coded by the investigator and reliability studies were conducted. In the calculation of the reliability of the research: $\text{Reliability} = \frac{\text{Consensus}}{\text{Consensus} + \text{Disagreement}}$ The reliability formula of Miles and Huberman (1994) was used. The reliability of the study was 86.1%. This is over 70%, which means that it is reliable.

Findings

The first question was: How much time do you devote to studying to improve your sight-reading skills outside the classroom? The responses and frequency distributions for this question are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. How much time do you devote to studying to improve your sight-reading skills outside the classroom?

Teacher Candidates' Opinions	f
I rarely dedicate time for this.	1
More than three hours per week of spare time.	2
Two or three hours per week of spare time.	2
Never.	1
Sum of opinions	6

As Table 1 shows, two participant spend more than three hours a week. Two others spend two or three hours a week. One does so rarely, and another, never.

Example 5, Male: "Since I like piano lessons, I spend more than three hours a week working on developing sight-reading outside of piano lessons."

Example 6, Female: "I rarely work on sight-reading for piano lessons."

The second question was: What is the level of the sight-reading studies in the undergraduate piano curriculum? The responses and frequency ranges are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. What is the level of the sight-reading studies in the undergraduate piano curriculum?

Teacher Candidates' Opinions	f
Not enough time allowed.	1
Mid-level.	2
Adequate time is allowed.	3
Sum of opinions	6

As Table 2 shows, half the teacher candidates think that the time for sight-reading studies is not sufficient. Two students see it as middle level, and one student said that adequate time is devoted to sight-reading.

Example 1, Male: "When a new work is given, I can analyze the work even if it is limited to the time of the lesson. The points I do not understand in sight-reading are explained by my piano teacher."

Example 6, Female: "In the undergraduate program, sight-reading works only in piano lessons learned with the track or newly assigned works. Therefore, I don't think the study of sight-reading in piano lessons is sufficient."

Example 2, Female: "We do not work on sight-reading in piano lessons. The teacher's attitude about this is very reluctant."

The third question was: To what degree is it possible to sight-read in piano lessons?The responses and frequency distributions are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. To what degree is it possible to sight-read in piano lessons?

Teacher Candidates' Opinions	f
Moderately.	2
Not enough.	4
Sum of opinions	6

As Table 3 shows, two participants said sight-reading in piano lessons was given moderate consideration, and four said not enough.

Example 3, Male: "Little sight-reading takes place in the piano lessons. I mean, I think not enough. My piano teacher by a new work is given only to decipher the work I'm doing."

Example 4, Female: "The piano lessons include moderate sight-reading. We're doing works in the course of analysis. Of the main challenges in parts of the works, with teacher supervision I can sight-read. If there is something I cannot understand, I ask. Then my teacher shows me how to play it."

The fourth question to the prospective teacher candidates was: Are you successful in sight-reading for the piano? Explain the reasons for your success or failure. The responses and frequency distributions for this question are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Are you successful in sight-reading for the piano? Explain the reasons for your success or failure.

Teacher Candidates' Opinions	f
I'm successful.	1
My level is progressing day by day.	1
I'm not successful.	4
Sum of opinions	6

As Table 4 shows, four of the teacher candidates do not feel successful with sight-reading the piano. One teacher candidate is progressing day by day, and another feels successful.

Example 1, Male: "I think you are not successful in sight-reading the piano. Especially in the piano, I find it difficult to find the keys on the left and read the keys on the piano."

Example 2, Female: "I have failed at sight-reading the piano. I do not take the time to learn because I do not like piano lessons enough. That is why I am having difficulty with this issue."

Example 5, Male: "I'm spending more time in class because my love and interest in piano lessons is great and I'm making progress. In this respect, I feel successful at sight-reading the piano."

The fifth question was: What are the variables that make sight-reading difficult for you? Why do they make it difficult? The responses and frequency distributions are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. What are the variables that make sight-reading difficult for you?

Teacher Candidates' Opinions	f
Rhythm	6
Fingering	5
Accuracy	5
Tonality	4
Two-hand coordination	4
Reading the bass clef	3
Technique	3
Nuances	2
Sum of opinions	32

As Table 5 shows, the participants stated that they had the most difficulty with rhythm when sight-reading. Apart from this, the issues of fingering, accuracy, tonality, two hand coordination, reading bass clef, technique and nuance are among the most challenging subjects of teacher candidates when sight-reading. Their reasons for difficulty were: not having enough time to study, distractions and not being able to control the piano.

Example 4, Female: "I have difficulty with fingering in sight-reading. I still have difficulty reading the bass clef, coordinating my hands and with tonality issues."

Example 1, Male: "I have difficulty with rhythmic analysis of some works while sight-reading. I am having trouble because of a poor rhythmic foundation."

Example 6, Female: "I have very little control over the piano. That's why I have a lot of difficulty. I have to work harder."

The sixth question was: If you are having difficulty sight-reading, what should you emphasize in your studies? The responses and frequency distributions for this question are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. If you are having difficulty sight-reading, what should you emphasize in your studies?

Teacher Candidates' Opinions	f
Regular solfeggio and note memorization.	5
Progress from easy to difficult.	4
Key dominance.	3
More work on scales and etudes.	3
Efforts to read two parts at the same time.	2
More work on and studies of difficult issues.	1
Sum of opinions	18

Table 6 shows that students with difficulty in sight-reading that they should emphasize the study of solfeggio and note memorization, progressing from easy to difficult, improving key dominance, scales

and etudes, and reading two parts at once. They emphasized that more work on and study of difficult material are needed.

Example 3, Male: "In my opinion, more solfeggio and music, playing more technical works and pieces for the instrument, and reading the two parts at the same time are important for overcoming the difficult issues."

Example 1, Male: "More sight-reading, step-by-step study of the piano should be provided from a technical perspective. This will make sight-reading even easier."

Example 5, Male: "If there is a difficulty with sight-reading in piano lessons, there should be plenty of fingering exercises, note memorization and rhythmic work. These studies will improve our key dominance and increase our reading speed by reinforcing the subjects."

Conclusion and Suggestions

The student's important responses about sight-reading are evaluated in this section. It is clear that the sight-reading activities that contribute to piano education outside of the curriculum are limited and not adequately practiced. The candidate teachers indicated that, in the undergraduate curriculum, the etudes and works assigned by the teachers do not include in sight-reading, except when they specifically focus on sight-reading. During the courses, when the sight-reading is not assigned, the places where difficulties in sight-reading are encountered are explained by the teachers and overcome.

It was determined that there is a limited period of time in the course for the study of works or works to be performed. Generally, when new works and etudes are given by the piano teachers, sight-reading is done in the course. It was determined that the majority of the teacher candidates had difficulties with sight-reading. For this reason, they stated that they failed at sight-reading.

The causes of the failures of the participants were poor analysis of the rhythmic structures in etudes and works and adaptation to finger numbers. Other studies support these findings (Çevik, 2007; Çevik, 2011; Çevik Kılıç, 2016a). It is also observed that variables such as not playing the right note, two-hand coordination and difficulty in works and studies in different keys and reading the bass clef, used by the left hand in piano training, also increased their sense of failure. The research done by Çevik Kılıç (2016b) supports this result. The teacher candidates presented some suggestions for the development of sight-reading. Among them, the majority stated that it would be beneficial to work on solfege, note memorization, etudes and works and to progress from easy to difficult in stages.

The results of the research indicate that the teacher candidates can only use limited time on works and etudes. They do homework for their lessons, but they cannot benefit from supplementary lessons such as solfege, note memorization, music theory and music form together with the piano. This disruption in the flow of information that has not been learned on the instrument by practicing is one of the main factors that cause negative effects in sight-reading.

It will be useful for students learning piano to learn about all areas of music. They should know that the information learned will be used in the piano literature in the studies and analyses. For example, as in the case of rhythmic analysis, which is the most problematic, we can be made easier with solfege and note memorization. The music theory concept of tonality can be made easier by practicing etudes with many sharps and flats. More attention should be given to sight-reading in lectures by the piano instructors. Apart from the exploration of the works and studies, the students should be taught sight-reading methods in courses. Students should start with examples that are much easier than piano lessons when doing this, which will have a positive effect on their motivation of the students.

References

- Balcı, A. (2004). Sosyal bilimlerde araştırma yöntem, teknik ve ilkeler. Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.
- Canbey, E. G., Çevik, D. B., Güven, E. (2012). *Müzik Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında Öğrenim Gören Öğrencilerin Piyano Eğitiminde Deşifrenin Önemine Yönelik Düşünceleri*, 3rd International Conference on New Trends in Education and Their Implications ICONTE 2012, 26–28 Nisan, Antalya.

- Çevik, D. B. (2007). Piyano Öğretimi Neden Zordur, Atatürk Üniversitesi Kazım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, Sayı: 15, 62-79.
- Çevik, D. B. (2011). Müzik Öğretmeni Adaylarının Eşlik Dersine Bakış Açıları İle Derste Zorlandıkları Konulara İlişkin Çözüm Önerileri, Kastamonu Üniversitesi Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi, 19 (1), 345-360.
- Çevik Kılıç, D. B. (2016a). Students' and instructors' Opinions about piano instruction, Educational Research and Reviews, 11 (10), 966-974.
- Çevik Kılıç, D. B. (2016b). *Elektronik Org Eğitimi Dersine İlişkin Müzik Öğretmeni Adayların Düşünceleri*, 7th International Congress on New Trends in Education, 13-15 May, Antalya.
- Fenmen, M. (1991). *Müzikçinin el kitabı*, Ankara: Müzik Ansiklopedisi Yayınları.
- Glesne, C. (2012). *Nitel araştırmaya giriş*. A. Ersoy ve P. Yalçınoğlu (Çev. Ed.). Ankara: Anı.
- Henry, E., & Mobberley, J. (2000). *Musicianship Ear Training, Rhythmic Reading and Sight Singing Volume I*, Prentice Hall Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
- Hitchcock, G., & Hughes, D. (1995). *Research and the teacher: A qualitative introduction to school-based research (2nd Ed.)*. London: Routledge.
- Karasar, N. (2009). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri*. (20. baskı). Ankara: Nobel Yayınevi.
- Küçük A. (1994). *Bir piyano eseri nasıl çalışılır*, G. Ü. Gazi Eğitim Fak. Dergisi, Yeni Dönem, Özel Sayı, (pp.184-195), Ankara.
- Kurtuldu, M. K. (2014). *Piyano öğrencilerinin deşifre becerileri ile piyano dersi başarılarının karşılaştırılması*, Dergi Park, Türkiye Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi, 183, 11-23.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yıldırım, A. ve Şimşek, H. (2008). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri*, Seçkin Yayıncılık, 7. Baskı. Ankara.
- Wolcott, H. F. (1990). *On seeking-and rejecting-validity in qualitative research*. (Ed.) E. W. Eisner, & A. Peshkin, *Qualitative inquiry in education the continuing debate*(pp.121-152), New York: Teachers Collage Press.

Music Pedagogy Undergraduate Students' Expectations from Piano Instruction

Deniz Beste Çevik Kiliç

1. Introduction

Miche (2002) suggested that music education improves creative pleasure and aesthetic feeling, facilitates operational and rhythmic development, and supports vocal, linguistic and cognitive development (pp.2). Instrument education is one of the fundamental dimensions of music education. In institutions that provide occupational music education, piano instruction is compulsory for all pre-service teachers during their undergraduate education in addition to a number of other instruments. The piano is an instrument with a wide range of sound. It also has a rich repertory that helps students enjoy their education, is easy to use in polyphonic education for the ear and the biggest support of music teachers since it is a harmonic accompanying instrument. For all these reasons, piano instruction is an important dimension of overall instrument education (Oğan and Albuz, 2015).

In Turkey, pre-service music teachers are trained in universities' education faculties. As required by their programs, pre-service teachers take a number of courses that are in and out of their study areas. Piano instruction has an effective place in the programs of these institutions as a part of music education. Piano instruction plays a very important role among the field lessons of music teaching programs since it helps music teachers teach more effectively later in their careers and have their students make use of the positive effects of music by living it (Gökbudak, 2005). Based on this information, the researcher believes that it is important to determine music teachers' expectations for the solution of problems in piano instruction in music teaching programs.

Even though there are no similar studies in the relevant literature, one study stressed that it was important to clarify individuals' opinions about this subject (Dursun and Dede, 2004). The researcher aimed to investigate pre-service music teachers' behavioral expectations in piano instruction, expectations related to piano playing skills, expectations about getting motivated for the instruction and expectations about the type of piano lessons they would like to be taught. This will presumably help increase the quality and achievement in piano instruction and help guide the preparation and revision of the curricula in music teaching programs.

2. Methodology

This is a survey. The researcher also conducted a qualitative research since the study aims to make a comprehensive description of students' expectations from piano instruction. Qualitative studies use observation, interviews, document analysis and other similar methods, and follow a qualitative process addressed to make a realistic and holistic presentation of perceptions and events in their natural environment (Yazıcıoğlu and Erdoğan, 2011).

2. 1. Study Sample

The sample of the study included six senior students from the Music Teaching Program of the Fine Arts Teaching Department in Balıkesir University's Education Faculty in the 2016-2017 academic year using purposeful sampling. In qualitative studies, samples are usually kept small to make a deep investigation of the participants' ideas. For this reason, these studies prefer purposeful sampling rather than random sampling (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Of the participants, three were female, and three were male.

2. 2. Data Collection Tools

The study data were collected in structured interviews, a qualitative research method. The interviews held by the researcher were video-recorded with the students' consent. The students were also informed that their names would not be revealed for ethical reasons. Here are the interview questions:

- How do you expect your teacher to behave with you during your piano lessons?
- What are your expectations of your piano teacher's piano playing skills?
- What are your expectations of your piano teacher in terms of motivating you?
- How do you expect your teacher to teach piano lessons?

2. 3. Data Analysis

The study data were analyzed using content analysis. Here are its stages:

- A careful review of the study data,
- Determination of the significant data,
- Classification and encoding of the data,
- Checking and finalizing the themes,
- Re-encoding the data considering the themes,
- Designing the themes to be studied,
- Determining the correlations and connections among the themes,
- Organizing the themes under the research problem (İslamoğlu, 2011).

The study used category and frequency analysis in these stages. Category analysis is dividing a certain message into units initially, and then categorizing these units based on specific criteria. Frequency analysis describes the frequency of the occurrence of units and elements in numbers, percentages and ratios (Bilgin, 2006).

The researcher sent the codes, categories, sub-themes and main themes to three field experts together with the study data to ensure validity. Revisions were made based on the experts' opinions. External validity was ensured by purposeful sampling and by conveying the brief interview information to the participants subsequently and asking them whether these data reflected their expectations accurately. The study data were significant and consistent within themselves, which established internal validity. The researcher also made direct quotations from interviews for internal validity.

3. Findings

The themes and sub-themes that were determined considering the research results are shown in Figure 1 in diagrammatic form. The main heading is students' expectations from their piano teachers. The research questions were used as sub-headings under this main heading. The items under these headings are also summarized in Figure 1. The items are listed in descending order of frequency (f).

Figure 1. Students' expectations in piano instruction

Behavioral expectations

Empathy, friendliness, smiling, interest, affection and positive attitude

Expectations related to piano playing skills

The teacher's being technically equipped and professional, acting as a role model, teaching how to play the piano in a way that makes listeners feel the music and in accordance with its requirements

Expectations related to being motivated for piano instruction

The teacher should have a kind attitude and be smiling, assign musical pieces that fit students' levels, should not make them feel that they are only studying to get high grades, should set a goal for students, have the students work on interesting pieces, indicate deficiencies, be constructive when criticizing and should offer chances to improve our sight-reading skills

Expectations related to the type of piano lessons they would like to be taught

The students would like their piano lessons to enable them play with their teachers, have more weekly hours, give the students a choice about the piano pieces they would play, inform them about the periodical characteristics of the pieces they studied, focus on improving playing techniques, suit students' levels and be informative about the ways to teach a musical piece

*The order of students' expectations is based on the reduction in frequency.

3. 1. Students' expectations from their piano teachers

3. 1. 1. Behavioral expectations

The participants were asked, "How do you expect your teacher to behave with you during your piano lessons?" They responded that they would like piano teachers to be empathetic (f-6), friendly (f-5), smiling (f-4), interested (f-3), affectionate (f-2) and have a positive manner (f-1). Here are some examples for these items:

- Example 5 (Male): "My teacher never gets angry when I make a mistake in the lesson. My teacher is very empathetic and tries to help me play when I can't play the piece. Otherwise, I am unable to play even the pieces that I can play normally."
- Example 2 (Male): "My teacher has improved communication with me and treats me like a friend. This makes the lessons really productive for me."
- Example 6 (Female): "It is very important for me that my teacher has a smiling face. The more my teacher smiles at me, the more the lesson gets my attention and is enjoyable for me."

3. 1. 2. Expectations related to piano playing skills

The students were asked, "What are your expectations of your piano teacher's piano playing skills?" They responded that a piano teacher should be technically equipped (f-5), act as a role model (f-4), be professional (f-3), and teach how to play the piano in a way that makes listeners feel the music and in accordance with its requirements (f-2). Here are some examples for these items:

- Example 1 (Female): "Since piano instruction improves students in both technical and musical terms, I believe that piano teachers should conduct technical practices more often. To teach these practices, the teacher must be technically equipped."
- Example 3 (Female): "My teacher plays the piano very well, so I want to study a lot so that I can play that well, too. In other words, my teacher acts as a role model for me this way."
- Example 4 (Male): "If teachers are professionals in their own areas of study, this means that they are masters of their own instruments. Teachers should also do their daily practice and exercises. Otherwise, they will lose their skills. For this reason, the teachers that practice regularly are beneficial to both themselves and their students."

3. 1. 3. Expectations related to being motivated for piano lesson

The students were asked, "What are your expectations of your piano teacher in terms of motivating you?" They responded that the teacher should have a kind attitude (f-5) and be smiling (f-4), assign musical pieces that fit students' levels (f-3), should not make them feel that they are only studying to get high grades (f-2), should set goals for students (f-1), have the students work on interesting pieces (f-1), indicate deficiencies (f-1), be constructive when criticizing (f-1) and offer chances to improve our sight-reading skills (f-1). Here are some examples for these items:

- Example 2 (Male): "I would like my teacher to tell me that I am successful, and I can do even better if I study more. My teacher has a strict manner that is reflected in the piano lessons as

well, which makes me feel distant from the piano. But when the teacher displays a kind attitude in the lesson, I learn much more productively.”

- Example 6 (Female): “It is very important for a piano teacher to have a smiling face. When my teacher is positive, it makes me want to study the piano pieces again right after the lesson is over.”
- Example 1 (Female): “I like to sight-read the musical pieces that suit my level. This keeps me focused and motivated. When I begin to study the pieces that push my borders, I am discouraged every time I fail, and this makes me unhappy. I sometimes feel distant from my piano lessons.”
- Example 5 (Male): “The primary mission of a teacher should be having students like music. Teachers should also make students feel that they should not focus on studying just to get high grades.”

3. 1. 4. Expectations related to the type of piano lessons they would like to be taught

The students were asked, “How do you expect your teacher to teach piano lessons?” They responded that they would like their piano lessons to enable them play with their teachers (f-5), have more weekly hours (f-4), give the students a choice about the piano pieces they play (f-3), inform them about the period-specific characteristics of the pieces they study (f-2), focus on improving playing techniques (f-2), suit students' levels (f-1) and be informative about the ways to teach a musical piece (f-1). Here are some examples for these items:

- Example 4 (Male): “I especially enjoy playing four-hand piano with my teacher, and I look forward to going to the class for that. I believe that playing the musical pieces together with the teacher is important in motivating students and helping them enjoy the lessons. So, these practices should be included in lessons as often as possible.”
- Example 3 (Female): “I believe that the weekly hours of the piano lesson are not enough. This lesson is very important for our prospective professional careers. In this regard, I wish we were provided with more lessons in the gaps in our teacher's schedule.”
- Example 2 (Male): “If the musical pieces studied in the lessons are ones that I like, I study even harder. So, we should be given the chance to study pieces that we want to study.”
- Example 6 (Female): “I believe that playing a piano piece is not only about touching the keys accurately. The period-specific characteristics of pieces should be included in lessons to play them accordingly.”

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The study results showed that, in the behavioral dimension, the students wish for their teachers to treat them in an empathetic and friendly way with a smiling face, which eliminates communication problems. A relevant study supports this finding (Ölçüm and Polat, 2016).

Regarding piano playing skills, the students had bigger expectations in terms of technique, teachers' acting as role models, being professional, feeling the music and playing pieces properly. In other words, the students stressed that they were most interested in learning about the technical side of piano playing. There is content in piano instruction methods that addresses the comprehension of technical information (Yokuş, 2010). Every student has a different way of learning. There is research in the relevant literature about students' different learning methods, and this is one of the most important indicators that the importance of this situation has been recognized by researchers. The students expect faculty members to act as role models and act professionally. They stated that teachers who are good piano players are role models for them.

In this study, the students said that they expected their piano teachers, “to motivate them for the lessons, display a kind attitude, have a smiling face, assign musical pieces that suit their levels, make them feel that they are not only studying to get high grades, set goals for them, have them practice interesting musical pieces, indicate their deficiencies, be constructive when criticizing them, and give them chances to improve their sight-reading skills.” However, it is a common belief that it would be wrong to expect pre-service teachers to motivate themselves since they are adults.

Regarding motivation, teachers should adopt an educational approach that considers individual differences (O'Brien, 1988; Colwell and Goolsby, 2002). Tural (2016) emphasized that it is very important for students in piano instructions to be willing and adaptive towards their instruments to get them motivated. These findings are consistent with this study.

The students revealed their expectations from an instrument lesson, and said that they wanted to play with their teachers, have more weekly hours of piano lessons, be given the chance to choose piano pieces to study, be informed about the period-specific characteristics of musical pieces, focus on improving their technique, be taught in accordance with their levels and be informed about how to teach piano pieces. The responses to this question showed that there were not sufficient weekly hours, and it was necessary to increase the weekly hours of piano instruction. Based on the relevant literature, it was concluded that attitude is very important in piano instruction (Gergin, 2010; Çevik and Güven, 2011). In piano lessons, studying musical pieces that would be favorable for students is one of the bridges that would improve affective characteristics such as attitude. At this point, it is necessary to provide options to students.

5. Recommendations

Based on the study results, the researcher suggests that:

- Textbooks on piano instruction psychology should be prepared, and piano instruction psychology lessons should be included in the curricula of music teaching programs.
- In undergraduate piano instruction, faculty members' expectations from students should be investigated, and piano instruction should be revised to improve its quality based on the results of these studies.
- The weekly hours of piano lessons in music teaching programs should be increased.
- Every student has a different way of learning. Alternative methods should be created for students with different learning styles.

6. References

- Bilgin, N. (2006). *Content analysis techniques and ample studies in social sciences*. Ankara: Siyasal Printing house.
- Colwell, R. J., & Goolsby, T. W. (2002). *The teaching of instrumental music*, Third Edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Çevik, D. B., & Güven, E. (2011). An evaluation of music teaching students' attitudes towards piano lesson, *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Buca Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 29, 103-120.
- Dursun, Ş., & Dede, Y. (2004). The factors that affect students' mathematical achievement considering mathematics teachers' opinions. *Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 24 (2), 217-230.
- Gergin, Z. (2010). *Ban analysis of students' attitudes towards and achievement in Individual Instrument I lesson considering certain variables*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Burdur: Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Institute of Social Sciences.
- Gökbudak, Z. S. (2005). The role of the family in an effective piano instruction and training. *Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 14, 559-574.
- İslamoğlu, H. (2011). *Research methods in social sciences*. İstanbul: Beta BasımYayım A.Ş.
- Miche, M. (2002). *Weaving music into young minds*. USA: Thomson Learning TM.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- O'Brien, J. (1988). *Teaching music*. CBS College Publishing, New York.
- Oğan, D. F., & Albuz, A. (2015). The effect of the etudes in Carl Czerny op.599 and Jean Baptiste Duvernoy op.176 methods on the performance of classical sonatas in piano instruction, *Turkish Journal of Social Research*, 19 (1), 397-426.
- Ölçüm, D., & Polat, S. (2016). An analysis of the teacher image in grounds of generations. *Journal of Teacher Education and Educators*, 5 (3), 361-397.
- Tural, Z. (2016). *Evaluation of problem occasions of the students with low-motivation in piano training*. Research on Humanities and Social Sciences Communication, Social Sciences, Arts. Peter

Music Pedagogy Undergraduate Students' Expectations from Piano Instruction

Lang GmbH Internationaler Verlag der Wissenschaften Frankfurt am Main. Peter Lang Edition. ISBN: 978-3-631675-01-4, pp.345-356.

Yazıcıođlu, Y., &Erdođan, S. (2011). *Scientific research methods with an application of SPSS*. 3rd Edition Ankara: Detay Printing house.

Yokuş, H. (2010). The effect of using learning strategies in piano instruction on students' achievement and metacognitive awareness. *M. Ü. Atatürk Eğitim Fakültesi Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 31, 145-160.

The Suitability Of School Environments For Disabled Students' Education

Uğur Koyuncu, Mustafa Aydın Başar, Fatma Arik Çolakoğlu

1. Introduction

The main purpose of the educational organizations, like all other organizations, is to actualize production and by this way to provide productivity and to enhance effectiveness. So as to increase organizational effectiveness, various factors including human power, facilities, raw materials, other systems... etc. play roles. In order to actualize effectiveness, organizations should bring together the human resources and the facilities that they have in harmony with administrative functions and reorganize them. For schools, which are the production areas of educational service, to gain a structure by which they can reach their goals, it is vital to attain a systematic integrity with their subsystems and obtain input of appropriate quality and competency. Today, new researches are carried out for providing these inputs which are the essential features for school systems. Some of the problems can be solved by the Ministry of Education whereas some others can be solved by local educational organizations and school administrations.

Human beings perceive the concept of space and by this way, they make sense of the world they live in. Every entity in the universe shows a spatial existence; also the ethic and the aesthetic values, education, thoughts and feelings, in other words nonphysical universe, cannot be explained without their spatial connections, because existence is spatial (Hesapçioğlu, 1994: 123). The fact that modern and high quality physical spaces are required for the education of the young generations as well as good quality programs and qualified educational staff (Sağlıkova, 23: 1990) is no longer a discussed issue in today's world. Another topic which is widely accepted is the regulations considering the handicapped students.

During the final quarter of the 20th century, the sensitivity about the involvement of the handicapped students within educational services has increased and gave a start to new arrangements. Accordingly, legal regulations regarding the handicapped students in education and incentives in this field have resulted in handicapped students making more use of the facilities at school. The researches about the education of the handicapped and the appropriate special education environments for them are increasing in literature. Although the importance of the special education of the handicapped is increasing in most countries, it still remains as a problem in not only developing but also developed countries. In this, both the negative perceptions about the disabled and the high cost of their education can be seen as essential factors. Especially, the transportation of the physically handicapped students to schools where mostly abled students attend and the preparation of their comfortable learning environments are very crucial. It is essential to arrange safe environments where handicapped students can attend schools as 'abled' and take part in the school and class activities without the support of others.

We can consider educational spaces in schools as indoor and outdoor educational areas. All of these areas should be rearranged bearing in mind not only the current handicapped students but also the future potential ones. From kindergarten to high schools all across Turkey, 59.509 school and institutions, 919.393 teachers (MEB, 2015c: 50) and thousands of personnel are naturally included within the scope of the law no. 6331. When the new responsibilities the law has brought to employers and employees, the quantity of the schools and personnel and 17.559.989 students in schools (MEB, 2015c: 50) are taken into account, the significance of running Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) studies in schools increases. Moreover, as a result of these new conditions, the OHS studies in schools should be evaluated with new perspectives by school administrators and researches. In addition, when we consider the current situations in Turkey, we can say that the awareness regarding this issue is not at the expected level yet.

The Ministry of Education, which is the primarily authorized and responsible institution for applying the laws in Turkish schools, started occupational health and safety studies in schools with a notice in

2014, although the law no. 6331 passed more than two years ago. However, law no. 6331 foresees a considerable amount of penalty for the representative of the employer for each obligation that is not met by the employer. Furthermore, in case there is a dangerous situation, it is necessary to sue the responsible individuals according to the Turkish Criminal Code (Civil, 2014: 150).

The inadequate amount of interest of Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) in schools by managing bodies has reflected on academic studies in Turkey. The researches made in Council of Higher Education and other academic databases reveal that unfortunately, there are not any researches conducted in education sector whereas there are many studies related to the application of law no. 6331 in other sectors. On the other hand, it can be seen that researchers in Turkey do their researches under various topics like "school health" and "school safety" and they mostly focus on student health and safety, yet, employee health and safety do not come into prominence.

Another issue is that majority of the present school structures lack the necessary educational quality. The same case is also valid for the new structures. Despite the modern look they have from outside, by the time you get inside, it can be seen that most of them are nothing but piles of cold concrete and bricks (Alicigüzel, 1979). In fact, schools should be a continuation of family life and should have that cosy atmosphere. In this case, the goal set by the Ministry of Education which is "mainstream education in modern buildings and classrooms with 30 students" seems very far from reach in terms of both quality and quantity. However, it can be observed that in some of our cities, this objective is closer to be realized. To illustrate, the city of Çanakkale, which was selected as the study area can be given as an example.

The significance and the necessities of the special education for the handicapped still remains as a problem in nearly all countries despite emphasis put on the issue. The negative perceptions about the disabled and the high cost of their education play important roles as factors that delay reaching solutions. Especially in schools, it is of great importance to create transportation opportunities for the handicapped students and prepare the education environments where they will continue their education. It is essential to arrange safe environments where handicapped students can attend schools as 'abled' and take part in the school and class activities without the support of others.

1.1. Purpose

The aim of this study is to reveal the suitability of the environments in the schools located in central district of Çanakkale city in terms of the education of physically handicapped students. In accordance of this aim, the suitability of a) school gardens b) indoor areas c) classrooms was evaluated. The data has been gathered with "The Suitability of Schools for Physically Handicapped Students Inventory" from nine different educational institutions in total, three primary schools, three middle schools and three secondary education schools.

1.2. Assumptions

The judgement included in the study which is accepted as valid without trial is that the inventory list is sufficient to reveal the physical situations of school areas regarding physically handicapped students.

1.3. Restrictions

1. The research is restricted to official schools located within the boundaries of the central district of Çanakkale city. Baring in mind their organizational structures, the private schools with special conditions and technical-industrial vocational schools are left out of the scope.

2. In terms of identifying the presence and appropriateness of arrangements regarding physically handicapped students in schools, the regulations of Turkish Standards Institute, Ministry of Education and OHS are grounded on.

3. With this research, the facilities of schools for physically handicapped students are put forward; however their features and usages are not discussed.

1.4 Significance

The perceptions and approaches towards the handicapped individuals are improving day by day. Compared to the past, the handicapped are more active in social, educational life and production and they more actively make use of their rights. All of these improvements should find their reflections in educational areas as well. However, with their current situations, the schools are inappropriate for the usage of the handicapped. It is vital to have researches on the types of spatial and physical arrangements that could be done for the handicapped students to utilise the educational institutions more effectively.

It is expected that this research which aims at revealing the physical conditions of schools regarding the handicapped will contribute to identifying the educational opportunities of schools, and the sufficiency of the physical arrangements applied there. Another expectation is to scientifically contribute to the efforts of improving educational opportunities in schools and to be used as a source in future studies conducted about the educational opportunities for the handicapped individuals.

2. Method

This study, which aims at detecting the facilities and the opportunities the schools offer for the handicapped, is a qualitative study run with the scanning model. In this respect, it offers a phenomenological pattern in terms of clarifying the arrangements applied for the handicapped individuals in schools and attracting attentions to the topic. Primarily, it seeks answers for “What is the situation?” question concerning the facilities and the education areas of schools within Çanakkale city. Furthermore, by using the collected data, it aspires to put forward the convenience of schools in the central district of Çanakkale with regards to building facilities.

The study group the data is collected from is chosen among the primary, secondary and high schools in Çanakkale central district. As for the sample group, two schools for each are chosen from within the boundaries of central municipality and one school of each from outside the boundaries of the municipality. Among the schools within municipality boundaries, it has also been taken into consideration to choose one which has been built within the last ten years and one more than ten years ago. The data has been collected with the inventory forms that were prepared making use of the related regulations. The features mentioned in the inventory are specified by observations and evaluations made in related spaces or units of the schools. Later on, the evaluations were compared to the information on the official documents and the decisions were made upon the presence and appropriateness of the physical rearrangements for the handicapped students.

3. Finding and Comments

The findings reached through the data collected from the developed inventory reveal that the schools do not have the proper arrangements for the handicapped students to continue their education. With regards to the convenience of schools for the handicapped, the findings and comments are grounded on the regulations of Turkish Standards Institute, Ministry of Education and OHS.

According to the data on the chart, only 6 of the schools have handicap ramps. 3 of the schools do not have these arrangements. Only in one of the schools the ramps are suitable with the legal regulations. According to the literature and the regulations, the slope of the handicap ramp should not be more than 1:12 (8%). The ramps that go higher than 15 centimeters should have handrails and these handrails should be built 90 cm higher than the ramp surface. When we look at the observed schools, there are no ramps in 2 of the 3 primary schools and the one with the ramp does not meet the expected standards. Despite two of the 3 observed middle schools have the handicapped ramps, only one of them is in accordance with the standards. While there are ramps in all three high schools, none of them match the standards.

In schools, after the stairs that go up from the landings reach more than 1,8 m. in height, the climbing should be paused with a new landing of at least 2 meters in length and if there is a change in the direction, at least a 1,8 m x1,8 m area should be left for the new landing (TS 12576). Totally in 4 schools, stairs were found to be in accordance with the standards. In middle schools, there are arrangements made, yet none of them meet the expected standards

There is need for the handicapped students to rest in school gardens and find suitable seating areas for them to be able to socialize with their peers. The seats for the handicapped students such as benches should be fixed on the ground and should have the necessary equipment that are compatible with the prosthesis and other tools used by the handicapped. When none of the observed primary and high schools have handicap benches in their gardens, two of the middle schools are identified to possess the benches.

The lavatories for the handicapped students should be located at accessible places in schools. A standard cabin of at least 1, 5 m. in width should not be less than 1, 42 m. in depth if the closet is hung on the wall and not less than 1.5 m. if it is installed on the floor. The height of the closet seat should be between 43-48 cm. It is important to choose closets which are compatible with adaptors that can arrange the height of the seats. As for the washing basins, there should be an empty floor surface in front of the sink and some space for the knees underneath. The depth of the washing basin (the length between the front face and the back wall) should be at least 43 cm and mostly 49 cm. When we examine the schools in terms of these standards, we can see that one (1) primary and 2 (two) middle schools are appropriate. However, among the high schools observed, none of them meet the standards mentioned above. It has been found that all of the schools meet the standards of the classroom doors. The classroom doors should open upright to the hallway axis and when the door is 90° open, the net width should not be less than 80 cm. in classes with less than 20 students and not less than 90 cm. in classes with more than 20 students (Ministry of Education, 2011).. Moreover the doors of the independent areas should not be less than 1 meter. Also, the net height of the doors should be at least 2,1 m. These features about the general standards of the schools can also provide convenience for the handicapped students.

The hallways in the school buildings should be without barriers at least net 90 cm. in width and 2.2 meters in height. There should be no vertical or horizontal barriers in these areas. While all of the middle and high schools are in accordance with the standards of floor and hallways, one of the primary schools is found inappropriate. In this school, it was seen that the excess floor height is not suitable for the handicapped usage with regards to occupational health and safety. Besides, in none of the schools is there CE and TSI certified handicapped lift systems. In schools that are public living areas, these arrangements are significant for not only the handicapped students but also all visitors.

Similarly, there should be accessible transportation and entrance opportunity in at least one of the gates of the school buildings. If alternative entrances will be used, these entrances should be marked and directed along accessible routes. In front of this alternative entrance, there must be enough space for maneuver and the door should be in accordance with the accessibility rules. Unfortunately, in none of the three school levels is there appropriate entrances for the handicapped.

According to the regulations, it is obligatory to use communication tools such as signs in proper places in order to make school spaces easier to use. The signs regarding the handicapped students in schools must be readable and understandable for everyone. These well-lighted, clear and readable signs must be placed upon an appropriate height. Written information should be supported with symbols to make them more understandable for everyone. These signs should be produced from durable material which is easy to change, clean and fix. The above-mentioned signs are not used in any of the primary and high schools examined whereas one of the middle schools was found to have these directing signs and they were arranged in proper ways and shapes.

In only one of the primary school gardens is there a proper playground for the handicapped students; all three middle schools offer an appropriate handicapped play area; however, none of the high schools were observed to have any kind of playground for the handicapped students.

In these schools two classrooms were chosen randomly in order to make observations regarding the suitability of in-class equipment (desk, board etc.) and the design. Moreover, it was learned from the school managers that all the other classrooms are also designed similarly. In all of the schools, classrooms were found to be appropriate for the handicapped students to comfortably enter and exit and make use of the seating and in class tools easily.

Laboratory spaces are not existent in the primary schools. Although there are laboratories in middle and high schools, they were found to be inconvenient for the use of the handicapped individuals

without taking help. As the arrangements made in these spaces meet the expectations of the general laboratory standards, no special arrangements were made. One of the school managers stated that if need be, they could initiate the necessary rearrangements.

In the schools, which are important public living areas, handrails must be used in both sides of the stairs. They are also necessary in the middle of the stairs which are wider than 300 cm. The height of these handrails must be between 90-140 cm and they should continue in the beginning and end of the stairs for at least 30-60 cm. Within the scope of the researches, two out of three schools in primary and high school levels and one middle school were determined to meet the related standards concerning the handrails, banisters and railing systems.

The doormats in school gates that are used as shoe cleaners must be solid and be recessed at the same level with the floor. It is not suggested to have thresholds at the gates; instead, a sloping flooring or beveled level change should be preferred. In cases where thresholds are inevitable, they should not be higher than 1.3 cm. For wheelchair users, thresholds must be immobilized, beveled, and rubber thresholds must be preferred. All of the high schools, two of the middle schools and only one of the primary schools had suitable thresholds and doormats. In this respect, the wheelchair users will not have troubles going in and out of the buildings in 6 of the 9 schools.

The observations showed that although the necessary arrangements were made regarding the regulations in the canteen and lunch rooms of two of the middle and one of the primary schools, in none of the high school canteen or lunch rooms, were any rearrangements made considering the handicapped students. This data shows that physically handicapped students face more obstacles in living spaces outside the classrooms about moving around and meeting their needs on their own.

School gardens were also observed to be unsuitable in terms of both the regulations and also for the handicapped students to be able to move independently. It is essential for the education and school managers to prepare the environments for the handicapped students to proceed their education. It should be remembered that this is both a legal responsibility and an indication of modernity.

The analyzed schools were seen to be inadequate with regards to the arrangements concerning the handicapped. The schools lack the necessary arrangements in terms of benches in school gardens, handicap lifting systems, in-school directing signs for the handicapped, warning sirens, the playgrounds suitable for the handicapped kids and the convenience of the laboratories for the handicapped students.

Chart 1. The Suitability of Schools for Physically Handicapped Students Inventory

ARRANGEMENTS	SCHOOLS											
	Primary			Middle			High			TOTAL		
	✓	x	⊘	✓	x	⊘	✓	x	⊘	✓	x	⊘
Ramps suitable for the handicapped	1	2	-	2	1	1	3	-	-	6	3	1
Stairs suitable for the handicapped usage	2	1	2	3	-	-	2	1	2	7	2	4
Benches in the gardens where the handicapped can sit	-	3	-	2	1	2	-	3	-	2	7	2
Lavatories, washing basins taps and toilets suitable for the handicapped usage	1	2	1	2	1	2	-	3	-	3	6	3
Classroom doors for the handicapped usage	3	-	3	3	-	3	3	-	3	9	-	9
The suitability of the floors, hallways, walking areas that lie from the school entrance to the classrooms for the handicapped usage	2	1	2	3	-	3	3	-	3	9	-	9
Handicapped lifting systems and elevators	-	3	-	-	3	-	-	3	-	-	9	-
The suitability of at least one of the building entrances for the handicapped	2	1	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	6	3	6
In-school directing signs for the handicapped	-	3	-	1	2	1	-	3	-	1	8	1
The handicap playground in the gardens	1	2	1	-	3	-	-	3	-	1	8	1

The Suitability Of School Environments For Disabled Students' Education

The suitability of in-class equipment (desk, board etc.) for the handicapped	3	-	3	3	-	3	3	-	3	9	-	9
The suitability of the laboratories for the handicapped	-	3	-	3	-	-	3	-	-	6	3	-
The suitability of the handrails, banisters and railing systems for the handicapped	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	5	4	5
The suitability of the doormats and thresholds for the handicapped	1	2	1	2	1	2	-	3	-	3	6	3
The arrangements made for the handicapped in school areas such as canteens and lunch rooms	1	2	1	2	1	2	-	3	-	3	6	3

The observations showed that although the necessary arrangements were made regarding the regulations in the canteen and lunch rooms of two of the middle and one of the primary schools, in none of the high school canteen or lunch rooms, were any rearrangements made considering the handicapped students. This data shows that physically handicapped students face more obstacles in living spaces outside the classrooms about moving around and meeting their needs on their own.

School gardens were also observed to be unsuitable in terms of both the regulations and also for the handicapped students to be able to move independently. It is essential for the education and school managers to prepare the environments for the handicapped students to proceed their education. It should be remembered that this is both a legal responsibility and an indication of modernity.

The analysed schools were seen to be inadequate with regards to the arrangements concerning the handicapped. The schools lack the necessary arrangements in terms of benches in school gardens, handicap lifting systems, in-school directing signs for the handicapped, warning sirens, the playgrounds suitable for the handicapped kids and the convenience of the laboratories for the handicapped students.

3.2. Findings Regarding the Suitability of the Schools with Legal Regulations

When suitability of the arrangements applied in the schools concerning the handicapped to the Turkish Standards Institute, Ministry of Education and OHS is analyzed holistically, it can be clearly stated that for the handicapped, especially the physically handicapped individuals, the arrangements fall a lot behind the expectancies. In spite of the fact that the legal regulations about the handicapped seem sufficient, we can say that it does not reflect upon the practice. There is no school where the necessary arrangements were applied entirely.

Chart 1. The Suitability of the Schools with Legal Regulations

	SCHOOLS						GENERA	
	Primary		Middle		High		L	
	suitabl e	suitabl e	suitabl e	suitabl e	suitabl e	suitabl e	suitabl e	suitabl e
The suitability of the arrangements in schools for the handicapped to the Turkish Standards	-	3	-	3	-	3	-	9

After the researchers analyzed the data collected and commented on the findings, whether or not Ministry of Education can approve them to give service with their current conditions has been discussed by the researchers. The conclusion they came in line with the rules of the regulation is that the schools cannot be given processing permit by the ministry with their current situations.

4. Conclusions and Suggestions

While the improvements in the arrangements regarding the integration of the handicapped to the society and for them to actively continue their lives gaining momentum, this situation has not reflected on school environments sufficiently yet. The schools nearly have not got any spatial arrangements for the handicapped. On the other hand, some of the arrangements demanded by the regulations do not go further than dismissing the bans. It does not seem probable for a visually, hearing impaired or orthopedically handicapped student to go to school and back on his/her own or participate in the activities without needing others at school. With their current situations, schools look far away from offering service in accordance with the regulations.

Below are the suggestions developed with respect to the findings of the study:

1. The schools should be turned into places where physically handicapped and impaired students can continue with their education lives comfortably without the support of others.
2. What is expected from the administrators of the education institutions is that the schools attain the arrangements foreseen by the regulations. And later on, to proceed with the international standards.
3. Moreover, for the schools which will be built from this day forward, from the school location to school garden and in-class designs, the arrangements for the handicapped should be focused on. Along with the compelling and binding clauses, the studies to improve the sensitivity of the school partners should be given importance.

Researches related to the school lives of the handicapped are quite limited. Various other studies could be carried out such as:

- a) Studies with larger groups about the facilities and suitability of the schools for not only the physically handicapped but also for people with other disabilities.
- b) The struggles the handicapped groups go through about utilizing the school spaces could be researched by means of interviews and other practical methods.

Reference

- ALICIGÜZEL, İ. *İlk ve Orta Dereceli Okullarda Öğretim*. 4. Basım, İstanbul: İnkılap ve Aka Kitabevleri, 1979.
- ALPARSLAN, İ. *Okullarda Gözlem*. Erzurum: 1993.
- BAŞARAN, İ. E. *Temel Eğitim ve Yönetimi*. Ankara: A.Ü. Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Yayını, 1982.
- "Nitelikli Bir Temel Eğitim Nasıl Olmalıdır?". *Türk Milli Eğitiminde Kalite Paneli*. İstanbul: TSE, 1994.
- BAŞAR, Hüseyin. *Sınıf Yönetimi*. 19. edition. Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık, 2014.
- BAŞAR, M. A. *İlköğretim Okullarının Olanakları*. A. Ü. Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara: 2003.
- BURSALIOĞLU, Ziya. *Okul Yönetiminde Yeni Yapı ve Davranış*. Ankara: PEGEM Yayınları, 1994.
- HESAPÇIOĞLU, Muhsin ve Beyhan MERİÇ. "Okul Binalarının Tasarımı, Türkiye ve İstanbul İlinde Eğitim Tesisleri-Nüfus İlişkisi-Eğitim Planlaması ve Ekonomisi Açısından Bir Ön Çözümleme." *Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*. Sayı: 6, İstanbul: M.Ü. Atatürk Eğitim Fakültesi Yayını, 1994.
- MEB. *Sekiz Yıllık Kesintisiz Zorunlu İlköğretim*. Ankara: MEB – APK Yayını, 1997.
- Erhan, Z. E. (2014). *Yeni İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Kanununun işletmelerde güvenlik iklimine etkisi ve alan araştırması*. Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi, İstanbul Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İstanbul.
- Health and Safety Authority. (2013). *Guidelines on Managing Safety, Health and Welfare In Primary Schools*. [Available online at: http://www.hsa.ie/eng/Education/Guidelines_on_Managing_Safety_Health_and_Welfare_in_Primary_Schools.pdf], Retrieved on October 10, 2015.
- International Labour Organization. (22.09.2006). *Health and Safety at Work etc Act 1974*. [Available online at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---ilo_aids/documents/legaldocument/wcms_127510.pdf], Retrieved on October 29, 2015.
- Kaplançan, B. (2014). *İş sağlığı ve güvenliği uygulamalarının işgörenlerin tutumuna etkisi*. Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi, Bahçeşehir Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İstanbul.

- Maden Mühendisleri Odası İstanbul Şubesi (19.04.2014 İş güvenliği uzmanları sorunları çalıştay sonuç raporu. [Çevrim-içi: http://www.maden.org.tr/resimler/ekler/1011c2aea278b22_ek.pdf?tipi=2&turu=H&sube=3], (12.11.2015).
- MEB. (2009). 2008 Yılı İç Denetim Faaliyet Raporu. Ankara: MEB.
- MEB. (2015a). Lise ve dengi okullar Rehberlik ve denetim rehberi. Ankara: MEB.
- MEB. (2015b). İlkokul / ortaokul Rehberlik ve denetim rehberi. Ankara: MEB.
- MEB. (2015c). Millî eğitim istatistikleri 2014/2015. Ankara: MEB.
- Medeni, D. B. (2014). İş sağlığı ve güvenliği kapsamında sorumluluk. Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi, Erciyes Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Kayseri.
- SAĞLIKOVA, Yıldırım. "Orta Eğitim İçin Bir Kampus." Tasarım. Yıl: 1, Sayı: 4, İstanbul: 1990.

The Opinions Of School Administrators On The Teacher Performance Evaluation

Munevver Olcum Cetin, Ismail Erol, Pelin Karaduman

1. Introduction

Throughout the history, humans have come together for common goals and communities called organizations has come out. To achieve the goals of these organizations, each person in the organizations has some roles and responsibilities. According to some researchers (Başaran, 1991 and Aydın, 2014) within a limited time, idea, product, and any other kinds of results which are the people's acts of his roles and responsibilities in order to achieve the goals of organizations is the term, performance. It means performance is the behaviors and the products that are done to fulfill business requirements in a time zone.

As all the humans are not same, the people's interests and behaviors towards the work will not be the same. For this reason, the differences of employees in an organization should be monitored and evaluated in order to determine the differences in an objective way and accomplish the goals of the organization. Sabuncuoğlu (2012:184) states that in order to get high efficiency in an organization, the abilities of the employees should be monitored and evaluated in accordance with the success which is improved. Aydın (2013:154) states performance evaluation as "make sense of relative or concrete performance measures in terms of performance standards or effectiveness levels". Performance evaluation is observing all activities, deficiencies, sufficiency, pluses, and inabilities of all employees whatever their work is. The question why this observation is a necessity reveals the importance and need of performance evaluation. This need comes from the nature of human. Human is a social being. They are always in touch with their environment. Humans are in need of being informed in their relations between others, confirmed, even encouraged and appreciated. These are all natural needs for humans (EARGED, 2006:7).

Performance evaluation helps employees and administrators in organizations. According to Helvacı (2002:157) some good sides of performance evaluation are like these: It helps employee to understand what is wanted from him/her; it helps to understand what is needed to achieve the aim; it helps to define his/her current situation, improvement and in what area he/she needs education in order to improve himself/herself; it helps to be aware of what the expectations in terms of duties are clearly; it helps administrators to give more objective feedbacks and guide more affectively; it helps to plan personal improvement and educational needs in a more effective way; it helps administrators to have more efficient relations with employees.

In order to determine the levels of performance of employees, there are many kinds of methods. These methods can change in accordance with the aim of performance evaluation. Some of these are labeled classical now and some are the modern methods that have been developed to have more objective evaluation and solve the problems that are came across during the evaluation process. Each of these methods has different advantages and disadvantages. Organizations should have performance evaluation by choosing the appropriate method according to their aims and employee's quality and sometimes make performance evaluation with their own approach using some of the methods (EARGED, 2006:7). Schools are a kind of organizations, so when we think school environment, performance evaluation of teachers has also beneficial effects on the organizations. For Stronge (2006), the main aim of education is teaching and learning and if there is good teaching, then the outcome will be good learning. To fulfill the aim of education, evaluation is needed. Teacher evaluation is firstly about recording the nature of the teacher's performance and then helping the teacher to improve their performance. It is also about helping the teacher to be accountable for his work. According to Peterson & Peterson (2005:78) to have a fine teacher evaluation, there should be a good contact between teachers, administrators and people related with school and good teacher evaluation includes: Improved evaluation should be done by administrators, to have multiple data sources, teacher evaluation procedures and forms must be improved, there should be a student

achievement system, there should be programs for staff improvement on evaluation theory and practice, there should be technical help and recommendation for teacher to involve in the evaluation and for their self evaluation, there should be mentoring programs, there should be substitute teacher support for evaluation, there should be always ongoing searches, improvements and verification of teacher evaluation system and practice, there should be public relations for teacher evaluation data. Traditional performance evaluation system is one-sided and just the managers evaluate the employees. In this system, opinions, feelings and values of the evaluators are so affective that suspicions for objectivism and reliability come out. For this reason, openness, participation, objectivism become important parts of evaluation system. In order to decrease the mistakes because of the evaluators, 360 performance evaluation system, which includes more than one person to the evaluation, has come up recently. Ministry of National Education has wanted to apply this method (Koçak, 2006:786). According to Altundeppe (1999:84) teacher performance evaluation is not an activity which is done by just expert, inspectors or school administrators, for teacher evaluation, students, parents and teachers themselves should also evaluate. In Turkey, In 2006, Ministry of National Education EARGED published "Performance Evaluation Method Model" and in primary schools, pilot study was done.

Teacher evaluation has great importance all over the world and in recent time, teacher evaluation in Turkey was done by inspectors' inspection reports and also because teachers are also a civil servant, the teacher evaluation was done by registration reports. In primary school, teacher performance evaluation was done by primary inspectors; in secondary and high schools, it was done by the inspectors of ministry of national education. However, with the official journal published on April 17, 2015, teacher performance evaluation was transferred to school administrators. Statement 54 is about teacher evaluation. According to this statement "the evaluation of each teacher who works at any kinds of schools and whose teacher candidate has finished is done by the school administrators of the same school at the end of academic year in order to evaluate success, productivity and efforts."

2.Method/ Data Collection and Analysis

The aim of the study is to find out the opinions of public school administrators, who work in Suleymanpasa, Tekirdag during 2015- 2016 academic year, on the new teacher performance evaluation. It is a qualitative study. The qualitative studies are conducted by interviews, observations and document analysis, etc. in order to find out events and perceptions totally and really in their natural setting (Yıldırım & Simsek,2008). Accordingly, in the study semi-structured interview method, which is useable for qualitative studies, was chosen in order to understand how school administrators understand and interpret the new teacher performance evaluation. This method is useable if more detailed questions on a specific topic is needed or the answers are not enough and again new questions on the same topic are needed to make things clear (Cepni,2007). In the study group, there are 15 public school administrators. 4 of them work at special education schools, 5 work at primary, 3 work at secondary, 3 work at high school in Suleymanpasa, Tekirdag. Semi structured interview form which included 12 open ended questions was prepared by the researchers. All the teachers work at public schools. The questions which were prepared for the aim of the study are as listed below:

1. What kinds of problems have you come across about the process of teachers' planning of education term? What do think about the convenience of the plan that the teachers have planned to the students?
2. While evaluating teachers, what have you come across about the teachers' regulation of education environment? According to you, while doing teacher evaluation, what tasks fall to the teachers for the regulation of education environment?
3. What are your feedbacks for the evaluation of teachers communication skills? What can be done to test their competence?
4. What do think about the competence of the teachers to motivate students while evaluating teachers? What should be taken into consideration during the evaluation?

5. What should be paid attention while analyzing the teachers' usage of school environment's opportunities? Do think that teachers are using opportunities of school environment?
6. Do think that time management is important on teacher evaluation? Do teachers are using time affectively?
7. On evaluation, to what extent is the teachers effective use of appropriate teaching method and technique important?
8. While evaluating the teachers, what do think about the teachers' evaluation of the education process and giving feedback? Do you think that teachers are doing enough transparent evaluations?
9. While evaluating teachers, to what extent is the accordance and contribution to school's teaching policy important?
10. What should be there to evaluate the teachers display of the appropriate attitude and behaviors of teacher profession?
11. Are the criteria of teacher evaluation enough? According to you, how often should it be done and what do you think about sharing the results of evaluation with teachers?
12. On teacher evaluation, should there be opinions of parents and students? Should this evaluation be a bench mark for career stages?

Before the interviews, participants were informed about the research and the interviews were recorded with recorder. Then, the interviews were written by using computer program. Each interview was lasted approximately 40-80 minutes and then they were written. The data were analyzed by using content analysis. According to Yıldırım and Simsek (2008) the data collected qualitatively is analyzed in 4 stages. These are "data coding, theme determining, data and theme organizing, findings describing and commenting." The answers of participants were firstly written on computer and then by reading again and again data coding stage was done. During coding stage, data were evaluated by three people, 2 of them are doctorate students at Education administration and supervision and the other one is professor at the same department. After coding the data, themes under specific categories are determined and sub-themes are done by dividing themes in themselves in accordance with codes. In order to evaluate reliability, the formula offered by Miles and Huberman (1994) was used. $Reliability = \frac{Agreement}{Agreement + Difference\ of\ Opinion}$. By conducting the formula, reliability was calculated as 0.93. In this study, in order to support the opinions of participants, direct quotations were given when necessary.

3. Findings

14 of the administrators who have participated to the research are male, just one participant is female. 2 of the participants are 20-30 years old, 7 of the participants are 31-40 years old, 5 of them are 41-50 years old, 1 of them is 51-60 years old. 6 of the administrators who have participated in the research were graduated from primary school teaching department, 2 of them are from Turkish language and literature teaching, 2 of them are counseling, 1 is religious culture and moral knowledge teaching, 1 is preschool teaching, 1 is Turkish language teaching, 1 is English language teaching, 1 is special education. When we look at the administration year of the participants; 6 of the participants have been administrators for 0-5 years, 4 of them have been for 6-10 years, 3 of them have been for 11-15 years, 2 of them have been administrators for 15- and above years. The number of teachers at the participant administrators' schools are like this: there are 0-20 teachers at 2 schools, there are 20-50 teachers at 9 schools, there are 50-100 teachers at 4 schools.

The data gotten by the interview form were firstly written by Word Office from voice records. Then, they were read for a few times and then codes were done accordingly. On the Table 1 which is below, the codes were formed by the analyzing the questions. These codes were many times repeated on the interviews done with school administrators and seen as important were listed:

Table 1: Codes of Data According To Questions

Questions	Codes
1 st Research Question	Copy-Paste Method (4), Using ready plan (4), Not paying attention to the students (4), Not paying attention to the differences between regions of the country 3), No individuality (2), Not reading the plans (2), The teachers who come to the class without any preparation (2), Laziness (2), Unqualified Inspections (1), Age (1), The number of the students in the class (1), Using Turkish (1).
2nd Research Question	Technology Usage (4), Material Usage(2), Hardworking Teachers (2), Using Different Methods (2), Seating arrangement (2), Absence of security measures (2), Financial incapability (2), Including students to the lesson (1), Need of assistance (1), Necessities of the new century (1), Catching the students' level(1), Planned Teacher (1), Using the school's all setting (1), Technical inadequacy (1), Grouping the students (1).
3rd Research Question	Need of Inservice Training (7), Lack of Interaction with Parents (5), Interaction with Students (4), Interaction with administration (3), Using Turkish well (3), Colleague Relations (3), Being an example (2), Affection (2), Affect of social media (2), Body language (2), Following technology (1), Inadequacy of diction (1), Fear of complaints (1), Inability of self-expression (1), Not being enterprising (1), Lack of self-confidence (1), Appropriateness to the level (1).
4th Research Question	Understanding students (3), Appropriateness to the modern-day (2), Using different methods (2), Differences between education level (2), Having dialogue with students (2), Lack of motivation (1), Giving feedback (1), Taking attention (1), Using technology, Coming ready to the lesson (1), Distractibility (1), Planning (1), Political views (1), Institutional Interaction (1), Experience (1), Guidance of administrators (1), Being focused on success (1).
5th Research Question	Environmental possibilities (6), Teacher want (3), Suitability to the lesson (3), Opportunity training (3), Participation of family (3), Planning tours (1), Age of the teacher (1), Dialogue with school environment (1), Country construction (2), Sponsors (1), Connection with administration (1), View of environment to the students (1).
6th Research Question	Coming to lesson on time (8), Using technology (5), Time management (4), Problem with using time (3), Duties and responsibilities (3), Guidance to the teacher (3), Distribution of the subjects (2), Age (2), Doing all the activities (2), Absenteeism (1), Being a model to the students (1), The time given to have a rest (1), Number of the students in the class (1).
7th Research Question	Suitability to students (7), Suitability to the subject (5), Suitability to the daily life (3), Opportunity training (3), Readiness of the students (3), Making learning easier (2), Being incentive(2), Coming to the lesson ready (1), Overcrowded classes (1).
8th Research Question	Transperancy (7), Informing students (6), Being objective (4), Not discriminating (3), Appropriateness to the ethic values (2), Informing the parents (2), Counseling activities (1), New evaluation methods (1), Knowing Students (1), Economical expectations (1).
9th Research Question	Shared decisions (5), Institutional loyalty (3), Benefits of the school (3), Being sharer (3), Cooperation (3), Innovativeness (2), productive teachers (2), Proffessional ethics (1), Positive discrimination (1), Rewarding(1), Guidance (1).

10th Research Question	Being an example person (8), Being a role model for students (7), Being appropriate to the school (5), Arrangement of the dress (4), Professional values (3), Being ethic (3), Being respectful (3), Wanting (2), Same culture agreement (2), Importance of the private life (2), Family attitudes (1), Being fair (1), Attitudes and ideas (1), Sentimental values (2).
11th Research Question	Sharing with teachers (6), Doing long term evaluations (5), Evaluation at the end of the term (4), Feedback problems (4), Doing annual evaluations (4), Adding new criteria (3), Doing monthly evaluation (2), Evaluation without force (2), Forms special to the schools (2), Opinions of assistant administrators (1), Classical evaluations (1).
12th Research Question	Not getting parents' opinions (8), Getting students and parents' opinions (5), Not getting students' opinions (5), Offending parents' attitudes (3), Getting inspectors' opinions (2), Career and improvement criterion (2), School administration is enough (1), Colleague evaluation (1), Evaluation of high school students (1), Objectivism (1).

With the data gotten, creating codes and categorizing them was not possible. With the codes specified, the themes are needed to be found. By analyzing the data gotten by interviews with administrators, the codes were collected into 5 themes and on Table 2 were written as below:

Table 2: Themes

Theme 1	Planning of Education at Schools and Organizing Educational Environment
Theme 2	The Ability of Teachers' Motivation and Using Opportunities of School Environment
Theme 3	Time Management and Using The Suitable Method For the Lessons
Theme 4	Evaluating the Students and Behaving According to School Policies
Theme 5	Professional Qualification- Competence and the Condition of the Criteria of Teacher Evaluation

At the stage of coding by theming, the basement of doing according to codes and themes done with data was used. The researchers divided each theme into 10 sub-themes, which are appropriate to 5 theme in accordance with data. On Table 3, themes and sub-themes are given:

Table 3: Themes and Sub-themes

Themes	Sub-themes
Planning of Education at Schools and Organizing Educational Environment	1. Lost of Individuality Because of Using Ready Plans, Not Paying Attention to the Districts and Students
	2. Using Technological Opportunities and Materials and Hardworking Teacher Attitudes
The Ability of Teachers' Motivation and Using Opportunities of School Environment	1. Get Use of Environmental Opportunities and Motivate Students by Understanding Them
	2. Communication Problems and The Need of Inservice Education
Time Management and Using The Suitable Method For the Lessons	1. Use of Technology, Time Management and The Problem of Entrance and Exit Time To the Lessons
	2. Choosing Appropriate Method and Technique to The Student- Subject- Daily Life
Evaluating the Students and Behaving According to School Policies	1. Transparent Student Evaluations and Giving Feedback
	2. The Ability of Taking Decisions with Institutional Loyalty and Protecting The Benefits of the School
Professional Qualification- Competence and the Condition of	1. Considering Professional Qualifications and Role Model Teachers

the Criteria of Teacher Evaluation	2. Long Term Teacher Evaluations and Taking Student- Parent Views into Consideration
---	--

At the last step, data which were collected and explained in detail was interpreted by the researchers. At the same time, some results were tried to be found out. In qualitative researches, researchers' ideas and inferences are important because the researchers are close to the data. According to the themes and sub-themes, the findings and some opinions of the administrators are as follows:

3.1. Planning of Education at Schools and Organizing Educational Environment

3.1.1. Lost of Individuality Because of Using Ready Plans, Not Paying Attention to the Districts and Students

According to administrators, it is found out that teachers are generally getting their plans by using internet and copying and pasting them (4/15). Administrators indicate that teachers generally use ready plans (4/15), teachers do not pay attention to students while preparing the plans (4/15), they prepare plans without any care on differences because of district (3/15) and some lazy teachers are not enough to prepare the plans. Some administrators' opinions are as follows:

"Nowadays, most of the plans which are prepared by the teachers are gotten by the educational websites or these are the standard plans which are prepared by some publishing houses..." (M3).

"Because of the students number are high in some classes, I don't think that individual differences are cared about while teachers are preparing the plans..." (M9).

3.1.2. Using Technological Opportunities and Materials and Hardworking Teacher Attitudes

Administrators state that they pay attention to using technology on their evaluations (4/15), on the evaluations teachers who pay attention to using technology are successful (2/15). Administrators on the research indicate that teachers who are using different methods and techniques to ease learning and teachers who are really hardworking are more successful both on the evaluations and on their occupations. Some administrators' opinions are as follows:

"...There is a special role for the teachers to improve a new material and use it in the class. Each one of these are one criteria on the evaluation process for the administrators ..." (M1).

"...A teacher should pay attention the modern day to arrange the educational environment and use technological equipments and the teacher should always be in the struggle for improving himself..." (M2).

3.2. The Ability of Teachers' Motivation and Using Opportunities of School Environment

3.2.1. Get Use of Environmental Opportunities and Motivate Students by Understanding Them

The administrators who talks about the importance of teachers' use of environmental opportunities (6/15), indicate that teachers who understand the students and use technology motivate students easier than other teachers (3/15). Some administrators' opinions are as follows:

"Using technological improvements to the educational environment help teachers to motivate students more easily ..." (M5).

"...I think a teacher has the responsibility to get the students to be willing to the lessons, not just teaching a lesson because each student can easily learn if he is willing to learn..." (M4).

"...Distinguishing one lesson or subject's importance to the student's life will motivate students in terms of aimed gains ..." (M2).

3.2.2. Communication Problems and The Need of In-service Education

Communication problems comes first in the list of the problems that teachers have with parents (5/15), that teachers have with the students (4/15), that teachers have with colleagues (3/15), For this reasons, the administrators' opinions in order to have in-service training about "communication" (7/15) are as follows:

“...During the workshop periods, current education should be given to the teachers and administrators by the subject matter experts. This subject can be given to the teachers under some different titled in-service training. Thus, both the language may be ensured to be used accurately and precautions for the corruption of the language which has got fast with the technology may be taken...” (M6).

3.3. Time Management and Using The Suitable Method For the Lessons

3.3.1. Use of Technology, Time Management and The Problem of Entrance and Exit Time To the Lessons

The administrators who state the importance of time management during the inspections (4/15) indicate that the teachers can use time more affectively by means of technology (5/15). While on the one hand administrators indicate that teachers use time more affectively, on the other hand they state that teachers have problems with the entrance and exit time to the lessons and using time for the benefit of students. Some administrators' opinions are as follows:

“Time management is important for teacher evaluation because the data and information on their hand is clear. Subjects are clear. The teacher needs to evaluate the time period when to teach this subjects to the students with regard to time. Whiling evaluating this, the time management is one of the essential things for the administrators...” (M1).

“Entrance and exit time to the lessons is generally a problem for all schools. Teacher does not spend much time with the exit time of the lessons and immediately rests. With the entrance bell to the lesson, the teacher goes on tea break in the teachers' room and without feeling any upset, takes other teachers' education time. (M5).

3.3.2. Choosing Appropriate Method and Technique to The Student- Subject- Daily Life

According to the administrators, teachers use of appropriate method to the students (7/15), to the lesson and subject (3/15), teachers use of adaptable method to the daily life (2/15), is very essential for them. Some administrators' opinions are as follows:

“Not using appropriate method and technique to the level of students make learning and teaching process difficult and longer. The easiest way to teach is learning by doing. Students should feel that he needs what he learns and can use what he learns in daily life...” (M3).

“That teacher's use of appropriate method to the class and circumstances of education environment is important make students like the lesson and get over more in a short time ...” (M6).

3.4. Evaluating the Students and Behaving According to School Policies

3.4.1. Transperant Student Evaluations and Giving Feedback

On the evaluation processes, the school administrators who look for teacher's being transparent while evaluating students (7/15); states that students must be reported for the results (6/15) and the evaluations must be done objectively (4/15). Some opinions of the administrators as follows:

“I see that our teachers are transparent on their student evaluations except some circumstances. In this respect, it is observed in our school that if the step of giving feedback is skipped, the acquisition which is aimed takes time and may not be gained...” (M8).

“...It is expected from the teachers to improve themselves in terms of giving feedback to students. Teachers are not giving enough feedback to inform students about why they give points and what students need to do...” (M13).

3.4.2. The Ability of Taking Decisions with Institutional Loyalty and Protecting The Benefits of the School

The administrators who state the importance of institutional loyalty (3/15), indicate that the common decisions gotten inside the school will provide positive returns to the evaluations and will ensure

The Opinions Of School Administrators On The Teacher Performance Evaluation

unity and solidarity of the school (5/15). At the same time, the teachers who protect the benefits of the school will always be supported positively (3/15) and gain of these teachers will be more (3/15). Some opinions of the administrators are as follows:

"...If the teachers did not protect and contribute to the values of the school, the administration of the school's attempt to develop any projects or attempts to improve itself, it would not survive. The reason of is that the teachers do not have the institutional loyalty and policy of the school..." (M1).

"...We as school administrators have given particular importance on the harmony of the teachers in themselves and with the administration of the school because we are all and if one part is absent, we are aware that other parts will scatter within time. Therefore, we have all learned to unite to all kinds of criticisms..." (M15).

3.5. Professional Qualification- Competence and the Condition of the Criteria of Teacher Evaluation

3.5.1. Considering Professional Qualifications and Role Model Teachers

The administrators who indicate the importance of teacher's being an example person to the students (8/15), state the teachers who are role model for the students are treated with great respect during the evaluations (7/15). Teachers who follow the rules of the school (5/15), are careful about his/her wearing (5/15), give importance to professional values (5/15) are at the top of list on the evaluations. Some opinions of the administrators are as follows:

"The most important person to take as an example is the teacher for students. Teacher should have the characteristic of an example person. From his wearing to the words he uses everything is important. While evaluating a teacher, his/her being a gentle woman/gentle man is important. Then, her/his attitude to the environment and colleague attitudes come. However, the most important thing is her behaviors towards the students, which is very important for education. Respecting to the rights of the students and seeing them as people is the most important thing." (M3).

"A teacher is a teacher in all point and place of the life. Being a teacher as a profession is a profession which always looks for being an example person. I think with position, words and actions, with wearing, a teacher should always protect the prestige the profession, being a teacher ..." (M9).

3.5.2. Long Term Teacher Evaluations and Taking Student- Parent Views into Consideration

The administrators who state the importance of evaluating teachers not in short term, but in long term (5/15), are uncertain about sharing the results with the teachers. While (6/15) administrators see no disadvantage of sharing, (9/15) administrators think that it may disturb the peace within the school. About taking parent and student's views to the evaluations, most of them state his/her disagreement (8/15). Some opinions are as follows:

"I think that the views of parents and students should not be taken into consideration on the evaluations because parents may show offending and backbreaking behaviors. Teachers are always wrong, but students are right. For this reason, I do not think that there will be a positive attitude towards the evaluations..." (M10).

"...A teacher cannot be evaluated in just one lesson hour. His/her living and the process is confronted as an important criterion for evaluation." (M4).

4. Discussion and Conclusion

In accordance with the administrators' opinions, teachers are generally downloading the plans from the internet and using these unsubjective plans in their lessons. In this respect, teaching based on students and strategies which focus on the differences between regions cannot be talked. We can say that teachers see preparing annual and daily plans as extra workload. Also, we can say that, teachers who do not use technology to be practical, do not use appropriate materials to the lessons do not make an effort for the success of the students. In this respect, there is a similarity with other some

researches about planning. According to some researches, teachers see preparing plans as extra work and plans are usually taken from the official curriculum as they are and therefore there is no reflection of the teacher (Ozturk, 2012:297; Tasdemir, 2006).

It has been found out that a teacher should be hardworking and use all the possibilities for the lesson. Teachers are responsible for taking students' attention to lesson to be successful on the evaluation. If a teacher does not use the possibilities of the environment, teacher's success on the evaluation cannot be waited for. The teacher who understands the students and come to the lesson accordingly are the teachers who prepare her/his lessons according to the students, uses the best methods in his/her lessons and whose communication with students is at high level. It can be said that teachers who are careful about entrance and exit time to the lessons, give special time to the students and parents are given great importance by the administrators. The teachers who come and exit from the lesson on time will be an example for the students. At the same time, they will clear the administrators who evaluate them about the methods they use are based on daily life and students.

The teachers who are careful about the criteria of the profession about wearing, being a model for students and even parents, will ease the work of evaluator administrators and improve the culture of the school. In the research done by Sahin (2011:254) about the effective teachers' attitudes, it is found out that it is important for a teacher to have good social ethics and be a model with his/her behaviors. The teachers who are objective and transparent on student evaluations will get positive results on their own evaluations and enhance the success of students by giving feedback to the students. The teachers who are loyal to the school which they work, who protect the benefits of the school and at the same time who work for improving the culture of the school will have more positive evaluations.

Doing the evaluation not only one time in a year, but in a long process each term will make the teacher ready for all time and will improve the quality of education, school, teacher, everything. It is clear that we are not ready to take the views of the parents and students yet. However, No disadvantage of taking views of parents and students into consideration is seen. In the research done by Altun and Memusoglu (2008:19), teachers, administrators and supervisors have stated the disadvantages of taking parents and students. They think that there will be a negative atmosphere within the school and it will cause more problems It shows that we are not ready to take the opinions of students and parent's views.

5. Recommendations

The administrators who do the evaluations of the teachers in the school can get sufficient inservice training. The administrators should know when and how to evaluate the teachers in terms of the teachers branch. At the same time, it can be asked for some help from the inspectors within the evaluation process. That doing the evaluation of the teachers in a long process will be the most beneficial update in the process. The teachers who are ready to be inspected not just for some days but for always will expand the quality of teaching. The criteria of the evaluation can be updated one by one appropriate to the process of teaching, modern days and the changes in the society.

6. References

- Altun, S. A., & Memişoğlu, S. P. (2008). Performans değerlendirmesine ilişkin öğretmen, yönetici ve müfettiş görüşleri. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi Dergisi*, 14(1), 7-24.
- Aydın, İ. (2013). *Öğretimde denetim*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Altuntepe, Ö.(1999). Ortaöğretim kurumlarında öğretmen performansının değerlendirilmesi, *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi: Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 1 (1), 81-106.
- Başaran, E.(1991). *Örgütsel davranış*. Gül Yayınevi: Ankara.
- EARGED. (2006). *Okulda performans yönetimi modeli*. Ankara: Milli Eğitim Basımevi.
- Helvacı, M. A. (2002). Performans yönetimi sürecinde performans değerlendirmenin önemi. *Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi*,35(1-2), 155-169.
- Koçak, R. (2006). Öğretmen performans değerlendirme envanteri (ÖPDE) geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Bilimleri*, 6 (3), 779-808.

- ÖZTÜRK, İ. H. (2012). Öğretimin planlanmasında öğretmenin rolü ve özerkliği: Ortaöğretim tarih öğretmenlerinin yıllık plan hazırlama ve uygulama örneği. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Bilimleri*, 12(1), 271-299.
- Peterson, K. D., & Peterson, C. A. (Eds.). (2005). *Effective teacher evaluation: A guide for principals*. Corwin Press.
- Sabuncuoğlu, Z. (2012). *Uygulama örnekleriyle insan kaynakları yönetimi*. İstanbul: Beta Basım
- Şahin, A. (2011). Öğretmen algılarına göre etkili öğretmen davranışları. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 12(1), 239-259.
- Stronge, J. H. (2006). *Evaluating teaching: A guide to current thinking and best practice*. Corwin Press.
- Tasdemir, M. (2006). Sınıf öğretmenlerinin planlama yeterliklerini algılama düzeyleri. *Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 4(3), 287-307.

The Investigation About Reading Fluency Skill Of Secondary School Students⁵

Mustafa Turkyilmaz

1. Introduction

Christina Nehring, in her article dated on June 27, 2004 and titled “Books Make You a Boring Person” says “Books keep kids off drugs. They keep gang members out of prison. They keep terrorists, for all we know, at the gates.” (Nehring, 2004; Accessed 20.06.2016). In parallel to that, Brottman (2014, 16) states that books have the power to save lives, to make you a better and more interesting one, to escape poverty, to provide you joy, success and prosperous future. Similar expressions are also stated by Altug, Filiztekin, Pamuk (2008) and Veryeri Alaca, Kuntay (2015, 10) by emphasizing probable impact of reading on socio- economic development. Besides, it is seen that some researchers have stated that it is necessary to benefit literary works in transferring of national and universal values (Kortenhaus and Demarest, 1993; Tomlinson and Lynch-Brown 1996; Wynne and Ryan, 1997; Kavcar, 1999; Oguzkan, 2001; Arseven, 2005; Sever, 2008; Turkyilmaz, 2012a).

As the reading materials are significant in academic achievement and lifelong learning, it is essential to read and understand those. It is got the meaning of text by reading. In the simplest term, reading is comprehension and making sense of messages sent through symbols, signals and various visuals. In furtherance those expressions, Ozbay and Bahar (2012, 174) emphasize that reading is, for all intents and purposes, a comprehension and interpretation task. In Turkey, while making one learn the literacy skill, inductive method is employed. There is a process followed while making one acquire reading skill. It is performed from sound, the smallest unit of language, to sentence. In the mentioned process, firstly, children learn oral reading because a teacher is expected to follow reading skill acquisition process of child closely. That can be carried out with oral reading.

Oral reading is the process of reading aloud of word or word groups, perceived by eyes and comprehended by mind, by means of speech organs (Kavcar, Oguzkan and Sever, 2003, 43). As for fluent reading, it is an important component of both oral and silent reading. Concept of fluency is defined by Harris and Hodges (1981, 120) as (1) the clear, easy, written or spoken expression of ideas in writing or speech; (2) freedom from word identification problems which might hinder expression of ideas during oral reading; (3) the ability to speak, write, or perform smoothly, easily, and readily; (4) the ability of produce words, or larger language units, in a limited time interval. According to Rasinski, Yildirim and Nageldinger (2011, 255), fluency is something more than reading of words in the text properly and automatically. Meanwhile, fluency is to read words in the text with an intonation and strengthening expression.

Concept of fluency includes factors of accuracy, pacing and accumaticity (Paige, 2014). By Paige et al. (2015, 108), **accuracy** was calculated for each reading by counting the total number of miscues made across the 3-minute reading. **Pacing** is the total number of words read for three minutes. **Accumaticity** this measure is the mathematical difference between pacing and accuracy. For example, if pacing consisted of 380 words and total miscues equaled 21, accumaticity equals 359 (380 - 21). Accumaticity represents the number of words read correctly during the 3-minute reading.

1.1. Related Studies

Paige et al. (2015), in their studies, searched fluent reading pace of 108 secondary school students at 9th grade, in different text genres. Fluent readers and struggling readers are studied in terms of their reading skills. Researchers determined that informative texts were read more slowly when compared to narrative ones and fluent readers read faster than struggling readers.

⁵ This work was supported by the Ahi Evran University Scientific Research Projects Coordination Unit. Project Number: EGT.A3.16.021

Cetinkaya, Ates and Yildirim (2016) aimed to find out relationship between fluent reading and comprehension of high school level students; therefore, 105 high school students were involved in research process. Research findings indicated that accurate word recognition pace and prosodic reading speculate comprehension positively. The purpose of the study carried out by Uslu-Ustten (2014) in sample, comprise of 120 students at 9th grade, was to define struggling reader and fluent reading level of students. At the end of the research, it was found out that the students have reading disorder, they misread the texts without paying attention to punctuation and have fluent reading skill and proficiency in low level.

When researchers originating in Turkey are examined, except from Uslu-Ustten (2014) and Cetinkaya, Ates and Yildirim (2016), it is seen that the studies were carried out in primary and middle school sample and there is not a study implemented in secondary school level in order to define fluent reading skill (Bastug and Keskin, 2012; Uzunkol, 2013; Bastug and Kaman, 2013; Basaran, 2013; Yildiz, 2013; Beydogan, 2012; Cetinkaya, Ulper and Yagmur, 2015).

1.2. The Purpose of the Study

Within the related literature, it is seen that the studies on determining secondary school students' fluent reading skill is not sufficient in number. In this regard, the followings are aimed to determine

1. The fluent reading skill of secondary school students,
2. Whether fluent reading pace and word recognition level of secondary school students differ in terms of text genres
3. The relationship between fluent reading skill and level of reading attitude, Facebook addiction and self- efficacy perception of secondary school students on reading.

2. Method

The quantitative research model was used in the current study. Those models are descriptive and correlational ones. Descriptive model is used to present fluent reading skill of secondary school students in different text genres. As for correlational screening model, it is implemented to define the relationship between fluent reading skill and self- efficacy perception on reading, Facebook addiction and reading attitude (Karasar, 2008).

2.1. Participants

The study group was consisted of 112 students attending high school in Kirsehir provience. Of those 112 students, 62 of them are girls and 50 of them are boys. The students study at city center in the fall semester of 2016- 2017 academic year. 45 of the students are 9th graders, 30 of the students are 10th graders and 37 of the students are 11th graders. The sample was randomly selected among ones willing to participate.

2.2. Data Collection Tools

1. Facebook Addiction, 2. Readers Self-Efficacy and 3. Reading Attitude Scales were used as data collection tools. In determination of reading texts, 54 teachers were asked to read each one of the essay, case story and narrative presented in Table 1. Those teachers were asked to grade each of the text out of 5 by considering convenience them for secondary school students. At the end of the grading, the first prominent one out of each text genre was used as a tool in the research.

Table 1. Grades provided by teachers considering reading texts

Genres	Author	Title of the text	Grade
Essay	Tahsin Yucel	Yalinlik-Aciklik	2,86
	Sabahattin Kudret Aksal	Gecmisle Gelecek	3,50
	Sabahattin Eyuboglu	Dostluk	4,00
Case Story	Adalet Agaoglu	Karanfilsiz	4,09
	Ferit Edgu	Les	4,12
	Murat Gulsoy	Kendi Uzerine Kapanan Kole Hakkinda	4,16
Narrative	Haldun Taner	Bir Kavak ve İnsanlar	3,62
	Sait Faik	Bir İlkbahar Hikâyesi	3,66
	Sait Faik	Semaver	4,25

According to teachers' grading, Dostluk by Sabahttin Eyupoglu was identified as an essay, Kendi Uzerine Kapanan Kole Hakkinda by Murat Gulsoy as case story and Semaver by Sait Faik as narrative. Those selected ones are used in the study. Qualities regarding readability of chosen texts are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Readability quality of the texts

Title of the Text	Number of the Words	Number of the Sentence	Number of the Syllable	Word/ Sentence	Word/ Sentence	Word/ Sentence	Atesman's Readability Formula
Kendi Uzerine Kapanan Kole Hakkinda (Case Story)	731	87	2050	8.40	2.8	23.56	64.41 (Medium)
Dostluk (Essay)	631	43	1686	14.47	2.67	39.2	53.28 (Medium)
Semaver (Narrative)	968	121	2482	8	2.56	20	75.10 (Easy)

2.2.1. Scale of Facebook Addiction, Reader Self- Efficacy and Reading Attitude

In the current study, Facebook Addiction Scale developed by Andreassen et al. (2012) and adapted in Turkish by Turkyilmaz (2015b); Reader Self- Efficacy Scale developed by Ulper, Yayli and Karakaya (2013) and Reading Attitude Scale developed by Turkyilmaz and Aydemir (2014) were utilized. Those scales were tested by the researchers by practicing Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Within the scope of the research, Cronbach's Alpha reliability values of related scales were examined. At the end of the analysis, it is found out that Reading Attitude Scale has reliability value of ,700; Facebook Addiction Scale has ,945 and Reader Self- Efficacy Scale has ,842 α . Those values indicate that the assessment instruments can perform reliable, consistent and objective measurement for both items and factors, and in general (Tekin, 1996; Balci, 2009; Buyukozturk, 2008).

2.3. Data Collection Procedure

The study was carried out in the fall semester of 2016- 2017 academic year and applied in secondary schools accepting participation in Kirsehir city center. The scales were applied in classrooms all

The Investigation About Reading Fluency Skill Of Secondary School Students

together. The students participated in the study in suitable places enabling them to read aloud. Each of the texts were made students read for three minutes. The researcher recorded students' voices and put a mark where s/he stopped for each and every text. Nevertheless, the students were not interfered while reading by any means. At the end of the process, recordings were listened by the researcher and data were transferred in a statistical program.

3. Findings

In that part of the study, acquired findings are presented in tables.

Table 3. Mean of pacing, accuracy and accumaticity considering text genres

Title of the text	Pacing	Accuracy	Accumaticity
Kendi Uzerine Kapanan Kole Hakkinda (Case Story)	438.71	2.85	435.97
Dostluk (Essay)	400.86	7.72	393.14
Semaver (Narrative)	394.93	3.89	391.44

According to Table, while case story is the text read fastest (438,7), narrative is the one read slowest (394,9). While the students made most miscues in essay (7,7), least mistakes were observed in case story (2,8).

Table 4. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) considering the average of pacing, accuracy and accumaticity with regard to text genres

	Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	p	Meaning Difference
PACING	Between groups	126343,484	2	63171,742	17,77	,000	YES
	Within groups	1183581,67	333	3554,299			
	Total	1309925,15	335				
ACCURACY	Between groups	1468,433	2	734,217	16,16	,000	YES
	Within groups	15121,140	333	45,409			
	Total	16589,573	335				
ACCUMATICITY	Between groups	142653,009	2	71326,504	19,73	,000	YES
	Within groups	1203754,24	333	3614,878			
	Total	1346407,25	335				

In Anova test carried out considering reading of different types of texts, there is a significant difference. Scheffe test is utilised to find out which text types are the source of significant difference. According to test results, it is detected that case story is read by the students faster by creating significant difference compared to others. While participants read mean 438,71 words in case story for three minutes, the average read words was 400,86 in essay, and 394,93 words in narrative.

When the difference among text types regarding number of the miscue words is examined, it is seen that there is a significant difference. The significant difference is found out in the essay titled Dostluk. While the informative text titled Dostluk is read, there are 7.72 mistaken words in mean for three minutes. It is 3.89 mistaken words for Semaver and 2.85 mistaken words in mean for Kendi Uzerine Kapanan Kole in average.

When oral readings were examined in terms of accumaticity, it is detected that text titled Kendi Uzerine Kapanan Kole Hakkinda is read in largest number of words (435.97) while the story titled Semaver has the lowest number of words (391.44). The difference among average numbers of the

words read accurately in regard to three different texts is in favor of the text titled Kendi Uzerine Kapanan Kole Hakkinda.

Furthermore, another sub- problem of the research is whether there is a relationship between fluent reading skill of students and attitude towards reading, self- efficacy perception and Facebook addiction. Within this context, the relationship among following variables is examined in Table 5.

Table 5. The relationship between reading pace and reading attitude, self- efficacy in reading and Facebook addiction of students

		Essay Pacing	Narrative Pacing	Case Story Pacing	Reading Attitude	Self-Efficacy	Facebook
Essay Pacing	r	1,000	,872**	,827**	,049	,144	-,043
	p	.	,000	,000	,609	,130	,651
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112
Narrative Pacing	r	,872**	1,000	,890**	,010	,096	-,089
	p	,000	.	,000	,920	,316	,348
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112
Case Story Pacing	r	,827**	,890**	1,000	,046	,095	-,235*
	p	,000	,000	.	,632	,321	,013
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112
Reading Attitude	r	,049	,010	,046	1,000	,451**	-,019
	p	,609	,920	,632	.	,000	,844
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112
Self-Efficacy	r	,144	,096	,095	,451**	1,000	-,288**
	p	,130	,316	,321	,000	.	,002
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112
Facebook	r	-,043	-,089	-,235*	-,019	-,288**	1,000
	p	,651	,348	,013	,844	,002	.
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112

According to Table, there is a significant and positive correlation among texts considering pacing, consequently, it is expected students to read any text aloud at the same speed in other texts, as well. A positive relationship is detected between participants' self- efficacy perception as a reader and pacing and attitudes. However the only relationship between reading attitude and self- efficacy perception is significant. In another words, individuals having positive reading attitude have also high level self- efficacy perception. On the other hand, according to Table, it can be stated that as the level of Facebook addiction increases, the individuals' self- efficacy in regard to reading decreases. It can be said that as the addiction on Facebook, social networking site, increases, self- efficacy of participants decreases.

Table 6. The relationship between reading miscues and reading attitude, self- efficacy in reading and Facebook addiction of students

		Essay Accuracy	Narrative Accuracy	Case Story Accuracy	Reading Attitude	Self-Efficacy	Facebook
Essay Accuracy	r	1,000	,639**	,435**	-,211*	-,110	,051
	p	.	,000	,000	,026	,250	,595
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112
Narrative Accuracy	r	,639**	1,000	,526**	-,153	-,152	-,163
	p	,000	.	,000	,108	,109	,086
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112
Case Story Accuracy	r	,435**	,526**	1,000	-,022	,010	,077
	p	,000	,000	.	,816	,920	,422
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112

The Investigation About Reading Fluency Skill Of Secondary School Students

Reading Attitude	r	-,211*	-,153	-,022	1,000	,451**	-,019
	p	,026	,108	,816	.	,000	,844
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112
Self-Efficacy	r	-,110	-,152	,010	,451**	1,000	-,288**
	p	,250	,109	,920	,000	.	,002
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112
Facebook	r	,051	-,163	,077	-,019	-,288**	1,000
	p	,595	,086	,422	,844	,002	.
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112

According to table, a participant making mistake or misreading in any text goes on misreading in another texts as well. Nevertheless, there is an inverse correlation between accuracy and reading attitude and self- efficacy perception in reading.

Table 7. The relationship between fluent reading pace and accuracy while reading

		Essay Pacing	Essay Accuracy	Narrative Pacing	Narrative Accuracy	Case Story Pacing	Case Story Accuracy
Essay Pacing	r	1	,067	,885**	-,215*	,831**	-,374**
	p		,487	,000	,023	,000	,000
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112
Narrative Pacing	r	,885**	-,100	1	-,226*	,887**	-,353**
	p	,000	,294		,017	,000	,000
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112
Case Story Pacing	r	,831**	-,146	,887**	-,166	1	-,234*
	p	,000	,127	,000	,082		,014
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112

According to Table 7, there is a significant and negative correlation between the number of the words read aloud and accuracy. In other words, it can be said accuracy decreases in all texts as aloud reading pace increases.

4. Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

In the current study aiming to detect fluent reading skills of secondary school students considering text types, it is found out that case story titled Kendi Uzerine Kapanan Kole is read faster at a level creating significant difference than other texts (438,7). Dostluk, an essay, is ranked as number two and Semaver, narrative, as number three with an average 394,9 words in three minutes considering pacing. On the other hand, Paige et al. (2015) come up with a result presenting, in three minutes, secondary school students read a narrative in average 324,2 word per three minutes and the participants read an informative text in average 301,8. It can be said the reason of the difference is because of the contexts. Within this context, both studies give an answer to research problem in a similar way. Fluent reading pace differentiated as the text type or context change. The mentioned case is stated by Graesser, Golding and Long (1991), too. In addition, in the study conducted by Bastug (2012) on 2- 5th grade primary school students, there is not a significant difference between text type variable and accurate reading and pacing. In the study carried out by Barth et al. (2014), it is detected that students read slowly in pace as the narrative quality of the text decreases. It is found out that text qualities represent 55% of the variance in fluency of reading aloud. On the other hand, it is seen that Semaver, which is a narrative, is read more slowly.

In addition to that, there is significance between essay and case story in terms of accuracy. The significance is in favor of case story. When the texts are examined in terms of accumaticity, case story is placed on the top with 435.9 words in total for three minutes reading. As for narrative, it has 391.4 words in total and is placed as the last. As there is not an concern for comprehension, the significance is seen in case story. As a matter fact, any kind of achievement test is not administered with regard to text.

Another result of the study is that as the pacing, in reading aloud, increases, accuracy also increases. A similar result was found out by Paige et al. (2015) as well. In his study carried out with 4th graders, Basaran (2013) also detected a negative relationship between accuracy and pacing, in fact, it is not even significant. In their study conducted on primary school (2-5th graders) students, Bastug and Akyol (2012) found out that there is an intermediate correlation between accurate reading and pacing. That means the mentioned case is not a problem observed not only in secondary school level but also in primary school. According to results, it is necessary to mention misperception starting especially along with literacy term. Primary school teachers, teaching reading, make student compete with each other in time and try to identify how many words students can read in a minute while reading aloud. Teachers focus on increasing the number of the words read in a minute. Moreover, Kuhn, Rasinski and Zimmerman (2014) state that fluent reading practices should focus mostly on comprehension rather than pacing. Reading aloud should be practiced not for pacing but for the development of skills in fluent reading and speaking. Teachers' mistake causes students care about pacing rather than prosody and fluency while reading aloud. Rasinski (2004, 49-50) states that in some schools where the main purpose of reading is to increase pacing, teachers advise students pacing and direct them pacing rather than comprehension. However, according to Rasinski, pacing of students will be improved when they believe themselves in decoding words. As the fluent reading skill develops, the pacing will improve accordingly.

In the current study, the relationships among social media, reading attitude and self- efficacy level regarding reading is also studied. There is a significant and positive relationship among pacing. A positive relationship is detected between students' perceptions on their self- efficacy and reading attitude and pacing. It can be said as Facebook addiction level increases, self- efficacy perception of individuals decreases. Turkyilmaz (2015b) also gets a similar result. In the study conducted on 506 secondary school students, the researcher finds out that as Facebook addiction increases; students' reading attitude, comprehension level and number of the words read in a minute go down. Those findings are similar to the result on the effect of Facebook usage on academic achievement (Kuss and Griffiths, 2011; Rouis, et al. 2011; Akdemir, 2013). Moreover, Turkyilmaz (2012, 2014) states that usage of mass media affects reading attitude negatively; nevertheless, Turkyilmaz (2015a) finds out that usage of mass media and social media influence high- level cognitive level reading strategies as well.

According to findings, a participant misreading or making a mistake at any text also misread the other ones. Nevertheless, there is a negative correlation between accuracy and reading attitude and self- efficacy perception on reading. As a matter of fact, it is considered that there should be a statically significant difference between reading self- efficacy perception on reading and pacing. However, while individuals assess themselves in self- efficacy perception; observation and perception of the data are performed by the researcher in detection of pacing. Consequently, it can be stated that participants perceive themselves better than they actually are.

As a result, fluent reading skill of students at any grade should be improved. Studies on fluent reading should be completed before secondary school level. That case is dependent on some factors such as Turkish- Literature courses, course materials, teachers, environment, school and parents. Therefore, the sensibility about reading fluency should be created at any grade.

5. References

- Altug, Sumru G.; Filiztekin, A. ve Pamuk, S. (2008). Sources of long term economic growth for Turkey, 1880-2005. *European Review of Economic History*. 393-430.
- Andreassen, Cecilie S.; Torsheim, T.; Brunborg, GeirScott ve Pallesen, Stale. (2012). "Development of a Facebook Addiction Scale." *Psychological Reports*.110 (2). pp. 501-517.
- Arseven, T. (2005). Mesaj acisindan cocuk kitaplari [The children books aspect of the message]. *Hece Cocuk Edebiyati Ozel Sayisi*. 104-105, s. 42-51.
- Balci, A. (2009). *Sosyal bilimlerde arastirma yontem, teknik ve ilkeler [Research, method, techniqs and policies in social sciences]*. Ankara: PegemA.

- Barth, A.E., Tolar, T.D., Fletcher, J.M., Francis, D. (2014). The effects of student and text characteristics on the oral reading fluency of middle-gradestudents, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 106(1), 162–180. doi:10.1037/a0033826.
- Basaran, M. (2013). Okudugunu anlamnin bir gostergesi olarak akici okuma [*Reading fluency as an indicator of reading comprehension*]. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Egitim Bilimleri*. 13(4) 2277-2290.
- Bastug, M. (2012). İlkogretim 1. kademe ogrencilerinin akici okuma becerilerinin cesitli degiskenler acisindan incelenmesi [Investigation of primary school first stage students' reading fluency skills in terms of certain variables]. Unpublished doctoral thesis, Gazi Universitesi Egitim Bilimleri Enstitusu, Ankara.
- Bastug, M. ve Akyol, H. (2012). Akici okuma becerilerinin okudugunu anlamayi yordama duzeyi [The fluency skill's regression about comprehension]. *Journal of Theoretical Educational Science/ Kuramsal Egitimbilim Dergisi*, 5(4). 394-411.
- Bastug, M. ve Kaman, S. (2013). Norolojik etki yonteminin ogrencilerin akici okuma ve anlama becerilerine etkisi [The effect of the neurological impress method on students' fluent reading skills and success in reading comprehension]. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Universitesi Egitim Fakultesi Dergisi*. 13 (25). 291-309.
- Bastug, M. ve Keskin, H. K. (2012). Akici okuma becerileri ile anlama duzeyleri arasindaki iliski [The relationship between fluent reading skills and comprehension level (literal and inferential)]. *Ahi Evran Universitesi Kirsehir Egitim Fakultesi Dergisi*. 13 (3). 227-244.
- Beydogan, H. O. (2012). Ogrencilerin akici okumalarına gore okuma-anlama stratejilerini kullanma duzeyleri [Students' levels of using reading-comprehension strategies in relation to their proficiencies in reading fluently]. *Egitim ve Bilim*. 37 (166).3-13.
- Brottman, M. (2014). *Okuma illeti yalnız basına yapılan ahlaksızlık [The solitary vice against reading]*. (Cev. Mesut Senol). İstanbul: Paloma Yayınevi.
- Buyukozturk, S. (2008). *Sosyal bilimler için veri analizi el kitabı [The data analyse hand book for social science]*. Ankara: Pegem A Yayıncılık.
- Cetinkaya, F. C.; Ates, S. ve Yildirim, K. (2016). Prozodik okumanın aracılık etkisi: Lise düzeyinde okudugunu anlama ve akici okuma arasındaki ilişkilerin incelenmesi [The mediation effect of reading prosody: exploring the relations between reading fluency and reading comprehension at high school level]. *Turkish Studies International Periodical for the Languages, Literature and History of Turkishor Turkic*. V. 11(3). p. 809-820.
- Cetinkaya, G.; Ulper, H. ve Yagmur, K. (2015). Ogrencilerin dogru ve akici sessiz sozcuk okuma becerileriyle kavrama basarilari arasındaki iliski [Relationship between students' accurate and fluent silent word reading skills and their comprehension]. *İlkogretim Online Dergisi*. 14(3). 993-1004.
- Graesser, A., Golding, J., & Long, D. L. (1991). Narrative Representation and Comprehension. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research* (Vol. 2, pp. 171-205). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Harris, T. L. ve Hodges, R. E. (1981). *A dictionary of reading and related terms*. Newark. DE. International Reading Association.
- Karasar, N. (2008). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemi [The method of scientific research]*. Ankara: Nobel.
- Kavcar, C. (1999). *Edebiyat ve eğitim [Literature and education]*. Ankara: Engin Yayınevi.
- Kavcar, C. Oguzkan, F. Sever, S. (2003). *Türkçe ve sınıf öğretmenleri için Türkçe öğretimi [Turkish education for Turkish and classroom teachers]*. Ankara: Engin Yayıncılık.
- Kortenhaus, C.M., and J. Demarest. (1993). Gender role stereotyping in children's literature: an update. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research* 28: 219–32.
- Khun, M.; Rasinski, T. ve Zimmerman, B. (2014). Integrated fluency instruction: Three approaches for working with struggling reader. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, 7(1), 71-82.
- Kuss, Daria J. & Griffiths, Mark D. (2011). Online social network and addiction: A review of the psychological literature. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*. 8, 3528-3552; doi:10.3390/ijerph8093528.

- Nehring, C. (2004). Books make you a boring person. *New York Times Book Review*. <http://www.nytimes.com/2004/06/27/books/essay-books-make-you-a-boring-person.html> (20.06.2016).
- Oguzkan, F.A. (2001). *Cocuk edebiyati [Children literature]*. Ankara: Ani Yayıncılık.
- Ozbay, M. ve Bahar, M. A. (2012). İleri okur ve ustbilis eğitimi [Advanced reader and the education of metacognitive]. *Uluslararası Türkçe Edebiyat Kültür Eğitim (TEKE) Dergisi*, 1(1).
- Paige, D. (2014). Reading fluency in the middle and secondary grades. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*. 7 (1). 83-96.
- Paige, D.; Lavell, T. M.; Rasinski, T. ve Rupley, W. (2015). Fluency differences by text genre in proficient and struggling secondary students. *Advances in Literary Study*. 3, 102-117.
- Rasinski, T. (2004). Creating fluent readers. *Educational Leadership*, 61(6), 46-51.
- Rasinski, T., Yildirim, K., & Nageldinger, J. (2011). Building fluency through the phrased text lesson. *The Reading Teacher*, 65(4), 252-255.
- Rouis, S.; Limayem, M. ve Sangari, S. Esmail. (2011). "Impact of Facebook Usage on Students' Academic Achievement: Roles of Self-Regulation And Trust." *Education & Psychology I+D+i and Editorial EOS (Spain)*. 9(3), 961-994.
- Sever, S. (2008). *Cocuk ve edebiyat [Children and literature]*. İzmir: TÜDEM.
- Tekin, H. (1996). *Egitimde ölçme ve değerlendirme [Measurement and evaluation in education]*. Ankara: Yargı Yayınevi.
- Tomlinson, C.; Lynch, C. Brown (1996). *Essentials of children's literature*. Boston. Mass: Allyn and Bacon.
- Turkyilmaz, M. (2012). Bilgi iletişim araçlarının okumaya yönelik tutuma etkisi. *Bilgi Dünyası*. 13 (2). 477-493.
- Turkyilmaz, M. (2012a). Gençlik romanlarının okuma becerisine etkisi ve değerler aktarımı bakımından incelenmesi [The effects of juvenile fictions on reading skill and the analysis of these novels in terms of value transmission]. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimler Enstitüsü. Ankara.
- Turkyilmaz, M. (2014). The effect of mass media on attitude toward reading. *Pensee Journal*. V. 76. pp. 295-304.
- Turkyilmaz, M. (2015a). Sosyal medya ve kitle iletişim araçlarının kullanımının ustbilisel okuma stratejilerinin farkındalık düzeyine etkisi [The effect of social media and mass communication on metacognitive reading strategies awareness level]. *Uluslararası Avrasya Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 6(18), 135-149.
- Turkyilmaz, M. (2015b). Facebook bağımlılığı ölçeğinin Türkçeleştirilmesi ve Facebook bağımlılığının okuma becerisine etkisi [The translation of facebook addiction scale into Turkish and impact of facebook addiction to reading ability]. *The Journal of Academic Social Science Studies*. N.36. pp. 265-280.
- Turkyilmaz, M. ve Aydemir, Y. (2014). The study of the validity and reliability of the scale for secondary education students' attitude towards reading. *International Journal of Language Academy*. 2/3. pp. 194-207.
- Uzunkol, E. (2013). Akıcı okuma sürecinde karşılaşılan sorunların tespiti ve giderilmesine yönelik bir durum çalışması [A case study for identifying and overcoming the problems encountered during the fluent reading process]. *Mersin Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 9(1), 70-83.
- Ulper, H.; Yaylı, D. ve Karakaya, İ. (2013). Okur öz yeterlik ölçeğinin geliştirilmesi [Developing the reader self-efficacy scale]. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Kirsehir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*. 14 (1). 85-100.
- Ustten, A. U. (2014). Evaluation of reading fluency and reading errors of 9th grade students with a view to diagnosing the sources of reading difficulties. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 9(10), 277.
- Veryeri Alaca, I. ve Kuntay, Aylin C. (2015). Türkiye'de 0-3 yaş aralığındaki bebek ve çocukların kitapla tanıştırılması [Introducing with book between 0-3 years old baby and children in

The Investigation About Reading Fluency Skill Of Secondary School Students

- Turkey]. *Erken okuryazarlık 0-3 yas arasi cocuk kitaplari [Early literacy 0-3 years old children books]*. (Derleyen Bettina Kummerlin-Meibauer). İstanbul: Koc Universitesi Yayinlari.
- Wynne, E. A. & Ryan K. (1997). *Reclaiming our schools: Teaching character, academics, and discipline*. (2nd Ed.), Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Yildiz, M. (2013). Okuma motivasyonu, akici okuma ve okudugunu anlamanin besinci sinif ogrencilerinin akademik basarilarindaki rolu [The role of the reading motivation, reading fluency and reading comprehension on Turkish 5th graders' academic achievement]. *Turkish Studies*. 8(4). 1461-1478.

An Investigation Of Children's Opinions On Games and Play Areas

Neriman Aral, Figen Gürsoy, Burçin Aysu, Ece Özdoğan Özbal

1. Introduction

Playing is one of children's basic needs and, across the world, games exist everywhere children are. It is a need as significant for a healthy physical, mental, social and emotional development as love, nourishment and sleep (Aral, Gürsoy and Köksal, 2001). Playing is beneficial, constructive and instructive, and necessary for children to learn about themselves and their environments, for healthy development, for discovering their interest and for parents and teachers to get to know the children (Koçyiğit, Tuğluk and Kök, 2007; Pehlivan, 2016). Research on play has revealed that play has a positive impact on language, social, motor and self-care skills as well as cognitive development, that parents consider play to be important in child development, that preschool teachers and administrators agree on the effect of playing games on child development and that play is an effective method that can be utilized in special education (Gökşen, 2014; Kaytez and Durualp, 2014; Boyraz and Serin, 2015; Pehlivan, 2016). Parents and teachers have to make arrangements for children and games in every stage of childhood. Providing a play area and toys, encouraging play and protecting children from harm, as well as, providing guidance and participating in children's games occasionally and, other times, allowing them to play on their own can be counted among these arrangements. In implementing these arrangements, parents and teachers should pay attention to children's opinions about games and play areas to support their development. Furthermore, the interview technique is rarely utilized in research on games and play (Kaytez and Durualp, 2014). Therefore, this study aimed to identify children's opinions on games and play areas.

2. Methods

The study aimed at identifying children's opinions on games and play areas employed the interview technique, a qualitative research method (Şimşek and Yıldırım, 2009). The study was carried out with 50 children selected with convenience sampling who attended preschools and primary schools in Ankara city center. The children whose parents agreed to their children's participation were included in the study until the study sample reached the desired size.

50% of the children participating in the study were female and the remaining 50% were male. The percentage of children from each year (i.e. preschool, first, second, third and fourth) was 20%. 66% of the children had one sibling while the percentages of the first-born, middle-born (or one of the middle-born) and last-born children were 34%, 6% and 40%, respectively. 58% of the mothers and 68% of the fathers were university graduates. 40% and 32% of the mothers were housewives and teachers, respectively, while 40% and 26% of the fathers were civil servants and teachers, respectively.

In the study, the semi-structured "Interview Form for Games and Play Areas" developed by the researchers was used in the determination of children's opinions about games and play areas. During the development of the data collection instrument, a review of literature was carried out and a draft interview form was constructed. The draft form was submitted for review to four field specialists prior to finalization. The form has two sections: The first section comprises questions on the demographic characteristics of the child and the parents while the second section consists of questions on games and play areas. The questions on games encompass the definition of game, what children did in a game, when and which games they played, which games they liked the most and why, whom and which materials/toys they played with, which materials/toys they wanted to play with and what they wanted of the grown-ups about games. The questions on play areas involve where they played, whom and which materials/toys they played with at home, whom they wanted to play with, where they liked to play most, what kind of place they wanted to play in, whom and which materials/toys they played with outdoors/on the street/in the yard, why they wanted to play outdoors/on the street/in the yard,

how they wanted play areas to be, what they wanted in play areas and whom they wanted to play with, what the grown-ups could do to make play areas better and how they would design a play area. In data collection, firstly the necessary permit was obtained from Ankara Provincial Directorate of National Education in the spring semester of the 2016-2017 academic year. The researchers informed the students and the parents of the study objectives and the children who agreed to participate were interviewed with the permission of their parents. The replies were recorded in writing. The study data were organized to be interpreted according to previously specified themes (Şimşek and Yıldırım, 2005). After data collection, the researchers designated each child with a code (i.e. C1, C2, C3...). The children's replies were grouped by similarity before interpretation and a couple of prominent replies were presented verbatim.

3. Results and Discussion

The results of the study aimed at identifying children's opinions on games and play areas are presented and discussed below:

When the children were asked "*What is a game?*" 68% (n=34) characterized play as fun, 4% as playing with a toy and 6% said they did not know, while one (2%) child replied "*Football.*" 20% (n=10) of the children gave different descriptions of play. C12, C22, C26, C34 and C41 described play as "*Running, jumping and laughing,*" "*Games are divided as real and virtual life,*" "*I think it is what children enjoy doing,*" "*Some things children do to use up their energy when they have energy,*" "*To me, it is playing outside with friends.*" In the study conducted by Tuğrul, Aslan, Ertürk and Altınkaynak (2014) with preschoolers, the great majority of the children characterized a game as playing with someone or something, having fun and being happy. In the literature, play is defined as the most effective learning process for children that might or might not be goal-oriented or regulated, that a child participates willingly and joyfully under any circumstance, that is a part of real life, and that is the foundation of physical, cognitive, linguistic, emotional and social development. Children's descriptions mostly focus on the fun aspect of games. 6% of the children expressed a lack of knowledge of games. The fact that children did not know about games even though it is an indispensable endeavor for children is conspicuous.

When the children were asked "*What do children do when they play a game?*" approximately half (40%) said running, 26% said laughing and having fun, 18% said playing with toys, 6% said playing computer games and 2% said it depended on the game. 8% of the children participating in the study mentioned explicit actions where C5 said "*Make toys talk,*" and C8 said "*Sponges are attached to each other.*" It is possible to attribute the emphasis of almost half of the children on running to their need for being active.

When the children were queried as to when children play games, approximately half (42%) replied after completing homework. 24% of the children said during spare time, 14% at play/game time, 4% when teacher gives permission, 2% before going to bed and 6% when bored. Only 8% of the children stated that games could be played at any time. C26 expressed his opinion as "*When children have spare time.*" Brethnach, Danby, Gorman (2017) found that children's play behavior was influenced by their teachers. Tuğrul, Aslan, Ertürk and Altınkaynak (2014) emphasized that preschool teachers considered activities and subject classes as non-play time, did not utilize play as a teaching method or failed to integrate games to the program, and, with the sundering of play from the program, perceived play as an activity to make use of free time. All the children who said games can be played during play time were preschoolers and the majority of children believed games should be played after completing homework or in spare time, after they begin primary education. Parents and families guide the child to attach more importance to academic skills after the child begins primary education, although playing is a method to be utilized in every step of education and a need for both children and adults.

When the children were inquired as to when they played games, more than half (52%) of the children said they played after finishing homework. For instance, C16 replied "*I play after I come home from school and finish my homework.*" The children also reported playing when they came home (10%), during play time (10%), in their spare time (10%), in the morning (2%) and when they went outside

(2%). In addition, 8% of the children said they played when they got bored and 6% said when the teacher gave permission. C7 expressed her opinion as “*When the teacher lets us play.*” 80% of the children participating in the study attended primary school. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that school and homework prevented children from playing and that children’s replies demonstrated their need to have fun and to be active, which requires highlighting the perspective of play and the condition of play areas at schools. Garrett, Forster and Niffin (2016) concluded that children who preferred outdoor play had higher cognitive and literacy scores.

When the children were queried as to which games they played, they reported playing virtual computer or mobile games (48%), house (22%), active group games (14%) and war games (4%). 4% of the children played with Legos while the percentages of those who played with cars, box games, games the teacher made them play and those who skated were equal (2%). Although children emphasized action and fun when asked about what children do when they play a game, they preferred computer games in practice, which demonstrates that their opinions on play and the games they played were in disagreement. Parents might have contributed to this condition by encouraging technological games such as computer and mobile games. Due to the necessity to work or a lack of awareness, parents might believe that, as it is more difficult to control their children outdoors, the children would be safer playing computer or mobile games within their sight.

When the children were requested to tell two of their favorite games, 48% named computer games, while 18% mentioned group games such as musical chairs and off-the-ground, 10% said games like tag that involve running and 8% said playing house. The children also mentioned box games they played with their families (4%), football and basketball (4%), volleyball (2%) and other ball games (2%). In addition, 2% of the children named “*playing doggy or kitty*” where they pretend to be a dog or a cat. The fact that 48% of the children reported computer games as their favorite indicates that these games are an important part of their lives.

When the children were asked why they liked these games, 60% replied “*Because I have fun,*” and 18% said because they ran, while 4% and 2% said they liked these games because they involved balls and water, respectively. 6% of the children expressed reasons pertaining to violence by saying “*Because I kill bad guys,*” (C4) and “*Because it is war,*” (C34). In addition, 2% said they enjoyed these games because they played with their friends. 2% of the children refrained from answering and 2% said they did not know. Çankaya (2014) identified a positive relationship of aggression in children with fighting/war games and games on social websites. The development of correct playing habits must be encouraged as violent play behavior, including in computer games, could impact children’s future development.

When the children were asked who they played with, the great majority (76%) said they played with their friends, while 12% and 6% said they played with their siblings and families, respectively. On the other hand, 6% of the children reported playing on their own. The fact that only very few of the children reported playing with their families is an unfavorable situation. In the study by Çankaya (2014), 16.6% of the primary school students said they played alone at home, while 8.7%, 11.1%, 51.9% and 11.8% reported playing at home with their mothers, fathers, siblings and others, respectively. When the children were queried regarding who they played with at home, they reported playing with their sibling(s) (48%), alone (40%), with friends (2%) and internet friends (2%). Having a sibling provides children with a playmate. On the other hand, the facts that the children did not play with their friends at home and that a significant portion of the children played on their own is noteworthy. Children’s gravitation toward computer games is a significant factor leading to playing alone. It is remarkable that the children did not name their parents among their replies. The study by Erbay and Durmuşoğlu Saltalı (2012) reported that the foremost reason why mothers did not play with their children was exhaustion, which supports our finding.

When they were asked which games they played at home, almost half of the children (48%) reported playing computer games. They also stated playing house (20%), chess and board games (14%), hide-and-seek (6%), ball (4%), football (2%), as well as, playing with cars (4%) and jumping rope (2%). The finding that the children played games such as football or jump rope in the limited home environment indicates their attempt to satisfy their need to be active at home.

An Investigation Of Children's Opinions On Games and Play Areas

When asked “*If you were to play at home, who would you want to play with?*” 76% of the children reported wanting to play with their parents, 8% with their siblings and 2% with their friends and siblings, while 14% did not answer the question. In the study by Tuğrul, Aslan, Ertürk and Altınkaynak (2014), only one child reported that her parents played with her and the majority of the children said that, while they played, their parents were busy with other tasks. Parents are expected to play with their children. Playing with their children will help parents to further get to know them and to develop a stronger communication with them. This finding can be attributed to various causes. The parents might not have played with their own parents in their childhood and they might not know how to play with their children or the significance of playing with children for child development.

When the children were inquired as to what they wanted of the grown-ups while playing games, 12% said they wanted grown-ups to help them to deal with situations that occur during play. On the subject, C1 said “*I want to eat when I get hungry,*” C6 said “*I want them to undo stuck Legos,*” C8 said “*To find my toys when I lose them,*” and C15 said “*I ask for help when my friends break the game.*” The children also wanted new toys (12%), a computer (4%), a mobile phone (2%) and guns (2%) while one child wanted the football field to be fixed. 16% of the children wanted the grown-ups to play with them, about which C11 said “*I want him to play with me,*” and C29 “*I want them to play with me to my heart's content.*” Furthermore, the children wanted the grown-ups to treat them well (4%), to develop new games (2%), to let them play (2%), to show attention (2%) and to send them to football class (2%). 10% of the children participating in the study did not want grown-ups to interrupt their games and 12% wanted grown-ups to let them play independently while 18% reported they did not want anything. The children's desire to not be interrupted during play and to be allowed to play freely, as well as, some children's lack of any wishes, except for helping them to deal with situations that occur during play, might indicate that children perceive grown-ups as an obstacle to playing. Parents, teachers, caregivers and other adults around children should be informed of the need for arrangements such as providing a play area and toys, encouraging play, sometimes guiding the child's games while at other times allowing the child to play alone, and protecting the child from harm

The children were inquired about which materials they used in their games. Approximately half of the children (46%) reported playing with the computer/tablet, while the percentages of the those who replied dolls, ball, house play sets and cars were 20%, 12%, 8% and 4%. In addition, the children said they played with Legos (2%) and rode their bikes (2%) while 6% of the children said they played with more than one toy. The children's answers to the question “*Which toy would you want to play with?*” were computer (36%), doll (28%), Legos (4%), box game/monopoly (4%) and ball (4%). Furthermore, the children said they wanted to play with guns (6%), phones (6%), cars (2%), toy microphones (2%) and fidget spinners (2%). C6 replied “*I want my friends' toys,*” while one child said she did not know and another refrained from answering. All playing materials that promote motor skills, support development, and improve imagination and creative skills can be characterized as toys. Toys are playing equipment that fulfill an educational function by improving children's natural skills. Toys promote the sense of choice and analytical skills and thus give children the opportunity to make decisions on their own and to develop a certain set of skills (Yavuzer, 2011). This role toys play on child development demonstrates the importance of children's toy selection and of providing parental guidance to children regarding toy selection. The fact that a significant majority of children prefer computer games once more highlights the significance of providing guidance not just for toy selection but also for game selection. Akçay and Özcebe (2012) reported that the age of initiation to computer games was down to preschool age and that computer game play times among four-six-year-old children were protracted, and emphasized the possibility of this spell to increase among older age groups.

The children were asked the question “*Where do you play games?*” Approximately half of the children (48%) said they played at home and in the yard/outdoors while the percentages of the children who reported playing at home and school, only in the yard/outdoors and only at home were 8%, 22% and 14%, respectively. In addition, the children reported playing in the car park (4%) and in the classroom

(4%). Some of the children not being able to play outdoors, at home or at school is an unfavorable situation. Children should be provided with the opportunity to play everywhere.

When the children were inquired as to where they liked to play the most, almost all of the participating children (92%) said they wanted to play outdoors. Other answers were home (4%), carpark (2%) and shopping mall playground (2%). Yılmaz (2010) found that 38% of the children participating in the study went to the playground once a week, 37% did not go to the playground, 19% went to the playground more than once a week and 6 children went to the playground every day. Children learn the rules and principles needed to familiarize themselves with the world through directly interacting with objects and natural elements. Outdoor play is full of elements that stimulate the imagination and the innate sense of wonder to promote learning through direct interaction and experience (Cevher Kalburan, 2011).

When the children were asked who they played with outdoors, 88%, 10% and 2% of the children reported playing with their friends, their siblings and playing alone, respectively. This finding indicates the positive influence of providing children with the opportunity to play outside on peer relationships.

When they were queried as to which games they played outdoors, 40% of the students reported playing football and basketball. Other answers were playing hide-and-seek (22%), riding a bike (10%), jumping rope and playing dodge ball (10%), playing house (2%), playing chess (2%) and riding the swing (2%). In addition, one child did not want to reply and two children (4%) reported playing every game. Yılmaz (2010) found similar results and reported children mostly played ball, rode the bike and played games such as tag.

The children were asked “*Why do you want to play outdoors?*” 70% of the children expressed having fun and 4% said they liked playing outside because they could play sports. Other reasons the children expressed were being able to play ball (6%), run (6%), be free (2%), see flowers (2%), as well as, due to “*the beauty of the park*” (2%) and because it provided an opportunity to learn about life (2%). C34’s reply was “*Sitting in front of the computer all the time is no good. I have to be involved in life to learn about life.*” Furthermore, two children (4%) said they did not know. Every child should be given the opportunity to play outdoors. Communal and recreational outdoor areas of apartment complexes are spaces that need to be realized as play areas due to their costlessness, ease of control and close proximity to home. Tabak (2007) found that the majority of the participating children played in their residential gardens for reasons of proximity and safety, while other reasons the children stated were the presence of playmates and the lack of another play area.

When the children were inquired as to how they wanted outdoor play areas to be, the majority expressed a desire for green areas (62%). Other qualities the children wished for concerned size (10%), structures such as towers, football goals and running tracks (6%) and the playground surface (2%). The children also said they wanted play areas to be quiet (4%), outdoors (4%), close to home (2%) and colorful (2%). 4% of the children wanted the toys and equipment to be fixed and 4% replied “*I don’t know.*” Tabak (2007) reported that children wanted greener play areas. In the study by Yılmaz (2010), children mostly preferred fruit trees to be used in play area landscaping, followed by flowers and grass. The objective in designing children’s play areas should be constructing play environments that promote physical and social development, where they can satisfy their basic need of playing both individually and as part of a community, communicate with other children as well as adults, spend their excess energy and gain natural experiences by interacting with nature. In addition, a play area should be of sufficient size and have features that allow children to play both with playground equipment and with natural elements or their friends without playground equipment. Play areas should include seesaws and sand pits for younger children and more complicated structures such as labyrinths and adventure park ours for older children, as well as, materials as water, sand and soil that encourage creativity. Sports equipment should also be present in play areas as children’s interest for sports increase with age (Yılmaz, 2010).

When queried about who they wanted to play with outdoors, the majority of the children expressed a desire to play with friends while 14% and 4% reported wanting to play with siblings and parents, respectively. Our results are similar to those of Yılmaz (2010) that reported 95% of children preferred

to play with their friends while 5% expressed wanting to play alone. While the children want to play with their families at home, when outdoors, they prefer to play with their friends.

The children were asked "What can the grown-ups do to make play areas better?" 34% of the children wanted a football field of artificial turf or grass (34%), a children's park (12%) and to be allowed to play outside (12%). Other demands were a water sled (4%), a volleyball court (4%), new toys (4%), playground surfaces to be fixed (4%), to be allowed to step on the grass (2%), toys to be fixed (2%) and safe play areas (2%). In addition, 2% of the children wanted the grown-ups to play with them while 3% said they asked for adult help when they needed any. Gülay Taşçı (2010) found that half of the parents participating in the study did not allow their children to play outdoors but the other half permitted their children to spend time outside albeit feeling anxious. Akgül Gök (2012) reported primary school students wanted play equipment and natural elements such as plants and animals in the schoolyard while middle school students preferred sports areas, structural elements, activity areas and communal areas such as a canteen or cafeteria. Yılmaz (2010) revealed that children desired sports areas, large grass areas, labyrinths, water play areas, artificial hills and plants, and complained of lack of maintenance and care, overcrowding, excessive noise, lack of safety and insecure playground equipment.

The question "If you were to arrange and design a play area, how would you do it?" was addressed to the children. The children said they would build a football field (36%), more green areas (12%), a swimming pool (10%), a merry-go-round and a climber (10%), a running track (4%), a playground closer to home (2%) and safe play areas (2%). Furthermore, the children said they would clean the play area (4%), fix the playground surface (2%), prevent noise (2%), fix the toys and equipment (2%), allow children to step on the grass (2%) and develop play areas where all games can be played (2%). 4% of the children said they did not know while 6% expressed imaginative ideas: C4 said "I would want to build a palace with slides," while C11 expressed her opinion as "I would build the slides and swings closer. They would look better that way," and C29 as "There would be butterfly and bee designs." An easily accessible and well-organized play area furnished with various materials is critical to promoting children's imagination and creativity (Engelen, Wyver, Perry, Bundy, Chan, Ragen, Baauman, Naughton, 2017). In this respect, outdoor play is essential to child development (Cevher Kalburan, 2011). Therefore, children's ideas and desires should be taken into account in designing and building outdoor play areas.

4. Conclusion And Recommendations

The study results showed that although the children emphasized the fun and active aspects of play and wanted to play outdoors, they preferred to play computer games and said school and homework were an obstacle to playing games, and demonstrated the importance of paying attention to children's wishes in creating play areas.

The following recommendations can be made in view of the study results:

- Planning observational studies on children's play times and play behavior, as well as, play and toy preferences.
- Conducting in-depth studies to investigate parental opinion on games and play areas.
- Training parents and educators on the importance of games.
- Expanding children's play areas and increasing the number of playgrounds that provide a free and safe play environment to children.
- Carrying out studies on school play areas.

5. References

- Akçay, D., & Özcebe, H. (2012). okul öncesi eğitim alan çocukların ve ailelerinin bilgisayar oyunu oynama alışkanlıklarının değerlendirilmesi. *Çocuk Dergisi*, 12(2), 66-71.
- Aral, N., Gürsoy, F., Köksal, A. (2001). *Okul Öncesi Eğitiminde Oyun*. İstanbul: YaPa Yayınları.
- Boyraz, C. ve Serin, G. (2015). İlkokul Düzeyinde Oyun Temelli Fiziksel Etkinlikler Yoluyla Kuvvet ve Hareket Kavramlarının Öğretimi. *Trakya Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 6(1), 89-101

- Breathnach, H., Danby, S., O’Gorman, L. (2017). ‘Are you working or playing?’ Investigating young children’s perspectives of classroom activities. *International Journal of Early Years Education*, 1-16.
- Cevher, Kalburan, N. (2011). Okul öncesi eğitim kurumlarında dış mekanların düzenlenmesi. *Okul Öncesi Eğitimde Özel Öğretim Yöntemleri*. (Ed. Fatma Alisinanoğlu). S:111-143, Ankara: Pegem
- Çankaya, G. (2014). Çocukların Oynadıkları Oyunlara Göre Empati ve Saldırganlık Düzeylerinin İncelenmesi. *İstanbul Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yüksek Lisans Tezi*
- Engelen, L., Wyver, S., Perry, G., Bundy, A., Chan, T. K. Y., Ragen, J., Baauman, A, Naughton, G. (2017). Spying on children during a school playground intervention using a novel method for direct observation of activities during outdoor play. *Journal of Adventure Education and Outdoor Learning*, 1-10.
- Erbay, F., Saltalı, N. D. (2012). Altı yaş çocuklarının günlük yaşantılarında oyunun yeri ve annelerin oyun algısı. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Kırşehir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 13(2),249-264
- Garrett, K., Forster, E., & Niffin, K. (2016). Activity Preferences and Cognitive Development in Children: Effects of Children’s Preference for Active Outdoor Activities Versus Sedentary Indoor Activities on Cognitive and Literacy Scores. http://digitalcommons.hope.edu/curcp_15/228/ Erişim Tarihi: 10.09.2017
- Gökşen, C. (2014). Oyunların Çocukların Gelişimine Katkıları ve Gaziantep Çocuk Oyunları. *Atatürk Üniversitesi Türkiyat Araştırmaları Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 229-259
- Kaytez, N., Durualp, E. (2014). Türkiye’de Okul Öncesinde Oyun İle İlgili Yapılan Lisansüstü Tezlerin İncelenmesi. *Uluslararası Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 2(2),110-122
- Koçyiğit, S., Tuğluk, M. N., & Kök, M. (2007). Çocuğun Gelişim Sürecinde Eğitsel Bir Etkinlik Olarak Oyun. *Atatürk Üniversitesi Kazım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, (16),1-19.
- Pehlivan, H. (2016). The role of play on development and learn in. *Journal of Human Sciences*, 13(2), 3280-3292.
- Yavuzer, H. (2011). Çocuk psikolojisi. İstanbul: Remzi Kitabevi
- Yıldırım, A. ve Şimşek, H.(2009). Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri. Ankara: Seçkin
- Yılmaz, Ş. (2010). Çocuk Oyun Alanlarının İlköğretim Çağındaki Kullanıcılarca Değerlendirilmesi ve Tasarım İlkelerinin Belirlenmesi. *İstanbul Üniversitesi Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yüksek Lisans Tezi*
- Tuğrul, B., Aslan, Ö. M., Ertürk, G., ve Altınkaynak, Ş. Ö. (2014). Anaokuluna devam eden altı yaşındaki çocuklar ile okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin oyun hakkındaki görüşlerinin incelenmesi. *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 15(1), 97-116

An Analysis of Pre-Service Music Teachers' Repertory Acquisitions in Piano Instruction

Deniz Beste Çevik Kiliç

1. Introduction

Piano instruction is a vital part of music education and occupational music education in particular, and it is also a very important dimension of instrument education. Piano instruction is the process of creating changes in individuals' cognitive, affective and dynamic behaviors through the experience of piano instruction. The piano repertory of musical pieces, etudes and exercises plays a very important role in piano instruction in the teaching and improvement of new behaviors, skills and paths in music. In relation to this subject, Apfelstadt (2000) stressed that an accurate choice of repertory would make it possible to teach the technical knowledge and skills that are seen as requirements in individual piano instruction as well as pedagogical and musical competencies and cross-cultural examples of musical pieces.

In teaching repertory, the piano instructors who choose it and direct students have an important function. Hence, piano instructors play an important role in having students gain a fine repertory during their education. Agay (1981) stated that an educator who observed each student carefully should to teach a suitable repertory to each of them. Tufan (2000) emphasized that the repertory that is utilized for piano instruction should include musical pieces from different periods and pieces that are specific to a nation.

These opinions show that piano instructors have a major part in teaching piano instruction repertory to pre-service music teachers. For this reason, it is obvious that pre-service music teachers should be taught a piano repertory that they can use in their future careers. This study will focus on the repertory acquisitions of pre-service music teachers in their piano instruction process.

2. Methodology

This is a descriptive study that examines pre-service teachers' opinions about their acquisitions of repertory in piano instruction and determines their current levels. This method focuses on a specific group and their opinions about a subject and systematically analyzes the meanings that arise from their experiences (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

2. 1. Study Sample

The study sample included six senior students from the Music Teaching Program of the Fine Arts Teaching Department in Balıkesir University's Education Faculty in the 2016-2017 academic year. It was determined using purposeful sampling. In qualitative studies, samples are usually small to make a deep investigation of the participants' ideas. For this reason, these studies use purposeful sampling rather than random sampling (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Convenience sampling, a purposeful sampling method, helps researchers study in a rapid and easy manner. Of the participants, three were female, and three were male.

2. 2. Data Collection Tools

The study data were collected using a semi-structured interview form that included four open-ended questions. The semi-structured interview technique permits changes due to previously unconsidered circumstances that occur during interviews (Özgüven, 2004).

The researcher reviewed the relevant literature while preparing the semi-structured interview form. The interview form was submitted for the opinions of three specialists to ensure its internal validity.

The interview form was created to determine pre-service music teachers' piano repertory acquisitions. The interviews were recorded. The study included questions about the participants'

piano repertory acquisitions considering musical pieces and etudes, the contribution of piano teachers to their repertory and the use of their repertory in their prospective professional lives.

2. 3. Data Analysis

The responses to the interview form were evaluated using content analysis, a common method in the analysis of the qualitative data. The results were obtained after the data were clearly summarized and interpreted using descriptive analysis (Neuman, 2012). Direct quotations were frequently used in the descriptive analysis in order to illustrate the interviewees' opinions and thoughts conspicuously (Wolcott, 1990). Direct quotations also ensure validity.

The real names of the participants were not used in the study in accordance with the principle of confidentiality. Male and female students are indicated by number and gender (e.g., Example 5 [Male], Example 2 [Female]).

3. Findings

Table 1. The pre-service teachers' beliefs about their acquisitions of musical pieces for piano repertory

Pre-service teachers' beliefs	f
We believe.	2
We partially believe.	3
We do not believe.	1
Total	6

As Table 1 shows, three pre-service teachers believed that they partially learned the repertory for musical pieces in piano instruction, while two believed, and one did not believe at all. Here are some examples of the pre-service teachers' opinions:

Example 4 (Male): "My piano teacher always has us study musical pieces from the same period. That is why I don't believe that I have a good repertory of musical pieces."

Example 5 (Male): "My piano teacher has many repertory books on a variety of periods, and includes musical pieces from different periods in the lesson. So, I think that I own a good archive myself and have a good repertory of musical pieces."

Example 2 (Female): "We occasionally study musical pieces from different periods in our piano lessons. However, it is not enough. I can still say that I have partially formed my repertory of musical pieces."

Table 2. The pre-service teachers' beliefs about their acquisitions of etudes for piano repertory

Pre-service teachers' beliefs	f
We believe.	3
We partially believe.	2
We do not believe.	1
Total	6

Table 2 shows that half of the pre-service teachers believed that they learned the repertory for etudes in piano instruction, while two believed this partially, and one did not believe at all. Here are some examples of the pre-service teachers' opinions:

Example 6 (Male): "Before starting musical pieces, we perform etudes and technical exercises with my teacher in every lesson. So, I believe that I have a broad repertory of etudes since we study a large number of musical pieces."

Example 5 (Male): “We study technical etudes in piano lessons, but I know that there are more books on etudes. So, I am aware that I need to improve my technique. In this context, I can say that I have a partially good repertory of etudes.”

Example 1 (Female): “I was not provided with etudes that fit every technique in my piano education. That is why I think I haven’t acquired a repertory of etudes.

Table 3. The pre-service music teachers’ beliefs about the contribution of faculty members to their piano repertory acquisition in their piano education process

Pre-service teachers’ beliefs	f
We believe.	5
We partially believe.	1
We do not believe.	-
Total	6

As Table 3 shows, five pre-service teachers believed that faculty members contributed to their piano repertory acquisition in their piano education process, and one believed this partially. Here are some examples of the pre-service teachers’ opinions:

Example 3 (Female): “My piano teacher has a broad repertory, buying each newly published piano book. My teacher also introduces these books to me and improves my knowledge, which enables me copy some parts of the repertory books. For this reason, I believe that my teacher makes great contribution to my repertory due to this guidance.”

Example 5 (Male): “My teacher always guides me in lessons. This helps me both get informed and learn about musical pieces by composers that I have never heard of before. Therefore, I completely believe in the contribution of the faculty member to my repertory.”

Example 2 (Female): “I try to acquire a repertory mainly based on my own effort and financial possibilities. At this point, my teacher makes a partial contribution to my acquisition of a repertory.”

Table 4. The pre-service music teachers’ beliefs about the usefulness of their piano repertory in their prospective professional careers

Pre-service teachers’ beliefs	f
We believe.	5
We partially believe.	1
We do not believe.	-
Total	6

As Table 4 shows, five pre-service teachers believe that their piano repertory was at a useful level for their future careers, and one believed this partially. Here are some examples of the pre-service teachers’ opinions:

Example 5 (Male): “My teacher helps me learn new musical pieces in every lesson by having me perform sight-reading practice in almost every piano lesson. I will be able to both play and teach my students the musical pieces I have learned based on my belief that my repertory has become broader.”

Example 2 (Female): “I have had little interest in piano lessons from the beginning, so my mastery in piano is quite weak. For this reason, I believe that I will be able to make a partial use of our studies in piano lessons in my future career.”

Example 3 (Female): “My piano teacher has us study especially school songs and anthems in lessons to help us use them in our future professional lives. I believe that the school songs and

anthems I learn at school are going to help my students enjoy music lessons. Even the thought of it makes me very happy now.”

4. Discussion and Conclusion

This study was intended to analyze pre-service music teachers' opinions about their piano repertory acquisition addressed to piano instruction, and describe the current situation. With this purpose, the study obtained the opinions of six senior students in the Music Teaching Department of Fine Arts Teaching Department of Balıkesir University's Necatibey Education Faculty in the 2016-2017 academic year.

Half of the participating pre-service teachers stated that they partially learned the repertory of musical pieces in piano instruction. Two pre-service teachers stated that they acquired this repertory partially. Hence, there was a balance between the pre-service music teachers believing that they acquired the repertory for musical pieces in piano instruction and those believing it only partially.

Half of the participating pre-service teachers believed that they learned the piano repertory of etudes in piano instruction. A majority of the participants said that they performed practices for etudes and technical exercises in lessons before starting musical pieces. Tural (2016) emphasized the importance of piano teachers' including piano techniques in their lessons. The study by Tural (2016) is consistent with this finding. A relevant study also stressed the necessity of including etude practice in lessons (Umuzdaş, 2012). These results are consistent with this finding. In addition, it is remarkable that only one participant did not believe in the sufficiency of the repertory of etudes they learned in piano instruction.

A majority of the pre-service teachers believed that faculty members contributed to their acquisition of piano repertory through their piano education. Camp (1992) stressed that faculty members taught knowledge and skills in accordance with the curriculum content, while they were supposed to teach them with an order of subjects considering students' levels. This finding is consistent with this study.

Most of the participants believed that they would be able to use the repertory they learned in their piano education in their future professional careers. Furthermore, only one student partially believed in the usefulness of their piano repertory in their future careers, which is a noteworthy finding.

5. Recommendations

Based on the study results, the researcher suggests that:

- Seminars should be organized for the faculty members that teach piano. An exchange of information among faculty members should ensure that they focus on innovations in this area of study.
- Pre-service music teachers should be taught musical pieces that will help them strengthen their technical skills learned through their piano education and enrich their repertory.
- Pre-service music teachers should be informed about the need for a repertory that they can use in their prospective professional lives on their own in addition to the repertory they are taught by faculty members.

6. References

- Agay, D. (1981). *Teaching piano*. Vol. I Hazel Ghazarian Skaggs, Yorktown Music Press. Inc.
- Apfelstadt, H. (2000). First things first: Selecting repertoire. *Music Educators Journal*, 87 (1), 19-22.
- Camp, M. W. (1992). *Teaching piano*, Alfred Publishing Co, Insc., California , USA.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sega Publications.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Neuman, W. L. (2012). *Methods for social research: Qualitative and quantitative approaches I-II*. (5th ed.). İstanbul: Yayın Odası.

- Özgüven, İ. E. (2004). *Interview principles and techniques*. Ankara: Pdrem Printing house.
- Tufan, S. (2000). The selection and display of repertory in piano instruction. *Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 13 (1),
- Tural, Z. (2016). *Evaluation of problem occasions of the students with low-motivation in piano training*. Research on Humanities and Social Sciences Communication, Social Sciences, Arts. Peter Lang GmbH Internationaler Verlag der Wissenschaften Frankfurt am Main. Peter Lang Edition. ISBN: 978-3-631675-01-4, pp.345-356.
- Umuzdaş, S. (2012). Music teaching program students' perceptions and expectations related to the cello lesson, *Akademik Bakış Dergisi*, 33, 1-8.
- Wolcott, H. F. (1990). *On seeking-and rejecting-validity in qualitative research*. (Ed.) E. W. Eisner, & A. Peshkin, *Qualitative inquiry in education the continuing debate* (p.121-152), New York: Teachers Collage Press.

Candidate Teachers' Democratic Attitudes and their Democratic Participation Level

Özlem Yeşim Özbek, Pervin Oya Taneri

1. Introduction

Encouraging citizens to participate in democratic processes and responding to many public spheres, including education policy, are key elements of participatory democracy. Formal and informal education is vital for the development of active citizenship, the quality of participation in a democratic society and the development of democratic cultures. Teachers' roles in fostering the learning of democracy through active and participatory approaches are indispensable (Gollob et. al, 2007). Hence, the candidate teachers have a vital role in the adoption of the democratic way of life, both as the youth of the nation and as potential agents of change. Therefore, their political participation needs to be meaningful and effective. There is many researches on the role of young people in the in developing and maintaining of the democratic way of life in a society. As said by the report of United Nations Development Program (UNDP), 20 percent of the world's population consists of young people aged between 15 and 25 years old. Although young people often participate in unofficial political events such as activism or civic participation, they are not officially embodied in national political institutions such as parliaments, and many do not participate in elections. This can adversely affect the quality of democratic governance. The uprising and various occupation movements in Arab countries between 2011 and 2012 showed that it is important to involve young people in official politics (UNDP, 2013).

Teacher activism and political participation can play an important role in the fight for educational justice. Catone (2016) states that schools are decisive institutions for the social justice struggle, and that teachers are unsurprisingly involved in community activism. According to him, there is a relation between public schools and social inequality. Since teachers are deemed as potential change agents, they should be involved in democratic processes in order to try to fight injustice both inside and outside the classroom. Consequently, it is important that young people, especially candidate teachers, do not lose their democratic skepticism during their lifelong learning process (Pavis et al., 2000; Thorne, 1993). Candidate teachers' attitudes towards democracy and democratic behaviors play a decisive role in the adoption and internationalization of the principles of democracy by society. However, while there is much research on the democracy perceptions of and democratic attitudes of prospective teachers in the literature, there has been no substantive piece of research or study exploring the participatory democracy and activism of prospective teachers. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate candidate teachers' democratic attitudes and their democratic participation level. Second purpose of this study is to find out the correlation between attitude towards democracy and democratic participation.

Accordingly, answers to following questions will be sought throughout the study.

- 1- What are the young's *Attitudes Towards Democracy*?
- 2- How consistent are the young's *Attitudes Towards Democracy*?
- 3- What are the young's *Democratic Participation*?
- 4- How consistent are the young's *Democratic Participation*?
- 5- Is there a association between young's *Attitudes Towards Democracy and their Democratic Participation*?
- 6- What are the political views of students about social events?
- 7- How often students think about democracy?
- 8- At what level do students see the democracy in their country?
- 9- What is the level of participation of students in political organizations?

This study will contribute to both identification of the attitudes that the prospective teachers have towards democracy and their democratic participation level and the research about the influence of democracy education programs over changing attitudes. By increasing the awareness of pedagogy of

activism, educators and politicians might be encouraged to address democracy, peace, prosperity, security, tolerance, equality, and human rights issues. Similarly, it is necessary for educators to address civic, human rights, and community problems in order to comprehend the urgent needs of the society for egalitarianism and justice (Catone, 2016).

2. Method

Scales

“Democratic Attitude Scale” which was originally developed by Attitude Research Laboratory and adopted to Turkish by Gözütok (1995) and “Democratic Participation Scale” which was developed by Keçe and Dinç (2015) were used for data collection. The Democratic Attitude Scale has 50 items with an internal consistency point of .87. The scale has 32 positive statements and 18 negative statements. The highest score that can be taken from the scale is 50 and high scores indicate high positive attitudes towards democracy. The democratic participation scale measures both political and social participation. The political participation scale consists of 7 factors (political debates, sharing thoughts and suggestions, election sensitivity, demonstrations and marches, election rallies, monitoring service and policy, propaganda, boycott and actions) and 28 items with an internal consistency point of .906. On the other hand, the social participation scale has 5 factors (giving opinion on social issues, assisting civil society organizations, monitoring social agenda, initiative to solve social problems, taking part in non-governmental organizations) and 22 items with an internal consistency point of .920. The political and social participation scales are based on 5 point Likert scale.

Sample

The sample of the study involves 234 senior undergraduate students—149 female, and 85 male—studying at four year programs and currently attending pedagogic formation within Çankırı Karatekin University during the Spring term of 2016-2017 academic year. Following is the distribution of students according to their faculties: 207 students of Faculty of Letters, 3 students of Faculty of Science, 8 students of Faculty of Business Administration and Economics; 9 students of Faculty of Arts Education, 1 students of Faculty of Health Science, and 3 students of Faculty of Engineering. The age range of participating students is between 21 to 37, and the mean age is 23 for the whole sample. Distribution of students in terms of the place they grew up is as follows: 19.2% in villages, 5.1% in small towns, 24.8 % in counties, 19.2% in cities, and 30.3% in metropolitan cities. A majority of students (58.1%) have mothers with a primary school degree. 14.5%, 11.5%, .4%, 4.7%, and 10.7% of the sample have mothers with a secondary school, high school, college, undergraduate and other degrees respectively. Likewise, the educational backgrounds of students' fathers are as follows: 42.7% primary school, 23.1% secondary school, 22.6% high school, 3.8 % college, 5.1% undergraduate and 2.1% others. A majority of the students have family monthly income between 1405 and 3000 Turkish Lira (TL).

Variable

In accordance with the previous studies conducted on democratic attitude and democratic participation in the literature, following have been determined as the independent variables: political participation level, political view, the frequency of thinking about democracy, perceived democracy level of the country and political participation level of students. The level of participation of students in political organizations was examined with the following questions:

1. Are you a member of a party?
2. Are you a member of an association?
3. Are you a member of more than one association?
4. Although you are not a member of an association, do you participate in its work?
5. Will you become a member of the union after you begin to work?

Statistical Procedures

Descriptive statistics, frequency, and percentage calculations have been carried out for independent variables. Means, standart deviations and Cronbach Alpha is calculated for two scales and subscales. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient has been used for the analysis of data to see if the scores obtained from Scale for Democratic Attitudes and Democratic Participation are correlated.

3. Results

The first four questions of the research were examined through means, standard deviations and reliability coefficient (Table 1). Analysis of the young's *Attitudes Towards Democracy* has revealed that candidate teachers have high attitude scores towards democracy (\bar{X} =36.01, SD=4.94). The young's democratic participation level was found to be average (\bar{X} =124.29, SD=37.29). Teacher candidates' political and social participation scores were below average (\bar{X} =69.37, SD=19.42; \bar{X} =549.1, SD=20,08). Among the subscales, election rallies (\bar{X} =5.41, SD=2.97), propaganda, boycott and actions (\bar{X} =7.26, SD=4.13), sharing thoughts and suggestions (\bar{X} =7.35, SD=3.69) and demonstrations and marches (\bar{X} =7,96, SD=3,76) had the lowest average. The means and standard deviation were follows for the remaining subscales: election sensitivity (\bar{X} =12.82, SD=3.20), monitoring service and policy (\bar{X} =9.58, SD=3.78), giving opinion on social issues (\bar{X} =16,55, SS=7,42), assisting civil society organizations (\bar{X} =8.98, SD=4.43), monitoring social agenda (\bar{X} =13,18, SD=4,67), initiative to solve social problems (\bar{X} =8.19, SD=4.33), taking part in non-governmental organizations (\bar{X} =8.00, Sd=3.86).

The reliability coefficient for democratic attitude scale was moderate with point .67. The reliability index for democratic participation scales and subscales varied from .97 to .75. The lowest reliability index was shown for demonstration and marches.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for democratic attitude and democratic participation.

<i>Scales and Factors</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	α
<i>Democratic Attitude Scale</i>	23	46	36,01	4,94	-,531	.67
<i>Democratic Participation Scale</i>	51	250	124,29	37,29	,696	.97
<i>Political Participation</i>	28	140	69,37	19,42	,717	.93
<i>Political debates</i>	6	30	18,97	6,34	,088	.93
<i>Sharing thoughts and suggestions</i>	4	20	7,35	3,69	1,252	.81
<i>Election sensitivity</i>	3	15	12,82	3,20	-1,519	.95
<i>Demonstrations and marches</i>	4	20	7,96	3,76	1,089	.75
<i>Election rallies</i>	2	15	5,418	2,97	1,333	.82
<i>Monitoring service and policy</i>	3	15	9,58	3,78	-,267	.88
<i>Propaganda, boycott and actions</i>	5	25	7,26	4,13	2,255	.88
<i>Social participation</i>	21	110	54,91	20,08	,493	.96
<i>Giving opinion on social issues</i>	7	35	16,55	7,42	,629	.90
<i>Assisting civil society organizations</i>	3	20	8,98	4,43	,727	.89
<i>Monitoring social agenda</i>	3	20	13,18	4,67	-,492	.89

Candidate Teachers' Democratic Attitudes and their Democratic Participation Level

<i>Initiative to solve social problems</i>	3	20	8,19	4,33	,964	.89
<i>Taking part in civil society organizations</i>	2	15	8,00	3,86	,222	.93

N=234.

Correlations were computed among democratic attitude and political participation scales on data for 234 students. The results suggest that 7 out of 15 correlations were statistically significant (Table 2). There were negative correlation considering democratic attitude and sharing thoughts and suggestions ($r = -.185$, $p = 0.005$), election rallies ($r = -.130$, $p = 0.046$), propaganda, boycott and actions ($r = -.288$, $p = 0.000$). Also, there were positive correlations between the democratic attitude and election sensitivity ($r = .288$, $p = 0.000$), monitoring service and policy ($r = .259$, $p = 0.000$), monitoring social agenda ($r = .356$, $p = 0.000$), taking part in non-governmental organizations ($r = .155$, $p = 0.017$). The correlation of democratic attitude with other variables was not statistically significant. In general, the results suggest that students with high democratic attitude scores tend to sensitive to election, monitor service and policy, monitor social agenda and take part in civil organizations. On the other hand, the result suggests that students with high democratic attitude scores tend to not to share their political thoughts and suggestions, not to participate election rallies, propaganda, boycott and actions.

Table 2. Correlation of democratic attitude and democratic participation.

	<i>Democratic Attitude Scale</i>	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p-value</i>
<i>Democratic Participation Scale</i>	,072	,270
<i>Political Participation Scale</i>	,015	,825
<i>Social Participation Scale</i>	,120	,066
<i>PP1.Political debates</i>	,110	,094
<i>PP2. Sharing thoughts and suggestions</i>	-,185**	,005
<i>PP3. Election sensitivity</i>	,288**	,000
<i>PP4.Demonstrations and marches</i>	-,015	,820
<i>PP5.Election rallies</i>	-,130*	,046
<i>PP6.Monitoring service and policy</i>	,259**	,000
<i>PP7.Propaganda, boycott and actions</i>	-,288**	,000
<i>SP1. Giving opinion on social issues</i>	,055	,402
<i>SP2. Assisting civil society organizations</i>	-,024	,714
<i>SP3. Monitoring social agenda</i>	,356**	,000
<i>SP4.Initiative to solve social problems</i>	-,035	,592
<i>SP5. Taking part in non-governmental organizations</i>	,155*	,017

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

N=234.

For the last four questions of the research frequencies and percentages were calculated (Table 3). The question 'What is your political view?' yielded 4.7% conservative, 34.3% neutral, and 7.3% liberal answers. 2.6% of students replied 'never' and 26.1% of them answered 'always' when asked about the frequency of their thinking about democracy. The question 'Where your country is at the democracy scale?' yielded 28.6% not democratic at all, 21.4% neutral, and 7.7% very democratic answers. 7.5% answered 'Yes' and 92.5% answered 'No' when asked if they were a member of a party. 8.4% answered 'Yes' and 91.6% answered 'No' when asked if they were a member of an association. 4.4% answered 'Yes' and 95.6% answered 'No' when asked if they were a being member of more than one association. Only 17.6% of the sample declared 'they were not a member of an association but they join their work. 48.3 % of the students stated that they would be members of a union after they have a job.

Table 3. Frequencies for demographic variables.

		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
<i>What is your political opinion on social events?</i>	Conservative	11	4,7	4,7	4,7
	2	14	6,0	6,0	10,7
	3	44	18,8	18,9	29,6
	Neutral	80	34,2	34,3	63,9
	5	47	20,1	20,2	84,1
	6	20	8,5	8,6	92,7
	Liberal	17	7,3	7,3	100,0
	Total	233	99,6	100,0	
<i>How often do you think about democracy?</i>	Never	6	2,6	2,6	2,6
	2	8	3,4	3,4	6,0
	3	27	11,5	11,5	17,5
	4	38	16,2	16,2	33,8
	5	47	20,1	20,1	53,8
	6	47	20,1	20,1	73,9
	Always	61	26,1	26,1	100,0
	Total	234	100,0	100,0	
<i>Please tell us where your country is at the democracy scale?</i>	Not democratic	67	28,6	28,6	28,6
	2	19	8,1	8,1	36,8
	3	36	15,4	15,4	52,1
	4	50	21,4	21,4	73,5
	5	28	12,0	12,0	85,5
	6	16	6,8	6,8	92,3
	Very democratic	18	7,7	7,7	100,0
	Total	234	100,0	100,0	
<i>Level of political organization</i>					
<i>I am a member of a party</i>	Yes	17	7,3	7,5	7,5
	No	210	89,7	92,5	100,0
	Total	227	97,0	100,0	
<i>I am a member of an association</i>	Yes	19	8,1	8,4	8,4
	No	208	88,9	91,6	100,0
	Total	227	97,0	100,0	
<i>I am a member of more than one association</i>	Yes	10	4,3	4,4	4,4
	No	217	92,7	95,6	100,0
	Total	227	97,0	100,0	
<i>I am not a member of an association but I join their work</i>	Yes	40	17,1	17,6	17,6
	No	187	79,9	82,4	100,0
	Total	227	97,0	100,0	
<i>I think that when I begin to work I will join a union.</i>	Yes	111	47,4	48,3	48,3
	No	119	50,9	51,7	100,0
	Total	230	98,3	100,0	

4. Discussion and Conclusion

Since teaching is inextricably linked to social justice, activism, and maintaining democratic living styles, investigating the correlation between the candidate teachers' democratic participation level and their democratic attitude will provide new insights to the democracy and education literature.

Candidate Teachers' Democratic Attitudes and their Democratic Participation Level

The results are confusing and dilemmatic. The democratic attitudes of the candidate teachers seemed to be high. Most of the candidate teachers think that their country is not a sufficiently democratic state. That is, many candidate teachers are obviously frustrated with the quality of the ruling party and with democratic practices on one side. On the other side, candidate teachers run away from taking steps to stop this trend. That is, they prefer to avoid using the official ways of the democratic state to rectify their political complaints. Young people are both deprived of certain key capabilities of democratic citizenship, and have not yet found a way to use democracy in their favor.

The political and social participation scores of Turkish student teachers are found to be low. Which is believed to have originated from the extraordinary circumstances of the Turkey and the male and female roles in traditional Turkish family structure. In addition to the democratic participation scale, five questions asked to reveal the level of political participation of the students indicated that the level of political participation of young people is too low. When considering the political participation of youth scholarly discussion often dissembles the role that the family plays in political socialization. We should consider the unique role of the family in determining an individual's personal and social development. However, it is difficult to identify any single reason why candidate teachers appeared resistant to participate in democratic meetings. One possible explanation might be that political lurking in recent times in Turkey may have caused individuals to feel insecure

Whatever the reason, it would appear that political and social participation by candidate teachers is selective. The correlation of democratic attitude with sharing thoughts and suggestions, election rallies, propaganda, boycott and actions was negatively significant and with election sensitivity, monitoring service and policy, monitoring social agenda, taking part in non-governmental organizations was positively significant. This result is not surprising when considering the Turkish community structure. Because, in the traditional Turkish family structure, it is not approved that young people participate in propagandas, marches, share their political ideas with other people. On the other hand, voting in the elections, following the social agenda, taking part in civil society organizations, and following services and policies are endorsed by the traditional community structure. We can say that our sample is usually made up of young people who have a traditional family structure, which can change when the sample is enlarged and large cities are added.

The majority of students are apolitical and do not associate themselves with a political opinion. This is another indication of the low level of political participation of the students. In countries where youth-led protestations have forced authoritarian regimes to power, a considerable disappointment may arise if young people are not involved in the official decision-making process. This can disrupt the democratization process and accelerate the conflict dynamics. If young people actively participate in their own community, they are expected to be active and relevant citizens and voters in the future (UNDP, 2013).

A few of the respondents said they constantly think about democracy. In another word, the candidates do not find their country democratic enough. The worry they may have from the anti-democratic environment may be the greatest factor affecting the political and social participation of young people. In systems where individual freedoms are not secured, the protection and development of different cultural identities is impossible (Kongar, 2017). This situation can be caused by the fact that the country has been ruled by decree about for about a year and many people have been taken out of the business by accusing being a member of terrorist organization.

It was recognized that most of the teacher candidates have low or middle income families. It is necessary to discuss the socio-economic preconditions of democracy, so as to understand these inconsistent behavior patterns of prospective teachers related to democratic participation. In the past, the democratic regime was seen as a feature of high-income and industrialized economies (Diamond, 1992; Lipset, 1960). Subsequent researchers revised the Lipset Law by observing that democracies were established in both rich and poor countries (Bratton & van de Walle, 1997; Bratton, 2006; Collier 1999; Dorenspleet 2005; Huntington, 1991; Przeworski et al., 2000). In the same way, Krishna (2005) argues that there is no difference between the political attitudes of the poor and the attitudes of the rich. In other words, the poor have no less democratic attitudes than those of the rich.

However, analysts admit that the maintenance of the democratic regime is tied to the existence of national wealth and collective economic growth. Democratic constancy in the medium and long term relies on the economic prosperity of the citizens, and democracies can be expected to be delicate in the regions living in poverty. It is a known fact that most of the teachers in Turkey come from the middle- or low- income families. Since teacher candidates do not have economic stability, they may be avoided to join the democratic process at the higher level.

The findings revealed that teacher candidates' political and social participation level are low. They do not participate in election rallies, propaganda, boycotts, actions, demonstrations and marches. Correspondingly, most of them do not share their thoughts and suggestions. Most candidates are contented to vote only in elections. Limiting democratic participation only by voting in elections would prevent the establishment of democratic understanding based on fundamental rights and freedoms.

In advanced democracies, the individual is defined as a citizen who is active and controlling the state (Kongar, 2017). However, in this study, the candidate teachers, abstain from criticizing the government as well as monitoring, social agenda, service and policy, giving opinion on social issues, and assisting civil society organizations. Kongar (2017) states that it is necessary not to distinguish the election processes from the immediate guilds of democracy, and not to leave the individuals without precautions against the power.

Obviously education is not a magical method in solving all social problems and eliminating the complexities in a society. Nevertheless, education is a crucial socialization organization and it might have reflective influence on many people. As it is known, teachers have an important role in shaping students' social identities, self-esteem (Pavis et al 2000; Thorne 1993). In that case, it is necessary to use this potential effect of teachers on the students to teach democratic processes in the classroom.

The first step to be taken on the road to democracy is to make the teachers understand and adopt the concept of constitutional citizenship, unifying cultural identity, human rights and responsibilities. The quality of teacher education can be seen as the key to a democratic transformation in a regular society. The teacher education programs in Turkey mainly focuses on teaching subject-matter knowlegde, instructional methods, and developing pedagogical and classroom management skills. However, the issues related to democracy and democratic culture are not sufficiently addressed. This approach, which encourages teachers to practice an enduring curriculum, to lecture on standardized exams, and to act as technician teachers, to act politically independent of the profession, leads the teachers to think of the profession as a monotonous and externally controlled. Candidates who receive a teacher education that does not teach the meaning and practice of democracy are inevitable to give importance to a citizen education that promotes harmony and loyalty rather than critical thinking and research when they start their profession. Teachers must recognize the value and political dimension of their profession before they begin their career, and then create a democratic environment for the students in their class, so as to contribute to the democratic culture and act as transformative individuals (Aronowitz & Giroux, 1985; Freire, 1993; Apple, 2003; Dworkin, Saha, & Hill, 2003; McLaren & Farahmandpur, 2005; Englund, 2006). Consequently, it is recommended that the teacher education programs courses might provide courses related to democratic participation and sustainability of democratic culture in schools.

The limitations of this work and suggestions for future work are given below. The political and social participation scores of Turkish university students are found to be low and qualitative studies are needed to find out the reason. The result of the research is to represent the universities in Anatolia, but the generalization of the result requires a broader sampling including the universities in the metropolises.

6. References

- Apple, W. M. (2003). *The state and the politics of knowledge*. New York: Routledge.
- Aronowitz, S., & Giroux, H. (1985). Radical education and transformative intellectuals. *Canadian Journal of Social and Political Theory*, 9(3), 48-63.

- Bratton, M. (2006). Poor people and democratic citizenship in Africa. In *Poverty, Participation, and Democracy* (pp. 28-64). Cambridge University Press.
- Bratton, M., & Van de Walle, N. (1997). *Democratic Experiments in Africa*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Catone, K. C. (2016). *The Pedagogy of Teacher Activism: Portraits of Four Teachers for Justice (Education and Struggle)*. New York: Peter Lang.
- Collier, R. B. (1999). *Paths Toward Democracy: The Working Class and Elites in Western Europe and South America*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Diamond, L. (1992). Economic Development Reconsidered. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 35: 450-499.
- Doorenspleet, R. (2005). *Democratic Transitions: Exploring the Structural Sources of the Fourth Wave*. Boulder, Colorado: Lynne Rienner Publishers.
- Dworkin, G. A., Saha, J. L., & Hill, N. A. (2003). Teacher burnout and perceptions of a democratic school environment. *International Education Journal*, 4(2), 108-120.
- Englund, T. (2006). Deliberative communication: a pragmatist proposal. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 38(5), 503-520.
- Freire, P. (1993). *Pedagogy of the city*. New York: Continuum.
- Gollob, R., Huddleston, P., Krapf, P., Salema, M. H., & Spajic-Vrkas, V. (2007). *Tool on Teacher Training for Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education*. Council of Europe.
- Gozutok, D. (1995). *Oğretmenlerin Demokratik Tutumları*, Ankara: Türk Demokrasi Vakfı Yayınları.
- Keçe, M. & Dinç, E. (2015). Demokratik katılım ölçeğinin geliştirilmesi: geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması. *Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*. 35 (1), 177-207.
- Kongar, E. (2017). *Manifesto for Democracy Resist*. Kırmızı Kedi Yayınevi. İstanbul.
- Krishna, A. (2005). Do Poor People Care Less for Democracy? Testing Individual-Level Assumptions with Individual-Level Data." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Political Science Association, September.
- Lipset, S. M. (1960). *Political Man. The Social Bases of Politics*. New York: Doubleday.
- McLaren, P. & Farahmandpur, R. (2005). *Teaching against global capitalism and the new imperialism: A critical pedagogy*. Oxford: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- Pavis, S., Platt, S. Hubbard, G. (2000) *Young People in Rural Scotland: Pathways to Social Inclusion and Exclusion*. London, York Publishing Services, Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Przeworski, A., Cheibub, J. A., Alvarez, M. E. & Limongi, F. (2000). *Democracy and Development: Political Institutions and Material Well-being in the World, 1950-1990*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Thorne B. 1993. *Gender Play: Girls and Boys in School*. New Brunswick NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- United Nations Development Program (UNDP). (2013). *Enhancing Youth Political Participation throughout the Electoral Cycle a Good Practice Guide*. One New York.

Investigation of Teacher Opinions on Crisis Management in Primary and Secondary Schools

Ismail Erol, Ismail Karsantik

1. Introduction

Looking at the definition of the crisis in detail, it is a situation that is not correct and requires radical decisions. They are situations that suddenly break down the normal functioning of a structure and suddenly emerge. It requires the care of the owner and the people who manage the situation. The crisis situation threatens not only the continuity but also the future of the institution in which it emerges. It can destroy the controversy that arises with other institutions and prevent it from becoming productive. It has a very effective potential for the development or differentiation of the institution (Vergiliel, 1996, p.3).

Concept of crisis might be conceptualized as events that have become prominent and which have not been noticed before, affecting the functioning of institutions or structures and their work (Jimenez, 2001 p. 54). The crisis situation is a disproportionality affecting the activities of the organizations and the companies and their continuous work. It is the situation that puts the institution's goals at risk and takes precautions against it, at the same time providing short time while taking the measures, and most importantly when it arises it puts the concerned decision organs into the trouble of deciding and managing the situation (Irvine, 1987, pp. 36-37).

Time is not a friend in case of crisis. Every time it emerges and continues, the crisis continues to hush the institution and to multiply in the institution (Luecke, 2008, pp. 107). This is the beginning of the crisis. When a crisis is detected in the emergence, the crisis situation, just like illness or the treatment of the disease, can easily be eliminated (Keown-McMullan, 1997, p.6). One of the most important elements for resolving the crisis rapidly is the rapid identification of the signs of crisis. Just as early diagnosis is important for a disease, early diagnosis is crucial in cases of crisis. In the event of a crisis, many of the administrators make incorrect decisions in different and unnecessary situations and act without consulting the employees. For this reason, tightening of the control mechanism in the organizations, the operation in the management and an increase in the intermediate levels, solidification in the rules, an increase in the rules of procedure can occur. Very strict supervision can cause problems for self-sustaining and hardworking individuals (Realin, 1999, p.36).

Crisis management is about deciding which ways to implement and enforce in order to be able to identify the most appropriate solution for quality and situation, and to recognize how this process will be managed (Fink, 1980, p.83). The concept of crisis management is the process of making preliminary analysis by recognizing the symptoms in the face of a crisis, and planning the work to be done in order to defeat the crisis by giving the least loss in the crisis period (Pearson, C. M. and Clair, J. A., 1998, p.64). As an example, the hurricane of Katrina, which took place in New Orleans in USA in 2005, is clearly a prefix to this situation. At the end of the storm, many buildings and public institutions became damaged at the same time, education and training activities ceased and became unsustainable. The biggest lesson and note taken by schools for crisis management in the event of a tornado is the need to be prepared for natural disasters and disasters (Lipka, 2005, p.28). One of the first situations that should be implemented is to prepare the plan and operation related to crisis management. There are two basic questions that have to be taken into consideration when creating these plans (Allen and Ashbaker, 2004,139):

- a) Who should be appointed and trained as an intervention team in case of crisis?
- b) Which training model is the most appropriate and can be processed?

According to Allen and Ashbaker (2004, p.139) it is very important to meet the physical and psychological needs of the students at the first stage in the crisis time. Therefore, it should be rigorous when determining the members of the intervention team created according to the prepared plan. After the persons in charge of the crisis management are identified, the task distribution should be made and the tasks should be explained in detail. Different plan and activity charts should be

created for each different crisis situation and the procedures should be certain. As a result, functioning should be resolved without making a clear decision at the time of crisis (Kennedy, 2004). In a crisis situation, many of the administrators and teachers make misleading decisions in different attitudes and act without consulting their colleagues. For this reason, tightening of the control mechanism in the educational institutions, solidification of the rules can occur. Crisis management helps to decide which ways to implement in order to determine the most appropriate solution to the situation, and to realize how these situations will be managed.

In order to effectively manage conflicts in the group during crisis times, administrators need to consider the following points (Tack, 1994, pp. 35-39):

- a) Rather than acting without will, every event should be handled within its own circumstances.
- b) Attention should be given to the group and it should be assumed that the team can work together.
- c) It should be remembered that in times of crisis, words may be more striking than movements.
- d) Once the problem is diagnosed, it should be considered that it cannot be resolved over time.
- e) If the attitude of the team is to be changed, positive support should be applied, not a threat.
- f) The manager team should never forget that it is a job.

The aim of this study is to evaluate the approaches and perceptions of primary and secondary school teachers to crisis situations experienced in their institutions. For this purpose, the following questions were sought for an answer:

- a) What are the perceptions of teachers' level of crisis management?
- b) Is there any difference in teachers' perceptions of crisis management according to their gender?
- c) Is there any difference in crisis management skills according to the years of experience of teachers?
- d) Is there difference in crisis management skills according to the teachers' teaching field?
- e) Is there any difference in the techniques of the crime intervention according to the teachers' ages?

It is thought that the results obtained in the study will contribute to the policy to be developed in crisis management.

2. Method

Qualitative research method was used in the study in which the approaches and perceptions of primary and secondary school teachers who are working in Kocaeli and Tekirdağ provinces towards crisis management were tried to be determined. Phenomenology method was utilized in the study that aimed at evaluating the perceptions of primary and secondary school teachers to the crisis situations experienced in their institutions. Phenomenology is a qualitative research design used to describe how certain phenomena are perceived, understood, sensed, and experienced by a person (Patton, 2002). In the study, data were collected through semi-structured interview, which is patterned as phenomenological and suitable for qualitative research. By this way, it is possible to determine the participants' experiences, attitudes, ideas, intentions and reactions in the interview process (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2011).

The study is composed of 20 primary and secondary school teachers working in the provinces of Kocaeli and Tekirdağ in the academic year of 2015-2016. Since it is impossible to reach all the teachers in the study population, a study group was preferred. Characteristics of the teacher participants are demonstrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Characteristics of Teacher Participants

Field	Age	Years of Experience	Level	Gender	Code
Science and Technology	35	9	Secondary	M	M1

Science and Technology	42	17	Secondary	M	M2
Turkish Language	36	11	Secondary	F	M3
Primary School Teacher	37	10	Primary	M	M4
Primary School Teacher	37	12	Primary	M	M5
Primary School Teacher	42	17	Primary	F	M6
Primary School Teacher	45	20	Primary	M	M7
Primary School Teacher	41	14	Primary	M	M8
Mathematics	40	14	Secondary	F	M9
Turkish Language	42	16	Secondary	M	M10
Primary School Teacher	56	31	Primary	F	M11
Primary School Teacher	55	30	Primary	F	M12
Turkish Language	55	30	Secondary	M	M13
Turkish Language	60	36	Secondary	F	M14
Mathematics	57	30	Secondary	F	M15
Mathematics	50	26	Secondary	M	M16
Primary School Teacher	50	26	Primary	M	M17
Primary School Teacher	53	28	Primary	M	M18
Religious Culture and Moral Education	48	23	Secondary	M	M19
Science and Technology	51	27	Secondary	M	M20

It is planned to make 20 teachers participate in the study by applying maximum variation method. Data were collected with face-to-face interviews through semi-structured interview forms. Semi-structured interview questions were formed by reviewing the literature and taking expert opinions. In order to make the interviews suitable for the purpose of the study, the literature describing the method of interviewing was examined and necessary precautions and measures were taken in order to ensure the most appropriate research conditions by emphasizing the importance of scientific

interview methods. The research interviews lasted 30-45 minutes on average and the data obtained from the teachers were analyzed by content analysis.

The collected data must first be conceptualized and these concepts emerging afterwards should be regularized. Then the themes should be opened up in content analysis (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011, p.45). In the study, an attempt was made to directly quote interview data to ensure internal reliability. In qualitative research, validity and reliability are explained by Guba (1981) as credibility, transferability, consistency and verifiability. In this study, purposeful sampling and detailed description were made for transferability, data were analyzed by two researchers for consistency and expert opinion was obtained for verifiability.

3. Findings

Findings obtained as a result of the research are classified as five (5) main headings. The classification from the interviews is as follows:

- a) Teachers' Crisis Management Perception Levels
- b) Crisis Management and Gender Context of Teachers
- c) Crisis Management Skills By Teachers' Years of Experience
- d) Crisis Management Skills by Teachers' Teaching Fields
- e) Teachers' Age Levels and Crisis Management Context

Teachers' Crisis Management Perception Levels

Teachers (19/20) who participated in the interview expressed the occasional crisis situations in their schools. At the same time, these teachers (15/20) stated that they perceive crisis situations in their schools and accordingly take measures in their classes and schools. While the primary school teachers (6/9) stated that there were student-led crises in their schools, the secondary school teachers (7/11) stated that they experienced management-led crises. Teachers (16/20) who participated in the research expressed the need for in-service training for the development of perception skills of teachers and administrators in crisis management.

"In schools, as in every institution, there are occasional troubles and crises. It is normal for crises to happen in every environment where people are. What is important in educational institutions is to overcome it" (M3).

"We spend time with the school from the school. Now I know what happens with the experience of years. For this reason I am prepared for crisis situations" (M17).

"Generally, the difficulties stem from the students. We cannot keep them in place ... " (M11).

"In schools, managers think that they should improve their managerial skills and keep themselves up to date with crisis situations that happen in schools" (M1).

"Crisis management is not the duty of the employees in school, I think. Crisis management starts with conscious family ... " (M9).

Crisis Management and Gender Context of Teachers

Of the teachers who participated in the interview, 7 were female and 13 were male. The teachers interviewed (14/20) indicated that female primary school teachers were more successful in classroom management and crisis management, while the male teachers (15/20) at secondary school level was more successful in managing students and managing difficulties and overcoming crisis situations. Teachers (17/20) stated that gender is not very important in crisis management skills and intervention techniques in school management.

"In classroom teaching, I can easily say that even though I am not a male, the female teachers know the students and are more successful in solving the problems experienced in class" (M7).

"I think as our age grows, our children are increasingly in direct proportion to their problems. I think that students from male administrators and teachers are attracted more" (M3).

"Management is a talent. I know ladies like that, more successful than most men. Fixed with experience. I am absolutely dependent on crisis management; I depend on experimentation. It is not gender" (M13).

Crisis Management Skills According to Teachers' Years of Experience

Five of the interviewed teachers have 30 years and over, 4 of them have 25 years and over, 2 of them have 20 years and over, 3 of them have 15 years and over, 5 of them have 10 years and over, and 1 of them has under 10 years of experience. The teachers (16/20) stated that experience is important in crisis management, others voiced that education is more important than experience (4/20). The interviewed teachers (16/20) stated that the experiences were important in the school administration and during the crisis intervention times.

"I gave 30 years to this profession. I always say around. If I worked with a carpenter, I figured out which tree was covered when I picked up a wooden plank. Teacher is like that. When I look at a student now, I can see if there is light in him" (M11).

"Experience is always important. The experience of teachers is important to know the time spent at school, to get to know the students closely, to spend time with them, and to identify and take precautions in school" (M20).

Crisis Management Skills by Teachers' Teaching Fields

Of the teachers who participated in the interview, 9 are primary school teachers, 4 are Turkish language teachers, 3 are science and technology teachers, 3 are mathematics teachers, and 1 is a religious culture and moral education teacher. While the teachers (13/20) expressed that primary school teachers were more successful in school management in crisis management (7/20), they pointed out that the teaching field in crisis management was not very important.

"They are the ones who spend more time with the students. A student is studying from 1st to 4th grade. They naturally experience in crisis and classroom management (M19).

"In crisis management, I do not think the branch is very important. The important thing is experience (M10).

Teachers' Age Levels and Crisis Management Context

9 of the interviewed teachers were 50 years old and over, 7 were 40 years old and over, and 4 were 30 years old and over. While some teachers (11/20) stated that age is important in crisis resolution and management skills, others (9/20) stated that experience is more important than age. Most teachers (17/20) emphasized that not only age, but also the education received and the experienced person is important in crisis management.

"Age brings maturity and calmness together. It improves people's perspective on events. For timely intervention, the share of age in mind is great" (M18).

"I am only aged, and I cannot imagine that you will achieve success in the stages of crisis management. Experience is also important" (M13).

"Education, experiences, crisis situations that have been in school before are the real experiences. If a person does not experience these experiences, he cannot succeed in crisis management" (M4).

4. Discussion and Conclusion

According to the results of the study, many of the teachers are predicting crisis situations and taking measures against them. While primary school teachers describe the source of the crisis as students, secondary school teachers say it is based on management. A large number of teachers express the need for in-service training of teachers and administrators for crisis management. Also, in school administrators, teachers who say that gender is not important in crisis management, have stated that classroom management is more effective for female primary school teachers in primary school and male teachers in secondary school.

The greatest responsibility for the management of schools falls on the school principals. Taking this into consideration, it is necessary for school principals to determine the methods to be applied in order to remove the crisis and to reduce the possible damage of the crisis to a minimum level. According to the findings, the most important task for the school principal is to predict the crisis and resolve it. The school principal should make a decisive contribution to the overcoming of the crisis in the school with his constructive behavior and attitude towards school. Similarly, Demirtaş (2000) mentioned the importance of managerial competencies in crisis management in his study. The manager should direct the crisis by resolving it and by evaluating the events in a holistic approach, structurally based on culture, management, and resource use. In addition, for effective crisis management and planning, joint work with internal and external stakeholders should also be undertaken (Ritchie, 2004, p. 680).

Teachers say that experience is important in crisis management and at the same time they are more effective with in-service training experience. The interviewed teachers stated that the experiences are of great importance in school administration and crime intervention techniques.

It can be stated that the positive side of the crises may also be the result of taking the lessons from the crises and the least possible damage from the possible new crises. It can be said that the crises give schools the ability to gain experience and new experience. Similarly, Okumuş (2003) discussed the positive aspects of crises. At the same time, it provides appropriate opportunities for organizations to observe structures, policies, social situations and operations (Boin, 2004).

A large majority of teachers say that the teaching field is not important in crisis management, but again a large majority say primary school teachers are more effective in crisis management. Emphasizing that age is not important, teachers have reported that age-related experience is very important in crisis management.

In crisis management, managers and teachers must have certain abilities. Qualifications required by managers in crisis management can be listed as follows:

- a) Getting the crisis signals.
- b) Preparation and protection of the cruiser.
- c) Be able to make effective decisions in crisis management process.
- d) To be able to use authority in crisis management process.
- e) Planning crisis management process.
- f) To organize the crisis management process.
- g) To be able to communicate in crisis management process.
- h) To be able to provide coordination in crisis management process.
- i) Be able to control the crisis management process.
- j) Be able to provide transition to normal state.
- k) Learning and evaluation in crisis management process.

Besides all of this, perhaps the most important thing to say is knowing how to take lessons. Because only those who know how to take lessons can make healthy plans for the future (Demirtaş, 2000).

5. Suggestions

Based on the results of the research, seminars can be given to the teachers and administrators on the factors that may cause the crisis in the schools. A "crisis management plan" for possible crises can be created. Seminars and courses can be organized for teachers on writing this plan and crisis management. Preliminary studies on the identification and resolution of possible crises can be made in schools. The development of measurement tools of crisis management skills in accordance with the different stages of the education system can make the crisis management process even easier. This should be emphasized on scale development studies. Schools should have the ability to intervene as a planned and trained team against crisis situations as it should be in other teaching activities. It is necessary to ensure that parents, children, young people feel more secure in their school and around the school.

6. References

- Allen, M., & Ashbaker, B. Y. (2004). Strengthening schools. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 39(3), 139-146.
- Boin, A. (2004). Lesson from crisis research. *International Studies Review*, 6(1), 165-194.
- Demirtaş, H. (2000). Kriz yönetimi. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi*, 6(23), 353-373.
- Fink, S. (1980). *Crisis management*. New York: American Management Association.
- Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. *Educational Communication and Technology Journal*, 29, 75-91.
- İrvine, R. B. (1987). What's a crisis, anyway? Retrieved from <https://www.questia.com/magazine/1G1-19746597/what-s-a-crisis-anyway>.
- Jimenez, D. (2001). When you are the headline: A guide to understanding crisis management. *Franchising World*. 33(3), 1-3.
- Kennedy, M. (2004). Preparing for disaster. *American School and University*, 76(11), 135 - 139.
- Keown, C., & McMullan. (1997). Crisis: When does a molehill become a mountain? *Disaster Prevention and Management*, 6(1), 4-10.
- Lipka, S. (2005). After Katrina, colleges nationwide take a fresh look at disaster plans. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 52(8), 28-30.
- Luecke, R. (2008). *Felaketleri önleme becerisi, kriz yönetimi*. Harvard Business Essentials. (Çev: Önder Sarıkaya). İstanbul: Yayıncılık Matbaa.
- Okumuş, F. (2003). İşletmelerde kriz yönetimi ve krizlerin işletmeler üzerine olası etkileri. *Atatürk Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi*, 17(1-2), 203-212.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods*. (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Pearson, C. M., & Clair, J. A. (1998). Reframing crisis management. *The Academy of Management Review*, 23(1), 59-76.
- Realin, J. A. (1999). *Kültürlerin çatışması*. (Çev: K. Tuncay). İstanbul: Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları.
- Ritchie, B. W. (2004). Chaos, crises and disaster: a strategic approach to crisis management in the tourism industry. *Tourism Management*, 25(6), 669-683.
- Tack, P. B. (1994). *Kriz zamanı yönetim*. (Çeviren: Yakut Güneri). İstanbul: İlgi Yayıncılık.
- Vergiliel, M. T. (1996). *Kriz dönemlerinde işletme yönetimi*. Bursa: Ekim Kitapevi.
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2011). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.

Main Factors in History Teaching

Kadir Kasalak

1. Introduction

What is history? How should history be taught? what is the goal, objective and benefit of history? what are the subjects which history is engaged with? Is there any contribution made by history to mankind?, If so, what is it? is history beneficial to people, societies or states? we can increase the number of these sort of questions. Likewise, it is likely to produce a great variety of answers to these questions.

Today's human being leads his life in the light of his past experiences and make his future arrangements based on this background. (Taşkıran, Kasalak, 1998). Namely, "the past, the present and the future are deeply intertwined with each other." (Carr,1980). Therefore history science arises an determining factor in the shaping of public awareness.

The question of How the contribution of history to persons, societies, states and human being should be brought to light is closely related to history teaching. While teaching history, what are the main factors? And how should these factors be applied? this is the most important question with which we are faced.

It is not wrong to classify the key factors in history teaching as follows;

- a. History teaching should be done according to philosophy of history, that is to say, "history thinking skills" (Demircioğlu,2009).
- b. History should be taught depending on age groups targeted.
- c. History teaching should be done in the form of "learning by experience or scenerio building"
- d. History teaching should be "in collaboration with auxiliary sciences by choosing right materials, data and documents."

What history fundementally studies is human. The basic characteristic making the human stand out from other living beings is the ability to think independently of objects, in other words, the ability to abstract or design abstract things in his mind. "The human do all these things by means of a tool called mind. This tool provides him with an opportunity of generating ideas almost unconsciously and sharing them with other people. Thus he gets the cultural heritage passed on to him and passes down it to the next generations." (Aşılıoğlu,2011).

The utmost feature of human is the ability to think. In other words, it is abstract thought. The foundation of all sciences and the developments taking place in sciences are idea and thought. It is not expected that science with no thought trait is able to flourish and make a breakthrough. Any science not being based on scientific thought can't go beyond being get stuck in rumour, literalism and imitation.

Similarly, it can't be possible to set forth a new idea or thought in social sciences without thinking. So every science should have its own thinking system in order to create an innovation, invention or synthesis in natural and social sciences. We define it as a "philosophy of science". That is to say, "every scientific practice should be carried out within a thinking and philosophical system and in the direction of their own resources and methods", says Mustafa Öztürk. (Öztürk, 1999).

Curriculums and teaching methods should be based on a philosophical view. Curriculum should be prepared in the pursuit of getting an answer for questions of what, why, when, who and how much". Curriculum is built on our country's basic philosophical core, psychichological, social, individual, economic, historical and cultural values. Current affairs are combined with our country's specific main values and qualities with regard to scientific knowledge, content, learning and teaching. (Aşılıoğlu, 2011).

It is no doubt that history teaching done in line with above-mentioned 4 main factors. These factors play very significant role in primary targets that a country craves to achieve.

2. Method

History teaching is one of the contested questions. There are various views about this subject. We will determine the main factors in history teaching and how proper history teaching should be done by shortly considering the views about history and taking account of these views as for how history should be taught. In this paper, the subject of what the main factors in history teaching are and what kind of conclusions we can come to will be discussed bearing in mind these factors

3. Finding

In order to explain the main factors in history teaching, firstly we had better give the definition of "History". There are a lot of views about what history is. According to Nietzsche, "the life no longer finds its nutrients in history. history is like cutting off the wings of the action. It is the ferment of the life." (Niyazi, 2012). With respect to Paul Valery's views about history, Mehmet Niyazi states as "history is the most dangerous product of the chemistry of perception. Its traits are known very well. History makes people dream and feel intoxicated, leaves false memories on them, make their reflex exaggerated, make their old scars felt again, cause them to be worried even when resting, force them into intemperance of their forefathers or brutality, turns the nations into sad, arrogant, unbearable and meaningless bulks (Niyazi, 2012). Hegel's description; "history is the event which took place in the past and it is the account of these events. (Niyazi, 2012,). Zeki Velidi Togan says that people quickly look back on the past events as far as history is concerned. (Togan,1985).

Edward H. Carr, regarded as a guide by many historians, answers the question of What history is as follows: it is the mutual continuous interaction process between historian and the phenomena and it is an everlasting dialogue between the present and the past (Özbaran, 2005).

Özbaran says that as is known, history (Historie, History, Historia) has two meanings. The first one is the idea of the past which we think already materialized but hasn't been unearthed yet or hasn't been moulded by historians, experts and interpreters. The another one is the image of the past that people interested in the past make an effort to set up and shape by using a method based on the evidences and documents (Özbaran, 2005).

Speaking of the meaning and equivalent of history word in ancient times, Doğan Özlem points out that one of the two meanings of history is used in a way to cover natural history, the other one was firstly used by Herodotus in the meaning of recording the events which mankind and societies experience in the course of time. (Özlem, 2012)

having comprehensively explained the history definition in various languages, Öztürk says that regarding lexical meaning of the word, the term of history rooted in Sami language was derivated from VRH in Hebrew language. It has the meaning of recounting, narrating and telling. It was transferred to all oriental languages like Arabic and Turkish from this source and today it is used in all languages by the same meaning.

The word of history initially was derived from "Ístoria" in Greek Language and it was pronounced in different ways in various western languages such as *Histoire* in French, *History* in English, *Ístoria* in Italian, *Ístorii* in Russian. In western languages the word of "History" finds its expression with its arabic meaning. Moreover there are views that this word is closely related to Oriental-rooted "Sitare/Esatir." (Öztürk, 1999).

It is a reality that the development of the meaning and concept of history has been paralleled with the progress of mankind. when the idea that history should be engaged in every aspects of the life and give information about everything gaining ground, Herodotus was accepted as "the father of history." The conception of Narrating or Literalism history dating back to ancient times has made gradually its way through didactical or pragmatist historiography. The state of being regarded as a science was able to materialized in the second half of 19th century. Mankind's curiosity about history, in other words, about the past has made way to the development of philosophy of history. In the context of defining philosophy of history including the the definition and the extent of history, Öztürk puts as follows: "So it means that history is not made up of only wars and political events. Everything about mankind is the subject for history. History is engaged in every aspects of the life such as state, economic- related developments, culture, art, law, education, language, religion, etc.

Namely, *history is a range of progress of the civilization. History's both material and target is human.* Given the fact that human is the material, History is naturally engaged in everything concerning human. Even in the future, everything concerning human will become subject for history. Then, history is not only made up of political events in the past but also everything pertaining to mankind (politics, economy, society, culture, law, art, education, etc.). In a word, history is the total of above mentioned disciplines, the past, all the efforts and works produced by mankind. (Öztürk, 1999, s.4).

There is no doubt that so important science should expectedly have a philosophy, reasoning and a method. Philosophy of history is to search the general rules determining the change and progress of communities or puts forward relative views about this evolution and fate of mankind. In the narrow sense, it is the ultimate expression of formation of mankind and the account of what mankind has been through in a systematic way and in harmony." (Öztürk, 1999).

Philosophy of history differs from history studying about the past in terms of searching for the reasons of the events taking place in the past. The meaning and objective of history is the philosophy of history. In the contrary case, it would seem impossible to make the most of history. Because we wouldn't know how to take advantage from history without having a good command of philosophy of history. It is not likely to break new ground or produce a synthesis in history without the philosophy of history. Otherwise history wouldn't be freed of traditional and narrative historiography, literalism and futile rote-learning. Mankind would continue to fall into past errors. Only publishing documents is not enough If you don't carry out any search for reasons of the events. Everything (publishing document, monography works, etc.) intended for history, of course, is very valuable. In as much as philosophy of history is based on historical knowledge. It should be bore in mind the fact that it is impossible to philosophise history with no document and data at disposal.

Philosophy of history has two aspects:

- a. Philosophy of history knowledge (methodology),
- b. Philosophy of the past

Philosophy of history knowledge (methodology) is mostly regarded as philosophy of history. The main aspect of philosophy of history which is particular concern to us is philosophy of the past. This is the aspect from which we have to make a deduction and take lesson. What particularly concerns us is the past from which we can derive general rules and propose relative laws. (Öztürk, 1999).

Criticising the history teaching and the history researches lacking of philosophy of history, Özbaran expresses his view. "I didn't know how far the history world could cover and the extent of philosophy of history. I used to take for granted the subject which I was doing search and the events which I derived from resources without making sure whether they were true or not. Since I didn't know the fact that I didn't have the capacity to make connection between the truth, the possibility and the speculation or between these and the ones not being explicitly noted on the documents or I wasn't able to discover. (Özbaran, 2005).

Mehmet Niyazi gives an example about what kind of perception the lack of philosophy of history has left upon the society: the ones being deprived of the history thinking are unable to get to the root of the reasons. They can't think long and hard. The rise of an ignorant, avid and brutal dictator in Germany is shown as the cause of the Second World War. If we accept the quote said by Oscar Wilde: "Any fool make history but a genius is required to write it." They fail to think why such a monster-spirited person was elected by 80 million highbrow nation. (Niyazi, 2012).

Concerning how a person learning history or a historian can do these in the course of making inferences about the future, Öztürk puts it as; having established the common rules of history and civilisation, What are our predictions about future? What kind of future is awaiting us depending on these main subjects? What changes in the social, economic and political filed of society and State life are expected? In fact, historian cant make prediction about events which hasnt taken place yet. But historian can, of course, offer some relative predictions about future. Anyway offering relative predictions about future is the second aspect of philosophy of history. At the fist stage, philosophy of history establishes the general rules of the events having already taken place in the past. At the second stage, it puts forth balanced predictions.

Main Factors in History Teaching

It is well known that there are a lot of conflicting, in other words, contradicting views with regard to objectives of history teaching. But Demircioğlu describes the objectives of history as;

1. History knowledge for transfer of culture and social values. To put it another way, we can define it as social duties.
2. History teaching for understanding the past and the present
3. ... history teaching for the identity development
4. History teaching for making the students gain experience and the ability of scientific thought
5. History teaching for the basic concepts related to history.
6. History teaching for making the students benefit from free times and language skills

Defining philosophy of history in a sense as “the ability of historical thinking”, Demircioğlu points out that the ability of historical thinking is amongst the contributions to be made to history students by the present day history teaching. This contribution consists of several logical thinking skills derived from history teaching. In other saying, this contribution refers to historical thinking, historical reasoning and dialectics. Historical reasoning and dialectics, while learning the past, is to reason out the connection between the events taken place in the past and distinguish it and understand the methods adopted by historian and how to produce knowledge subject to these methods while evaluating the historical events, (Demircioğlu, 2009).

As expressed by many researchers, it is obvious that history teaching not reinforced by the philosophy of history particularly in higher education would by no means be a sort of teaching which wanders off its target and offers no help to the communities.

The second main factor in history teaching is to determine how history teaching should be implemented depending on different age groups. There is a controversial subject in history teaching: which method should the target group be taught with? It can be said that there is a shared view which it has to be considered in terms of *Bloom's learning steps* commonly accepted by many pedagogs. These steps are shortly as follows:

1. **Knowledge:** a behaviour at the level of knowledge consisting of rote learning, phenomena, principles and terms are required to be recalled.
2. **Comprehension:** at the level of understanding, the student is asked to present in a new form and order what was already learnt.
3. **Practice:** behaviours at the level of practice are related to previously learnt institutional expressions and generalisations (phenomena, concepts, principles, committees, institutions, etc.) being used in new occasions. In other words, the student entirely transforms, proves, discovers, reveals, uses, exercise, manage, characterise, prepares, solves etc.
4. **Analysis:** it is vital that a mechanism should be broken down into small pieces to understand better how a system or mechanism work. Students' behaviours at this level are these: a problem can designate the relationship between “whole” or “the system” and include behaviours such as recognising the theory, principle or generalisation within the system.
5. **Synthesis:** at the level of synthesis, what is mostly required is the ability to put the all pieces together to constitute a whole.
6. **Evaluation:** Evaluation involves behaviours such as making judgement about the value of certain works, methods, solution, output by benefiting from some specific criteria, arguing for or against particular view or proposal. Namely, evaluation is the work of reaching a conclusion, having analyzed measuring results by sticking to predetermined criteria. (Aşılıoğlu, 2011).

Teaching steps, in general terms, comprise the education activities in the primary, secondary, highschool and university in Turkey. Higher Education institutions intended for graduating history teachers and researchers are also included. It is not wrong to classify the age group in a generally accepted way as knowledge level between 0 and 10; comprehension between 10 and 18(the practice can be done at the level of High school, particularly over the age group of 16-18). The ability of practice, analysis, synthesis and evaluation should be developed over the age of 18. In this paper, the age group of 18 and above are accepted as the target group.

Teaching of the abstract concepts (morals, democracy, time, patriotism, the power of faith, etc.) to a group of student ranging from 8 to 10 is quite hard work. In addition to this, there is no

doubt that teaching a university student, aged 20, the subjects not suiting to his knowledge level causes them not only lose their interest but also lead to the study for the exam just one day before the exam date and rote learning. In conclusion, failure and not achieving the objectives become normal.

The third main factor in history teaching is “the learning by doing” and “scenerio method” when taking into consideration particular present day opportunities. Today communications, transportation, printed and visual media, and the improving of the access opportunities to these devices require these methods to be implemented. Traveling around a region having very important feature in history and experiencing and living the spirit of the region on the spot, historical excursions organised to the areas abounding in historical artefacts, particularly adopting the method of learning by doing in Turkey, regarded as an open air museum, is very effective and useful. Thus students, on the one hand, learn the main components of history such as time, setting, cause and effect relationship they, on the other hand, can get an awareness of protecting the historical site. This helps the community gain history awareness and acquire a sense of the continuity of culture passed on from one generation to another. (Alkış, Oğuzoğlu, 2005).

Learning by doing is also instrumental in raising the national consciousness, the historical awareness and the awareness of protecting the historical artifacts. Besides, with the effect of the awareness of preserving historical artifacts stemming from the historical awareness, it makes huge contributions to tourism in the field of politics, economy, culture, art. Furthermore, the historical awareness which helps the city culture flourish and make the cultural values become available can stop the appalling results like the collapse of historical sites or being left to its fate caused by negligence and the state of not meticulously being persevered. (S. Alkış, Y. Oğuzoğlu, 2005).

The abundance of the historical sites and preserving them properly offer both concrete historical evidence and the indication of a fascinating civilization. One of the quotes pointing how important it is for a city to preserve the historical remnants belongs to Graeme Shankland. He remarks that a city with no old buildings looks like a person lacking of memoirs. (S. Alkış & Y. Oğuzoğlu, 2005). Therefore, notably European Countries, many developed countries across the world adopt the method of learning by doing.

Another practice used in history teaching maintained through the method of learning by doing is the use of “the scenerio method” supplemented by the technological devices in the classroom environment, which is more economical. The scenerio to be produced can be staged with the help of map, video, audio effects in classroom. There are many applied examples in the United States and England. At this point I'd like to talk about my memory. A video which I watched in “Academic Teacher Course held in İzmir at Technical Aviation Schools Command in 1987 is a good example of this. (In this video, A history teacher in The United States verbally gives senior students a lecture about how Hitler could bewitch the Germans. The students hardly believe it and think it is unrealistic and nonsense. In fact, they are unable to internalize the psychological aspect of the incident. Thereupon, the teacher creates a scenerio and does the casting. During 3 weeks they do rehearsals like a real theatre play. The result is perfect. The psychology of German community is conveyed to the students by the means of the method of “learning by scenerio” (Kasalak, 1987). Additionally, the applied course of replacing tap gasket performed by my friend Zekai Sönmez was fairly successful.

The fourth main factor in history teaching: the subject of interdisciplinary-carried study by choosing correct materials, data and documents. Legends, epics, anecdotes, war telling and historical novels, modern -styled history sources are brought to notice to be used as a tool in history teaching and researches. (Şimşek, 2006). A joint teaching to be done by historians and Literatures make students become successful both in history teaching and literature lesson. Students can have historical awareness more easily. The fact that they love history and get the cultural messages with no difficulty becomes very influential in creating a democratic citizen and indoctrinating moral values into them. (Şirin, 2000).

The use of proper materials in history teaching can no longer be underestimated. It has very vital role in history teaching. There are various teaching tools such as access to internet, projector, history and geography maps, comic strips, old moneys, miniatures, etchings, past magazines, history

lines, pictures, movies, videos and documentaries, etc. The use of these materials in history teaching anymore becomes imperative. But traditional history teaching method is still used in technologically and economically under-developed countries. (Demircioğlu, 2014). Geography is another very significant field for history teaching. Since it is impossible to think of history with no geography. Philosophy of history requires this. To Mustafa Öztürk, one of the rules of history, maybe the most important one, is geography. (Öztürk, 1999). Geography is, of course, not composed of only maps. Beside that, we have to know that geographical features, latitudes, longitudes, lakes, rivers, mountains, hills, are closely related with the inhabited area's human character, economy, culture, politics, war, agreement, the process of designating the country borders, that is to say, human life. We have to know this fact and make use of it in history teaching. What we are trying to highlight is that history teaching should be done in an interdisciplinary way and under the supervision of the experts.

History teaching should be accompanied by literature, geography, sociology, art history, economics, public administration, law and other science fields. Unfortunately, we are very sorry to say that unlike other developed countries many countries, notably Turkey, are unable to develop this teaching approach and embed it in curriculum. Ultimately Turkey is faced with the reality that "just as immature hodja alienates person from the faith, so inexperienced doctor deprives a person of his life".

4. Conclusion and Suggestions

It is well known that history's material and objective is human. So human-related everything is the subject for history. Therefore, history comprises not only past political events but also all activities bound up with human life such as society, economy, culture, education, science, law, army, positive sciences. The necessity of a philosophy and a method is deeply felt to study and learn the activities in this field.

History is a science like other positive sciences. There are evidences, observations, but practice. This science has its own philosophy and rules, too. The studies, researches and teachings carried out in line with history's basic fundamentals and rules will ultimately yield a product or a project. For this reason, as regards to history teaching we put philosophy of history first in the list of main factors. It is obvious that the philosophy of history is the main factor in determining the objectives, methods in teaching. Considering that history is closely interested in everything in human life from birth to death, what kind of methods and techniques various age groups should be applied to is one of very vital topics. Mental development and change which human undergoes from birth to death vary greatly depending on different age groups. One of the very indispensable factors in determining the quality of teaching is the student's age. Teaching not taking account of the student's age is like beating the air. This kind of teaching also leads to the raising of persons with mental disorders, psychopaths and problem persons, let alone transform students into citizens useful to society.

History teaching has the aim of creating persons with the ability to learn how the civilizations, values and cultures have emerged and flourished, enhance his moral development, get to know his community and other communities, gain the qualities of becoming a good citizen, blend his all above-mentioned developments in national identity, have sense of tolerance to others, analyze present and past events right, internalize the development of democracy and adopt democratical behavior on basic rights and liberties, absorb cause and effect relationship, the concept of time and setting in history, thereby developing empathy, have enhanced literacy, use his language properly, keep tabs on the developments at home and abroad, analyze the present day social, political, economic right, cling to scientific thought, make himself acquainted with the fact that history is not assumption, be able to make connection the past and the present, make an inference from the past lessons. All these goals can be attained as long as history's main factors are secured properly.

What is the most important thing in history teaching is to do with using these 4 factors on whole in a way of "modern medicine" or "system approach" like a human body. We get to same conclusion when replacing the word of "write" by "teach" in the quote by Mustafa Kemal Atatürk :

“Writing history is as significant as making history. If the writer is disloyal to the maker, the invariable truth gains a qualification that will astonish human beings”.

5.References

- Aşılıoğlu, B. (2011). *Eğitim İle İlgili Temel Kavramlar*,(Editör: Mehmet A. , Öğretim İlke ve Yöntemleri),4. Baskı, Bahar 2006, Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık: 1-20, 27-41, 61-71.
- Carr, E.H. (1980). *Tarih Nedir*, Çev.: M.G.Güntürk, İstanbul: Birikim Yayınları.
- Demircioğlu, İ. H. (2010). *Tarih Öğretiminin Amaçları*. (Editör: Mustafa Safran, Tarih Nasıl Öğretilir?). İstanbul: Yeni İnsan Yayınevi.
- İsmail H. Demircioğlu ve İbrahim Turan, (editörler), (2014). *Tarih Öğretiminde Öğretim Teknolojileri ve Materyal Tasarımı*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayınları: 1-12.
- Kasalak, K. (1987). *Akademik Öğretmen Kursunda, Uygulamalı Öğretim Dersinden Bir Anı*.
- Niyazi, M. (2012). *Türk Tarih Felsefesi*, İstanbul: Ötüken Neşriyat.
- Özbaran, S. (2005). *Tarih, Tarihçi Ve Toplum*, İstanbul: Tarih Vakfı Yurt Yayınları.
- Özlem,D. (2012). *Tarih Felsefesi*, İstanbul: Notos Kitap Yayınevi.
- Öztürk, M. (1999). *Tarih Felsefesi*, Ankara: Başbakanlık Basım Evi.
- Seçil A, Oğuzoğlu Y. (2005). Ülkemiz Koşullarında Tarihi Çevre Eğitiminin Önemi ve Gerekliliğini Arttıran Etkenler. *Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi XVIII (2): 347-361*.
- Şimşek, A. (2006). Tarihsel Romanın Eğitimsel İşlevi. *Bilgi*, (37): 65-80.
- Şirin, İ. (2000). Kollektif Kimlik İnşaa Aracı Olarak Tarihi Roman. *Türk Yurdu*, (153-154): 170-179.
- Taşkıran C.,Kasalak K. (1998). Tarihi Gerçekler ve Uluslararası İlişkiler, *Askeri Tarih Bülteni* Gnkur. ATASE Başkanlığı Yayınları :23(45), 113-118.
- Togan, Z., V. (1985). *Tarihte Usul*, İstanbul: Enderun Yayınları.

Noise Pollution in School and Evaluation of its Control Through Educational Practices*

Nermin Bulunuz, Mızrap Bulunuz

1. Introduction

When the quality of education and teaching at schools is mentioned, what comes to mind first are the physical and technical infrastructure of schools, classroom sizes, quality of teachers, syllabi, and textbooks. Surely, each of these factors is very important. Another factor, equally important but much less frequently noted, is the suitability of the school climate. School climate is defined as the set of elements influencing teachers' and students' attitudes and behaviors (Ari, Tunçer & Demir, 2016; Çelik, 2002). It is school administrators and teachers that play the most important role in creating the school climate. School administrators can improve students' and teachers' motivation, and enhance the productivity of education and teaching by leading the creation of a healthier school climate. A healthy school climate offers a learning environment that supports students' academic, psychological, and behavioral development. In other words, a healthy school climate is a must idiomatic for students' academic achievement, psychological health, and positive behavior acquisition (Çelik, 2000; Erwin, Fedewa & Ahn, 2013). According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (1996), as physical environment provides a frame for learning, it can both improve and prevent learning.

Noise is one of the main factors having a negative effect on school climate and learning environment (Akman, Ketenoglu, Evren, Kurt & Düzenli, 2000). Noise refers to sound waves with high energy. Its intensity is measured by decibel meter. Noise pollution is defined as various sounds in the physical space that prevent hearing sounds that are intended to be heard, annoy, distract attention, and negatively affect physiological and psychological health (Arı & Saban, 1999; Polat & Buluş-Kırıkkaya, 2004; Schlittmeier, Hellbrück & Klatte, 2008). High noise pollution at school affects the behaviors of students and teachers and spoils the classroom climate. According to Şentürk and Sağnak (2012), the school climate is highly related to the attitudes and behaviors of students and teachers at school because students and teachers develop their attitudes and behaviors in accordance with the climate of their school. Therefore, creation of a quiet, peaceful, calm, and noiseless school climate from preschool to university stands as one of the most important factors determining the quality of education and teaching provided there. According to Varış (1998), a school must have a physical structure that offers an effective communication environment in order to accomplish its goals. Noise is not welcomed schools, as it prevents auditory perception by covering sounds (Bilal, 2009). Güney (1998) defines noisy behaviors as signs of disrespect and lack of manners.

Research conducted in primary and secondary schools in Turkey shows that noise pollution at schools is much higher than the level determined by the Ministry of Environment and Urbanization (Bilal, 2009; Bulunuz, 2014; Çelik, 2002; Özbiçakçı, Çapık, Aydoğdu, Ersin & Kıssal, 2012; Polat & Buluş-Kırıkkaya, 2007; Şentürk & Sağnak 2012; Tamer, Küçükçifçi & Şan, 2011; Tüzel, 2013; Varış, 1998). According to Regulation on Assessment and Management of Environmental Noise in Turkey (RAMEN) European Union Harmonization Laws, the indoor noise upper limit for classrooms is 35dB with windows closed and 45dB with windows open; it is 40dB for theater halls; and it is 55dB in dining halls (RAMEN, 2008). However, measurements carried out at schools in Turkey indicate that noise levels are much higher than the above-mentioned limits (Bulunuz, 2014; Tamer-Bayazıt et al., 2011).

*This research has been produced from the project 114K738 supported by TÜBİTAK, Noise Pollution at School: Causes, Effects and Control. The contest was held in Odessa, Ukraine. The paper presented at the XIV International Association of Social Science Research Conference 23-26 August 2017 Odessa-Ukraine.

For example, Tamer et al. (2011) conducted a study on primary school students and found the level of noise experienced at break times in 84% of the schools to be 76-89 dB. In their research on primary school students, Özbıçakçı et al. (2012) found that the measured noise levels are so high that they can lead to temporary hearing loss among students. Students are exposed to very high noise levels at break times, which disable the goal of giving the students a rest. In another study, in-class noise level was found to be 70.8-72.5 dB in primary and secondary schools (Polat & Buluş-Kırıkkaya, 2004).

Güney (1998) categorizes the sources of noise into two groups: “inevitable noises” and “preventable noises stemming from human behaviors”. While noises deriving from construction work and noises deriving from road, airway, and seaway traffic can be considered inevitable noises, the acts of people that do not respect one another in the environments they live in can be considered to be preventable noises stemming from human behaviors. Some examples of preventable noises are speaking loudly in indoor or outdoor environments, shouting, running, listening to loud music, singing loudly, and screaming. As educational level, consciousness, and knowledge level increase, noises stemming from human behaviors decrease (Güney, 1998). The effects of noise on human health fall into four categories: physical effects, physiological effects, psychological effects, and performance effects (Yücel & Altunkasa, 1999). The main physical problem is hearing loss and tinnitus, which emerges as ciliated cells in the inner ear are damaged as a result of exposure to intense noise. In physiological terms, noise increases blood pressure, causes circulatory abnormalities, speeds up breathing, and leads to sudden reflexes. Among its psychological effects are unhappiness, nervous breakdown, depression, behavioral disorder, anger, boredom, and loss of attention. For example, students have difficulty in concentrating and learning in excessively noisy classrooms (Güney, 1998). Lastly, noise reduces performance or productivity at work by causing tiredness, weariness, loss of concentration, and sleeplessness (Güney, 1998; Yücel & Altunkasa, 1999). Effective education and teaching require keeping the classroom noise level within specific limits. According to Avşar and Gönüllü (2000), any noise level that exceeds determined limits negatively affects the quality of education and teaching by leading to the following adverse consequences:

- Masking of the speech and reduction in perception capability,
- Loss of psychological and physical attention,
- Longer duration of learning by reading,
- Bad temper and less interest in lessons among students,
- Teachers raising their voice due to noise and thus getting tired in a short period of time.

Studies conducted in Turkey also show that noise pollution at schools influence students' academic achievements negatively. (Özbıçakçı ve diğerleri, 2012; Polat & Buluş-Kırıkkaya, 2004; Tamer ve diğerleri, 2011; Tüzel, 2013). In a survey done with elementary school students, Özbıçakçı and others found out that the noise levels measured in the school were at a high enough degree to cause temporary hearing loss among students (2012). In another study, it's been verified that the average noise level inside of elementary, secondary school classrooms is between 70,8- 72,5 Db. In this survey, answers are wanted for the questions below:

1. What are the noise levels in elementary, secondary schools with different rankings and varying socioeconomic statuses?
2. What's the impact of educational activities made to prevent noise pollution at schools on average noise level?

2. Method

This study intends to develop and implement a curriculum focusing on noise pollution resulting from student behaviors in particular and its effects, and to reduce noise pollution at schools through creating awareness among administrators, teachers, and students. Data collection tool is desibel meter.

Sample

The data was collected from four schools. One of the schools was private and the others were public schools with similar socioeconomic levels located in the Nilüfer district of Bursa province.

Participants of the study were determined according to convenience sampling. Research Model Survey modelling, which is a research method, was employed in the study. As is known, survey models are approaches aiming to define a situation in the past or present as the way it was/is (Karasar, 1998). The responses given to the questionnaire by the primary school students via survey method provided an insight to detect their current opinions regarding noise levels in their schools.

Data Collection Tools

Two types of quantitative data were collected to analyze noise pollution level in the schools. The first type of data was obtained through the student questionnaire including 20 questions developed within the scope of the project regarding noise levels at schools, the reasons for it, and how to control it. Fourteen questions in the student questionnaire are in the form of a 5 point Likert scale. The rest of the questions are in the form of multiple choice questions. The second type of data was obtained through measurement of noise in decibels via noise measurement devices (decibel meters) purchased within the scope of the project.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the findings from the student questionnaire. Analysis results are presented via graphs and tables by comparing frequencies and percentage values. The data collected via the noise measurement device (decibel meter) were analyzed via "Noise at Work" software purchased within the scope of the project. Noise data collected from various spots of two schools are presented in decibels. More than one data collection tools were used in the study to promote the validity of measurement by applying triangulation method (Cresswell, 2003). The data collection tools were the questionnaire about students' opinions about the noise level of their school and the measurements of actual noise level of the school determined by the decibel meter.

3. Findings

The findings of the research will be presented in order according to the research questions:

Research Question 1: What are the noise levels in elementary, secondary schools with different rankings and varying socioeconomic statuses?

To examine the noise levels in elementary, secondary schools with different rankings and varying socioeconomic statuses, two types of quantitative data have been collected. The first one is the objective noise data collected with the noise measuring device, the second one being the noise level inside the school, its causes, impacts and the subjective teacher and student opinion polls on how to control it. To answer the question of what the noise levels in elementary, secondary schools with different rankings and varying socioeconomic statuses are, noise measurements have been made and the t-test has been conducted to the measurements with the upper limits designated by regulation. The analysis was presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Comparison of noise levels in primary and middle schools with upper limits determined in the regulation

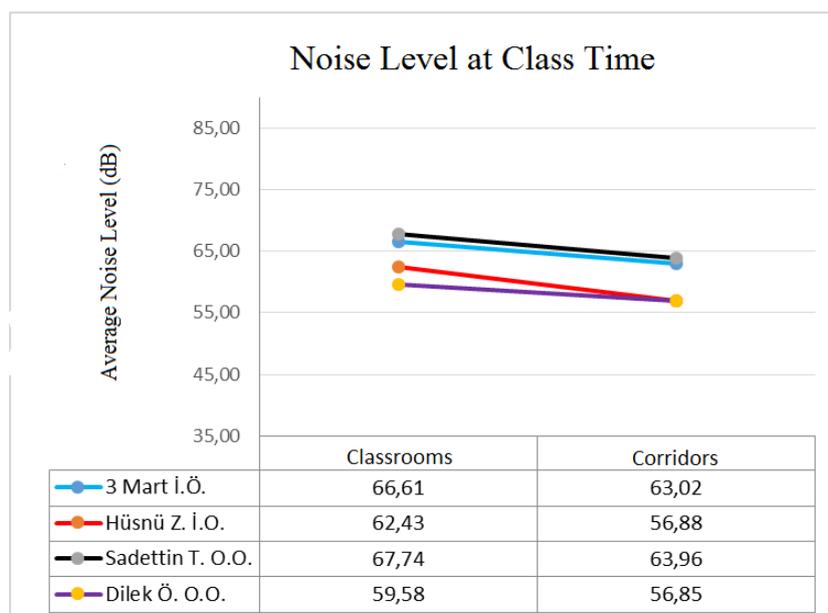
	Second Noise Measurements		Test value	=	n	95% CI for Mean Difference	t	df	p
	M	SD							
MART 3	Classroom noise level at class time 1	66,6	7,28	11,62	90	10,09 , 13,14	15,14	89	0,000
	Corridor noise level at class time 2	63,0	5,06	8,02	31	6,16 , 9,87	8,81	30	0,000
	Corridor noise level at recess time 2	74,4	5,03	19,42	22	17,19 , 21,65	18,12	21	0,000
	Classroom noise level	72,0	4,89	17,03	14	14,21 , 19,85	13,04	13	0,000

Noise Pollution in School and Evaluation of its Control Through Educational Practices

	<i>at recess time</i>	3							
HÜSNÜ ZÜBER	<i>Classroom noise level at class time</i>	62,4 3	7,60	7,43	88	5,82 , 9,04	9,17	87	0,000
	<i>Corridor noise level at class time</i>	56,8 8	3,99	1,88	18	-0,10 , 3,87	2,00	17	0,062
	<i>Corridor noise level at recess time</i>	77,0 7	3,58	22,07	15	20,09 , 24,05	23,87	14	0,000
	<i>Classroom noise level at recess time</i>	62,6 7	1,03	7,67	2	-1,61 , 16,94	10,51	1	0,060
DİLEK ÖZER	<i>Classroom noise level at class time</i>	59,5 8	9,11	4,58	48	1,94 , 7,22	3,48	47	0,001
	<i>Corridor noise level at class time</i>	56,8 5	2,62	1,85	14	0,34 , 3,36	2,65	13	0,020
	<i>Corridor noise level at recess time</i>	77,4 0	4,41	22,40	14	19,85 , 24,95	19,00	13	0,000
	<i>Classroom noise level at recess time</i>	89,9 7	4,02	34,97	2	-1,12 , 71,06	12,31	1	0,052
SADETTİN TÜRKÜN	<i>Classroom noise level at class time</i>	67,7 4	6,87	12,74	78	11,20 , 14,29	16,39	77	0,000
	<i>Corridor noise level at class time</i>	63,9 6	7,93	8,96	10	3,29 , 14,63	3,57	9	0,006
	<i>Corridor noise level at recess time</i>	74,0 7	6,49	19,07	14	15,32 , 22,81	10,99	13	0,000
	<i>Classroom noise level at recess time</i>	70,2 1	1,37	15,21	2	2,89 , 27,54	15,68	1	0,041

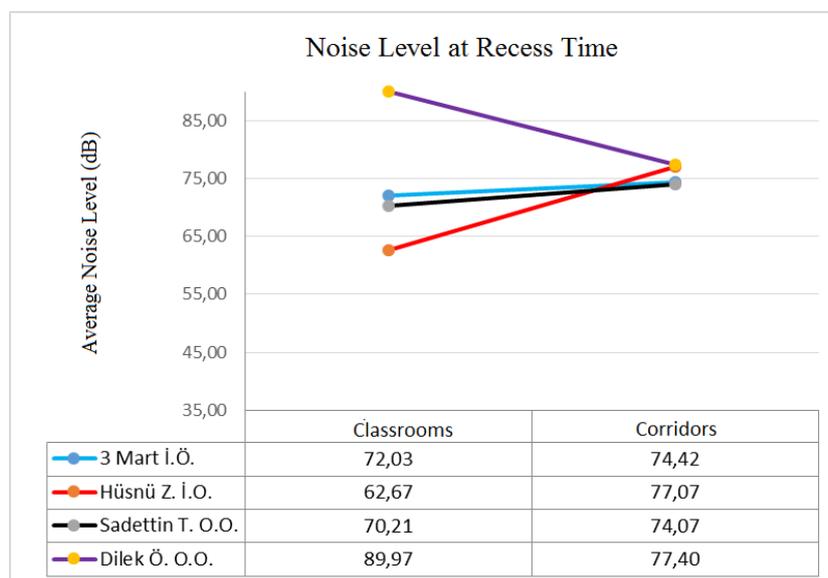
According to the Noise Control Regulation, the maximum ambient noise in Turkey is given as 45dB regardless of class volume. However, it is accepted that the discomfort limit starts between 55-60dB, and the value of 55dB is accepted as the limit value in this study. When the findings were examined, it was found that all the measurements of "March 3 Elementary School", "Dilek Özer" and "Sadettin Türkün Secondary School" and the " Noise level for classroom at class time " and " Noise level for classroom at recess time " values of "Hüsnü Züber Elementary School" were significantly different ($p < 0.05$) than the limit value of 55dB. This result indicates that the noise level is more than the discomfort limit.

The graphs generated using the data from the second noise measurements at schools made in decibel are presented below. See Graph 1.



Graph 1. Noise levels in classrooms and corridors during class time

When all the noise levels in the course of the project schools are examined, it was determined that the measured values were well above the limit value of 35-45 dB. These values were compared with the paired sample t-test values from the previous report. In this analysis the 95% confidence interval was used. In addition, all second measurements were compared to a one sample t-test with a maximum upper limit of 55dB. See Graph 2.

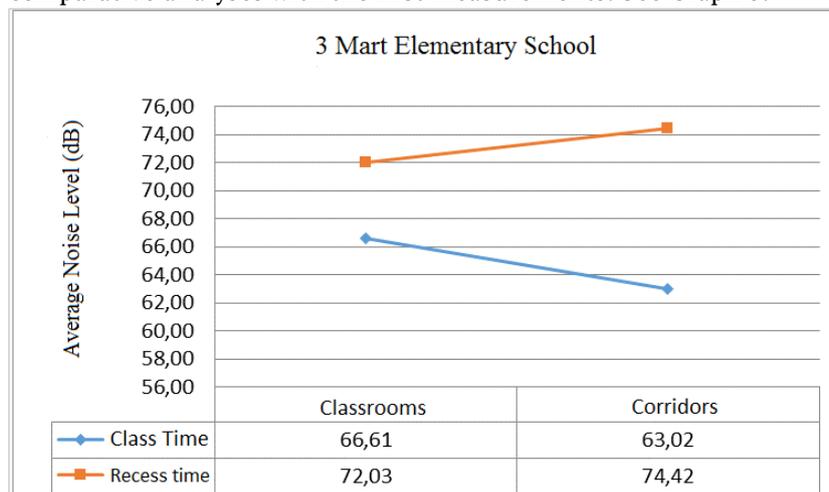


Graph 2. Noise levels in classrooms and corridors during recess time

The findings in Graph 2 show that the level of noise during recess is also quite high. At this point, it was determined that the second measurement of noise levels in the corridors of all schools were lower than the first measurements. These differences are significant except for “Dilek Özer Secondary School”, which is thought to be due to the increased awareness of the students. There was a significant difference in the in-class measurement values during recess between “March 3” and “Hüsnü Züber Elementary Schools”, but no significant difference was found in either secondary schools.

Research Question 2: What's the impact of the educational activities made to prevent noise pollution at schools on the average noise level?

The second research question is aimed at examining the effects of educational activities on noise levels of schools to prevent noise pollution. In this context, firstly, comparative analyses of noise measurements in decibels and the data collected by questionnaires are presented at the beginning and end of school semester. Below are the graphs of the second measurements on each school and comparative analyses with the first measurements. See Graph 3.



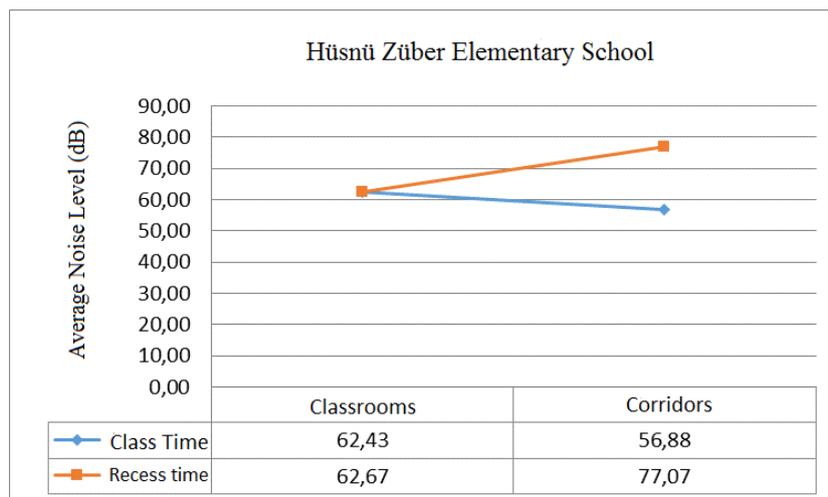
Graph 3. Noise levels at “March 3 Elementary School” in classrooms and corridors during recess and class times

Table 2. Comparison of first and second measurements of “March 3 Elementary School”’s noise levels

MARCH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	3	First Measurement		Second Measurement		95% CI for Mean Difference	t	df	p
		M	SD	M	SD				
Classroom noise level at class time		66,59	7,01	66,61	7,28	-2,19 , 2,15	-0,020	89	0,984
Corridor noise level at class time		59,65	5,03	63,01	5,06	-6,12 , -0,61	-2,499	30	0,018
Classroom noise level at recess time		82,32	1,73	68,81	4,50	3,87 , 23,16	4,461	3	0,021
Corridor noise level at recess time		80,39	3,79	74,42	5,03	3,27 , 8,68	4,590	21	0

* p< .05

The findings indicate that at March 3 Elementary School, there was a significant difference in all other measurements except the measurement in classrooms during the class time. According to this, noise values of school corridors increased during class time. On the other hand, the noise values of both classrooms and corridors decreased during recess times. The decrease in noise levels is within the range of 5.97-13.51 decibels and that indicates a decrease of 3.95-22.43 times of the sound pressure. In addition, according to the one sample t-test analysis values, all the second measurements of March 3 Elementary School differ significantly from the upper limit of 55dB. Below are the noise levels at “Hüsni Züber Elementary School” in classrooms and corridors during recess and class times.



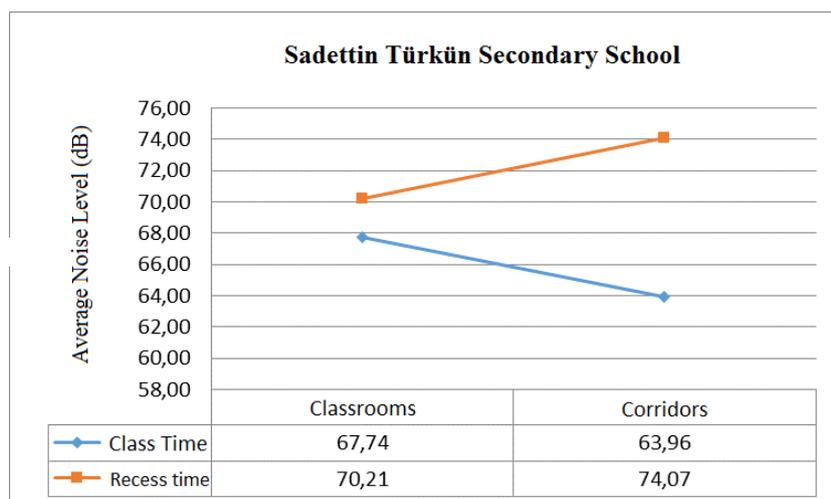
Graph 4. Noise levels at “Hüsnü Züber Elementary School” in classrooms and corridors during recess and class times.

Table 3. Comparison of first and second measurements of “Hüsnü Züber Elementary School”

HÜSNÜ ZÜBER ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	First Measurement		Second Measurement			95 % CI for Mean Difference	t	df	p
	M	sd	m	sd	n				
<i>Classroom noise level at class time</i>	67,74	9,82	62,43	7,60	88	2,53 , 8,10	3,790	87	0
<i>Corridor noise level at class time</i>	58,73	3,47	56,88	3,99	18	-0,82 , 4,53	1,460	17	0,163
<i>Classroom noise level at recess time</i>	79,81	0,13	62,67	1,03	2	9,00 , 25,27	26,781	1	0,024
<i>Corridor noise level at recess time</i>	82,52	2,92	77,07	3,58	15	2,59 , 8,31	4,091	14	0,001

* $p < .05$.

In Hüsnü Züber Elementary School, there was a significant decrease in classroom measurements during class hours and classroom and corridor measurements during recess. There is a 3.39-fold reduction in noise pressure level of class hours. Also, there is a reduction of 5.45-17.14 dB of noise levels and a reduction of 3.51-51.76 in the sound pressure at recess times. According to the results of the single t-test analysis of Hüsnü Züber Elementary School, corridor measurements during class time can be accepted at the upper limit of 55dB. See Graph 5.



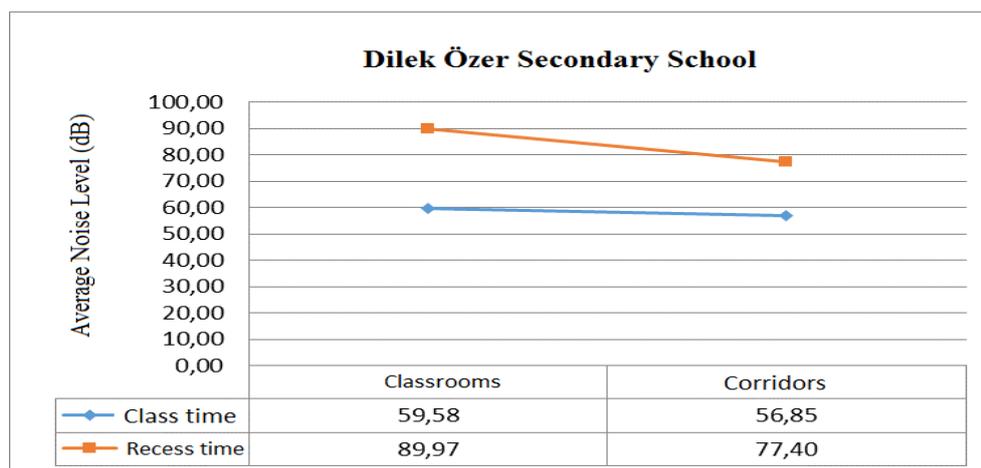
Graph 5. Noise levels at “Sadettin Türkün Secondary School” in classrooms and corridors during recess and class times

Table 4. Comparison of first and second measurements of “Sadettin Türkün Secondary School”

SADETTİN TÜRKÜN SECONDARY SCHOOL	First Measurement		Second Measurement		n	95% CI for Mean Difference	t	df	p
	m	sd	m	sd					
<i>Classroom noise level at class time</i>	66,42	9,65	67,74	6,87	78	-4,00 , 1,34	-0,992	77	0,324
<i>Corridor noise level at class time</i>	57,86	3,16	63,96	7,93	10	-12,39 , 0,18	-2,197	9	0,056
<i>Classroom noise level at recess time</i>	79,38	0,84	70,21	1,37	2	-10,72 , 29,05	5,856	1	0,108
<i>Corridor noise level at recess time</i>	78,57	4,17	74,07	6,49	14	1,52 , 7,48	3,261	13	0,006

* $p < .05$.

In the second measurement values of the Sadettin Türkün Secondary School, only a significant decrease in the measurements of corridors was obtained the recess times. There was no significant difference in other measures. However, this decrease was not significant and noise level decreased by 9.17 dB in decibels, especially due to the inadequate number of in-class measurements. Moreover, according to the results of one samples t-test of Sadettin Turkun Middle School, all the second measurement values are significantly different from the upper limit of 55dB. See Graph 6.



Graph 6. Noise levels at “Dilek Özer Secondary School” in classrooms and corridors during recess and class times

Table 5. Comparison of first and second measurements of “Dilek Özer Secondary School”

DİLEK ÖZER SECONDARY SCHOOL	First Measurement		Second Measurement		n	95% CI for Mean Difference	t	df	p
	m	sd	m	sd					
<i>Classroom noise level at class time</i>	61,31	8,96	59,58	9,11	48	-2,37 , 5,83	0,848	47	0,401
<i>Corridor noise level at class time</i>	55,09	3,95	56,85	2,62	14	-3,82 , 0,30	-1,850	13	0,087
<i>Classroom noise level at recess time</i>	68,49	2,29	89,97	4,02	2	-78,15 , 35,19	-4,816	1	0,130
<i>Corridor noise level at recess time</i>	81,53	4,99	77,14	4,73	12	-0,23 , 9,00	2,091	11	0,060

* p< .05.

No significant difference was observed between first and second measurements of noise levels at Dilek Özer Secondary School. Moreover, according to one sample t-test analysis, all the second measurement values are significantly different from the upper noise limit of 55dB.

Generally, the second measurements of noise levels during class and recess times decreased significantly. This result is also an indication of the increased awareness of students about noise at school. It has been determined that in terms of noise level, what the students have found "normal" before and was about "the same level" has become to be perceived "high" at the end of the academic year.

4. Discussion

The first and second measurements indicate that the noise levels at schools are above the upper limits specified in the regulation. Especially during recess, the noise level is pushing the limits of tolerance. This may be explained by the poor acoustical design of the classrooms and corridors and because the students and teachers speak very loud during class or have to be loud due to high noise level of the environment or that the students tend to be very loud in terms of behavior. The measured values indicate that there is no significant difference between the levels of noise either at elementary or secondary schools, both during class hours and recess. In addition, since the measurements included both private and public schools, there was no significant difference in comparison as to whether there was an effect on the noise level of the socioeconomic structure. The physical condition

of the school and the street, etc. noise levels in private and public schools are at about the same level when measurements in the school garden are removed. While the results of the analysis of the first and second measurements of noise levels showed that there was a decrease in noise levels in the two schools, however, there was no significant decrease in the other two.

These results show that there is no cooperative work, cohesion or consistency in reducing noise pollution among school administrators and teachers. One of the most important things to do is to strengthen the attitudes, values and beliefs that administrators and teachers have regarding this issue. It is seen that noisy behaviors are stopped with momentary reactions instead of producing normal solutions by accepting the norms of the students' behaviors and producing permanent solutions to prevent these behaviors. Noise pollution is considered by teachers as a result of behavior. All administrators and teachers need to demonstrate a common mode of behavior in order to develop the same behavior in this regard.

5. References

- Akman, Y., Ketenoglu, O., Evren, H., Kurt, L., & Düzenli, S. (2000). Çevre kirliliği. Ankara: Palme Yayıncılık.
- Arı, R., & Saban, H. (1999). Sınıf Yönetimi, Konya: Günay Ofset.
- Binaların Gürültüye Karşı Korunması Hakkındaki Yönetmelik. (2017). *T.C. Resmi Gazete*, 30082, 31 Mayıs 2017.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K.(1996). A Guide To Teaching Practice: Routledge, Great Britain By Clays Ltd, St Ives Plc, Fourth Edition. London ve New York.
- Çelik, V. (2000). *Okul kültürü ve yönetim*. Ankara: Pegem A Yayıncılık.
- Çelik, V. (2002). *Sınıf yönetimi*. Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- Polat, S., & Buluş-Kırıkkaya, E. (2004). *Gürültünün Eğitim Öğretim Ortamına Etkileri*, Paper presented at XIII. Ulusal Eğitim Bilimleri Kurultayı, İnönü, Turkey.
- Schlittmeier, S. J., Hellbrück, J., & Klatte, M. (2008). Does irrelevant music cause an irrelevant sound effect for auditory items? *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology*, 20(2), 252-271.
- Şentürk, C., & Sağnak, M. (2012). İlköğretim Okulu Müdürlerinin Liderlik Davranışları İle Okul İklimi Arasındaki İlişki, *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 29-47.
- Variş, F. (1998). Eğitim Bilimine Giriş, İstanbul: Alkım Yayınları.
- Bilal, F. (2009). Okullarda Akustik Düzenleme ve Gürültü. *Yalıtım Dergisi*, 78, 66-67.
- Güney, E. (1998). Çevre sorunları. Ankara: Hatipoğlu Yayınları.
- Bulunuz, N. (2014). Noise Pollution in Turkish Elementary Schools: Evaluation of Noise Pollution Awareness and Sensivity Training. *International Journal of Environmental and Science Education*, 9(2), 345-360.
- Özbıçakçı, Ş., Çapık, C., Aydoğdu, N., Ersin, F., & Kıssal, A. (2012). Bir Okul Toplumunda Gürültü Düzeyi Tanılaması ve Duyarlılık Eğitimi, *Eğitim ve Bilim*, 37(165), 223-236.
- Tamer-Bayazıt, N., Küçükçifçi, S., & Şan, B. (2011). İlköğretim Okullarında Gürültüden Rahatsızlığın Alan Çalışmalarına Bağlı Olarak Saptanması, *İTÜ Dergisi*, 10 (2), 169-181.
- Tüzel, S. (2013). Sınıf İçi Gürültünün Öğrencilerin Dinleme Sürecindeki Bilişsel Performansına Etkisi. *Eğitimde Kuram ve Uygulama*, 9(4), 363-378.
- Yücel, M. & Altunkasa, M.F. (1999). *Çevre: Kız meslek liseleri için temel ders kitabı*. İstanbul: Milli Eğitim Basım Evi.
- Avşar, Y., & Gönüllü, M.T. (October, 2000). *İstanbul İli Örneğinde Bazı Okullarda İç ve Dış Ortam Gürültülerinin Eğitim Kalitesi Açısından Değerlendirilmesi*, Paper presented at the "GAP 2000 Symposium", İstanbul, Turkey.

Going out of the Borders: Reading Habits, Interests and Tendencies of Students Living in Villages

Abdullah Kaldirim, Omer Faruk Tavsanlı, Muhammet Rasit Memis

1. Introduction

Because the fact that it is centered in the heart of learning activities in the process of adapting to the changing world conditions and that it enables one to keep track of the fast growing body of information, the reading skill is crucially significant. As human beings read different types, they learn obtain new information leading the way to new sets of information and therefore, enables individuals to keep up with the fast changing world. Amongst the underlying objectives of the Turkish National Education System that include educating individuals who can comprehend, investigate, examine, are critical, ask questions, make interpretations, are well aware of their rights and responsibilities, and can think scientifically, reading skill and reading comprehension are centered in the very heart of this education system.

Every student who enters into the formal education system acquires the ability of decoding symbols in a certain period of time under normal circumstances and carries out the act of reading for various purposes. These purposes can be summarized as follows; due to customs and habits or with a sense of duty, to make use of one's free time, to make sense of topical events, instant personal satisfaction and responding to the practical needs of daily life, to sustain professional or occupational interests, to improve oneself in terms of hobbies, and to meet the intellectual and religious, personal and social needs (Devrimci, 1993, 9 cited in Gray & Rogers). In order for individuals to read with these purposes in mind, they need to make a habit of reading. Indeed, the purpose of reading education within the current national curriculum by means of the Turkish lesson which is responsible for getting the students to gain the habit of reading and improve it includes enabling the students to be able to read the written texts correctly and fluently, and make sense of what they read and make a habit of reading by being aware of how what they read resonate the mindset, cultural, economic, artistic, political etc. value of their time (MEB, 2015: 7). With these objectives available in the program in mind, it is possible to say that the most difficult objective to fulfill is to help students to gain the habit of reading.

The reading habit can be shaped up under such different variables as what kinds of publications readers read, how often and what kinds of publication they read to what extent, how long one can read nonstop at one sitting, what time of the day, week or the year one prefers to read, when and what one enjoys reading, how one obtains the books s/he reads, the choice of purchasing, borrowing or reading the books in the library (Dökmen, 1994: 34). Three periods (childhood, youth and adulthood); three social institutions (family, school and social environment); and three types of individuals (parents, teachers and friends) are influential in gaining the reading habit. Reading habit, fundamentally, is a habit that students need to gain during their schooling; if the students have failed to gain this habit during that period, it is very difficult to gain it in their adult years (Şahin, 2009: 217).

According to the 2014 statistics (TÜİK, 2015), given the fact that 94.8% of the individuals in Turkey are literate, it is possible to conclude that the Turkish National Education System is rather successful in teaching individuals the literacy skills. However, it is though that reaching this conclusion based only on the rates of national literacy will misinform both researchers, and citizens and the politician who have the right to take decisions on the changes likely to be made in the education system. Therefore, it is necessary to analyze the studies aiming at trying to reveal the literacy culture in Turkey and determine the situation regarding the reading comprehension of Turkish students at an international level.

As a result of tests done in 2012 within the framework of the Program of International Student Assessment (PISA) that assesses mathematics, science and reading-skill literacies of 15 year-

old age group, it was found that the Turkish students obtained scores in reading skill tests that were below the average of OECD member states (Anıl, Özer Özkan, & Demir, 2015). Besides, it was also reported that the student success rate (0.3%) at level 6 representing superior reading skills amongst the Turkish students was very low; the success rate at the 4th, 5th and 6th levels of total students with supposedly superior reading skills was, on the other hand, as low as 18,9%; and the scores of Turkish students were below the average of other countries (Anıl, Özer Özkan, & Demir, 2015). When the Turkish Reading Culture Map (TCKTB, 2016) prepared by the Ministry of Culture of the Turkish Republic is examined, it is stated that 31,32% of the population in Turkey never read book; and those who read books, on the other hand, read occasionally and the books they read are selected accidentally. When all these data are considered, it is clearly seen that nearly 96% of the Turkish population are literate, but they have failed to acquire the ability of literate way of thinking.

Given the fact that societies have to re-define and re-structure themselves in every field as a result of the developments that have taken place in the world in the last century, it is revealed that the Turkish society whose majority has failed to acquire the literate forms of thinking, failed to acquire the habit of reading and does not have a particular reading culture urgently has to deal with the problem of reading. It is because reading is the key to acquiring, structuring, generating and disseminating the information. It would be unwise to expect to see a society surviving in the 21st century during which rapid developments are experienced since the society is likely to fail to generate information as a result of not reading and eventually unable to accomplish for a better future. Within this framework, many studies aimed at revealing the reading habits of individuals studying at different levels of education and age groups in Turkey have been carried out. When the content of the previous studies (Şahin, 2009; Arıcı; 2005; Arı and Demir, 2013; Can, Türkyılmaz and Karadeniz, 2010; Gür, 2014; Mete, 2012) are examined, it is clearly seen that the universe and samples of these studies were composed of participants who spent their lives in urban city centers. However, as a result of scanning the web bases such as Web of Science, Wiley Online Library, Taylor and Francis Online, EBSCO Academic Search Complete and ULAKBİM of Social Sciences, it was found that no study was done in Turkey that investigated the reading habits, interests and tendencies of pupils living in rural areas and villages. Within this framework, this study designed according to qualitative research method aims to investigate the reading habits, interests and tendencies of secondary school pupils living in rural areas and villages.

2. Method

The present study that aims to identify the reading habits, interests and tendencies of students living in rural areas and villages is a qualitative study. Qualitative studies are the kinds of studies aimed at discovering/investigating a problem and developing in-depth understanding regarding a topic. Accordingly, the purpose of this study and the research questions are comprehensively expressed in order to identify the experiences of the participants (Creswell, 2012). The fact that the studies done are sensitive to the natural environment, the participant is open to the researcher role, the additional completions and corrections, an approach that is based on holistic understanding of a concept and inductive method, being against the concept of immutable law and exerting the efforts to reveal the perceptions are the proof that that study has the qualities of qualitative research (Uzuner, 1997; Mayring, 2011; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011).

2.1. Participants

The pupils living and studying in the villages of the province of Kütahya will be included in the study. The pupils and their families will be contacted and informed that a study titled “Reading Habits, Interests and Tendencies of Pupils Living in Villages” is planned and asked for their consent whether they wish to take part in the interviews for the study. As a result of the interviews, 15 pupils will be included into the sampling by making sure that individuals who may be a party to the problem are at the highest level of homogeneity.

In order to determine the participants for the study, “maximum variation sampling” technique, one of the techniques of purposeful sampling, was used. The purpose here was to generate a relatively small

sampling and reflect the variation of individuals who may be a party to problem to be searched in the sampling at the maximum level (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). When we choose a sampling with maximum variation, data collection and analysis process will give us two findings. These are the common themes, inclusive of sampling, that may arise between the two extremes of unique detailed description of every situation and situations that will greatly differ (Patton, 2001; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011).

7 secondary school students living 7 different villages of the province of Kütahya and studying through mobile teaching were included in the study. In order to determine the participant students, initially the Turkish language teachers of schools maintaining their education through mobile teaching in the city center of Kütahya province were contacted and were informed of the research planned to be carried out. Then, it was decided that the research would be carried out in the school of one of the volunteer Turkish language teachers. In the process of determining the students to be included in the research, students studying at that school were interviewed and at the end of this interview, considering the maximum variation of the individuals that may be a party to the problem, 7 students were included into the study. Three of the students included in the research were female and four were male. Due to the research ethics, the characteristics of the participant students were kept confidential and the participant students were referred to, based on the sequence of interview, as P1, P2, P3,..

2.2. Data Collection and Analysis

Research data were collected through semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews are one of the techniques of collecting data through a series of open-ended pre-prepared questions put to the participant (Ayres, 2008). In this technique, the questions prepared before the interview are asked to each participant systematically and coherently. However, in order to be able to analyze in more detail, the interviewers were free to extent the questions and ask some extra ones (Berg, 2000; Patton, 2001; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). As it allowed this flexibility, the technique of semi-structured interviews was used. During the process of preparing the interview questions developed by the researchers, it was ensured that the principles such that they were easy to understand, not multi-dimensional, not misleading and instructive were paid attention to. Following the preparation of the interview questions, they were consulted to four experts in the relevant field and a pilot study was carried out. In conclusion, it was decided that the following questions would put to the participants in the semi-structured interviews:

- 1) Can you briefly describe yourself please?
- 2) What does reading a book mean to you?
- 3) When you have finished reading it, what is the name of the book you have enjoyed reading the most? Why did you enjoy reading this book?
- 4) Who are the author or authors whose books you enjoy reading?
- 5) How do you feel when you finish reading a book?
- 6) How/where do you obtain the books you will read?
- 7) In your free readings, how do you choose/ what is your criterion of choosing the books you will read?
- 8) When you have decided to read a book, what kind of books do you prefer to read?
- 9) For you to want to read a book, what qualities should that book have? In choosing a book to read, what do pay attention to the most?
- 10) What affect your decisions in your choice of the books to read? Do your family, teachers and friends make recommendations on the books you will read?
- 11) When you start to read, what is your shortest period of reading?
- 12) Is there a public library where you live? If there is one, do you use this library?
- 13) What do people around you (family, neighbors, school and friends in the neighborhood) think about reading?
- 14) Do you talk about the books you have read with your friends?
- 15) If you were a hero of a story, what would story be about?
- 16) Is there a memorable hero or an event in the books you have read? If there is and you remember it, can you please talk about it?

The semi-structured interviews were implemented by the researchers themselves. In order to ensure the validity of the data, the audio recordings obtained from the data collection were listened to by two experts other than the researchers and compared with the transcripts of the researchers. According

to the data obtained in the study, in the process of determining the sub-themes, the researchers agreed that the data would be collected under the seven main themes of habit of reading books, concept of reading books, time allocated for reading books, encouragement for reading books, ways of obtaining books, their choice of books and the reasons for it, and reader identity. Reliability of the research was calculated by the formula of “Reliability = Consensus / (Consensus + Dissensus) x 100” (Miles and Huberman, 1994). It was found that the rate of reliability amongst the researchers was 90%. In the analysis of the data, content analysis was carried out in order to identify the words within the texts, understanding the contexts that the words were found in and what the statements meant within the framework they were used in, and the underlying relationships expressed in the statements (Merriam, 1998; Kızıltepe, 2015).

3. Findings

The opinions of the students living in villages regarding their habits, interests and tendencies were collected under seven main themes. In this section, students’ opinions were presented according to these themes. Students’ opinions were transcribed as they were expressed by the students themselves and directly quoted. In order not to reveal the identity of the participants in the direct quotes, the names of the participants were coded as *P1*, *P2*, *P3*,... according to the sequence of interview. Participants opinions on the themes of habit of reading books, concept of reading books, time allocated for reading books, encouragement for reading books, ways of obtaining books, choice of books and their reasons, and reader identity are presented below.

3.1. Participants’ Opinions on their Habit of Reading Books

Three of the participants living in villages stated that reading books encouraged them to read even more. The participants had the following to say regarding this sub-theme;

When I finish reading one book, I say to myself that I have finished reading one more book; I will move on to the next one; that is, I say I will read more books (*P1*).

I take pleasure when I finish reading a book. I want to start reading other books. I am delighted (*P5*).

After finishing reading a book, I think to myself whether I should read something else; whether I should read another book. That is, it encourages me. That is why reading is good; I like it (*P7*).

As it is seen, the students emphasized that reading made them happy and encouraged them to read more. One of the sub-themes regarding students’ opinions on their book reading habits is the sub-theme of learning. The following are students’ opinions on this theme;

When I finish reading the book I am reading, I feel like I have been more informed on that subject (*P3*).

For instance, meanings of some foreign words are given in some books. I learn them (*P2*).

3.2. Participants’ Opinions on the Theme of the Concept of Reading Books

When the data obtained during the semi-structured interviews are analyzed, it is clearly observed that the participants associated reading books with the concepts of life, fantasy world, learning, speed reading, using your time effectively, taking pleasure, relaxing and support for the school lesson. The opinions of two students who associated reading books with the concept of life are as follows;

I think reading is like an indispensable part of life ... first of all, I try to realize what I have learnt from that book. Do any of the events in that book, for instance, have a part in life? I think to myself if something like that happened in my life, what would happen? (*P1*).

When I learn something in my reading, I become delighted. Apart from that, I take lessons from what has happened (*P6*).

The opinions of three students who emphasized the relationship between reading books and learning;

Reading books, learning new things, comprehension of the meaning of many things, speeding up my reading. All these help me to learn the meaning of words (P4).

There are historical books. I and my brother do it together. We talk. If we realize that something we know is wrong, we find the correct information from the books. That is why they are very useful. Reading books help a lot with vocabulary. Being able to sat words in detail is effective in making sentences, very useful in effective sentences (P7)

As it is clear above, students emphasized that reading books definitely enhanced their vocabulary. Participant 4 further stated that as the read books, his reading speed increased as well. This particular opinion of Participant 4 was confirmed by Participant 5 as well and additionally, reading books helped him to better use his free time as well;

Reading books speeds up my reading and gives me information. It helps me to use my free time better (P5).

In addition to these opinions of students, Participant 7 stated that he read books because he thought that reading would make contribute positively to his school lessons. Besides, Participant 7 also indicated that he felt relaxed after reading and took pleasure in reading. Here are the opinions of the student in question;

Well, mostly I read for a benefit in my school lessons; to be able to understand the questions. Also to relax; I mean, it is good read for pleasure as well. I enjoy reading, I really do. I mean, that's it really (P7).

The following are the opinions of those students who associated the act of reading books to their fantasy world;

I am able to put myself into a fantasy world by reading books. If the books talks about upsetting stuff, I get upset as well. If it is exciting, I get excited as well (P3).

Reading books, to me, helps me to improve my imagination. That's why I like reading books. It improves your reading and you just confront it later in life. It helps us to be informed about stuff (P6).

3.3. Participants' Opinions on the Theme of the Time Allocated for Reading

When participant students' opinions on the theme of the time allocated for reading is examined, it is seen that their opinions came under the sub-themes of "minimum time allocated for reading and number of section-pages". The participants in general stated that they spared at least one hour for reading in their free times;

When I start reading, I read the book at least for one hour (P6).

I mean, how many minutes I spare for reading is not important. For instance, after I finish my homework, I allocate the rest of my time for reading books. I mean, my reading may take couple of hours (P8).

Apart from above-mentioned opinions of students, Participant 2 limited his reading with time but with the number of sections or pages he read. The following are the opinions of this student;

It is not the minutes that count for me, but if the book has sections, I keep on reading until I finish a section. Usually it is no fewer than 20 pages (P2).

3.4. Participants' Opinions on the Theme of Encouragement for Reading

When the data obtained during the semi-structured interviews are examined, it is observed that participants' opinions on reading were collected under five themes of family, neighbors, peers and relatives. The following are students' opinions in general on the encouragement they received from their families;

My family always expects me to read books. It is because it is as beneficial as studying for your lessons. Therefore, they think reading is important (P1).

My family thinks that reading books is important but they themselves do not read much. But they want me read; they say it is beneficial for me (P3).

Usually, I get recommendations from my family and teachers on reading; my teachers, for instance, love reading. My family likes reading magazines, newspapers etc....

Apart from that, they want me to keep reading. Actually I am loved because I do read books, I mean by my family (P6).

In addition to the students who stated that families encouraged them to read, below are the opinions of students who stated that they were encouraged to read by their relatives;

Yes, the driver of our school minibus is a relative of mine. He told it to me when I got my school report. He recommended things like “Just keep reading book, study for your lessons during the summer holiday”. (P2).

Given the above-mentioned statements of the students, it is possible to say that the level of awareness of families and relatives of the participant students regarding the significance of reading was very high. It is clearly understood that the awareness of families and relatives of the students regarding the significance of reading turned into a type of encouragement. Amongst the individuals who also encouraged students to read books, in addition to the family and relatives, were the teachers and peers. The following are what the students had to say on this issue;

It is my Turkish language teacher the most who recommends us to read. But my entire teachers think that reading books is a good thing and we do reading in some of our lesson every week. (P2).

I ask the teachers the books they read. For instance, “have you read this book? Is it a good one?” are the questions I ask. I take the recommendations of my teachers. (P6).

3.5. Participants’ Opinions on the Theme of the ways of Obtaining Books.

Students’ opinions on how they obtained the books they read were collected under the sub-themes of “relatives, library, teachers, purchase and peers”. Two students stated that they obtained their books from their relatives.

My relatives give me books to read. They give me the books they once read when they were at school; plus, I also borrow the books from our school library. We also have competition books; I borrow them from our teacher. Also, if there a book I like very much when we travel to Kütahya, I buy the book. (P1).

I borrow the books from the school library. Also, I have sisters studying in the town of Tavşanalı; they bring me books as well. I borrow books from my teacher as well. I exchange my books with friends. (P2).

As it is clear above, in addition to obtaining the books they read from their relatives, the participants students also stated that they borrowed the books from the school library, exchanged them with their fellow friends, borrowed from their friends and purchased them from a book shop when they visited the city center of their province. The opinions of the rest of the participant students on this theme are as follows;

I purchase the books I want read from the book shop in the shopping center. I also use the school library. I borrow books from my friends and teachers as well. (P4).

I borrow the books I want to read from our school library or from my teachers. I sometime borrow from friends as well. (P5).

3.6. Participants’ Opinions on the Theme of their choice of books and the reasons for it

When the opinions of the participant students’ on the kinds of books they enjoyed reading the most are examined, it is clearly observed that each and every participant student’s preferences differed;

The book I enjoyed the most when I finished reading it was ‘Yankılı Kayalar’ (P3).

The book I enjoyed reading the most was “Ökkeş Lunaparkta” (P4).

The book I enjoyed the most when I finished reading it was “Bir Küçük Osmancık” (P5)

Given the reasons for the choice of the books the students read, on the other hand, it is observed that they were collected under the sub-themes of “author and the author preference, content (subject), a flowing theme (a flowing discourse), the genre, exterior features of the book, the publishing house, age and level compatibility”. Here are students’ opinions on what they pay attention to in their choice of books;

Some authors always write books on the same genre. For instance, when I read an author and like the book, I read one more book from that author (P2).

The cover design of a book is very important for me; it is because, I think, the cover design of a book tells about the content of that book. Besides, I take a glance at the content of the book as well. Usually, I choose to read books appropriate for my age. The book should not be too short or long in terms of pages. The font size should be neither too big nor too small. It should be average, I mean. I am also choosy about the authors I read, but the publishing house is not important (P6).

First of all, I pay attention to the content of the books; to whether they are flowing; to whether they appeal to my reading taste; and also, I like to read adventurous books (P1). Since it is about village life and flowing, I like the books of this author (P4).

The book I read should be a flowing one; should be about real life events; should be sentimental...The books is flowing. It is just to me reading taste. The book is about real life experiences; this affects me (P5).

Well, I mean, it is action and adventure; it should also be gripping. Well, I mean, how to put it; when I watch a film, all the scenes in it really grip me; they take all the way down to the bottom of it; I like these kinds of books. Like Sherlock Holmes; these kinds of books (P7).

3.7. Participants' Opinions on the Theme of Reader Identity

When the opinions of students living in villages on the theme of reader identity are examined, we are confronted with a colorful picture. In the answer of the students to the questions of "If you were a hero of a story, what would story be about?, the hero in the story was described as one who "struggles against difficulties, is honest, bookworm, loves adventure-loving, loves village life and is environmentalist". Students' opinions on this theme are as follows;

If I were a hero in a story, he would be talking about the significance of life; about the struggles of life; about the difficulties in life. Those who cannot afford these book; we have many of them; the difficulties that people have and the fact that we have attach importance to these (P1).

He would be talking about village life. Without efforts, he would be saying that nothing would be possible (P4)

As it is seen, the students who lived in villages and were used to leading a labor-based life would want to be in a story where they, as individuals, would deal with the difficulties in life, appreciated the labor and what they possessed;

He would a bookworm hero. Then he would be talking about a hero who had an adventure (P3).

If I were a hero in a story, the story would be about village life (P4).

I were a character in a story, the story would be about the environment. We have to be sensitive to the environment (P5).

Besides, the students expressed their opinions on memorable heroes or events in the books you had read as in the following;

There was a book I read titled "Yeraltında Macera". In that book, the characters would go underground and meet other people. It was a book to that effect, very exciting. A memorable event for me; there were very exciting sections. They would face very difficult situations. I loved those stuff (P6).

I never forget the first stuff; in the book that I bought. There was the little bear called Mine. I never forget her. She is still always on my mind. I learnt a lesson once from her. I said she was already a big girl. She said she never wanted to do the small things her family asked her to do. She tried to bite off more than she could chew. Then she paid the price big time. She brought me to my senses. It was good lesson learnt by me (P7).

4. Results and Discussion

When the findings of the study are examined, it was seen that reading habits, interests and tendencies of students were grouped under seven main themes.

Regarding their habits of reading books, the participant students stated that while regular reading made them happy and enhanced their desire to read, it also enabled them to acquire new knowledge and information. Similarly, Can, Türkyılmaz and Karadeniz (2010) and Balcı (2009) found in their studies that students carried out their reading activities for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge and information.

Findings of the study revealed that the participant students associated the concept of reading more with their real lives and fantasy worlds. It is also interesting to note that they also associated the concept of reading with the concepts of learning, feeling at peace, speed reading, using your time effectively, taking pleasure, relaxing and support for the school lesson. Previous studies indicated that reading books cheered the students up; and that students read books in order to use their free time more effectively (Balcı, 2009; Can, Türkyılmaz & Karadeniz, 2010).

Regarding the time students allocated for reading, the students indicated the sub-theme of minimum reading time or section-page number. The statements of students under the sub-theme minimum reading time specified that the students usually read at least for one hour at one sitting. Regarding students' statements in relation to number of sections or pages they read, it was found that they never stopped reading unless they finished reading the section in question and regarding the number of pages, they read at least twenty pages when they sat down to read.

Students stated that the most important persons who encouraged them to read were their families, teachers, peers and neighbors. Previous studies also revealed that students at different educational stages considered their families, teachers, peers and neighbors as their sources of encouragement for reading (Myette, 2006; Wilson, 2007; Arıcı, 2005; Arı & Demir, 2013).

Students indicated that they obtained the books they read by borrowing them from the school library, their teachers, peers and their relatives or by purchasing them. It was revealed that students were able to purchase books only when they got the chance to travel to the city center of their province

Regarding their choice of books and the reasons for it, data analysis revealed that students considered the criteria such as the author preference, content (subject), a flowing theme (a flowing discourse), the genre, exterior features of the book, the publishing house, age and level compatibility. It was found that student loved reading novels more and the novels were the choice of purchase for them. In their study, Arı and Demir (2013) concluded that teacher candidates read novels more; and they were not particularly interested in books on art, culture and history. Arıcı (2005) revealed that students considered the subject of their book in their preference of a book. Karakoç (2005), on the other hand, indicated that the title, advertisements and advice about the book were influential in their preference of books. Unlike previous studies, Hopper (2005) found that the peer group had an impact over the students' choice of books.

Findings of the study also revealed that students associated their reader identities with characters in the books that "struggled against difficulties, were honest, bookworm, loved adventure-loving, loved village life and were environmentalist. Similarly, in previous studies, it was concluded that students at different educational stages indicated that they found the books on love, adventure, science fiction and action closer to their liking (Arı & Demir, 2013; Arıcı, 2005).

5. References

- Anıl, D., Özer Özkan, Y., & Demir, E. (2015). *PISA 2012 araştırması ulusal nihai rapor*. Ankara: T.C. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Ölçme, Değerlendirme ve Sınav Hizmetleri Genel Müdürlüğü.
- Arı, E., & Demir, M. K. (2013). İlköğretim bölümü öğretmen adaylarının kitap okuma alışkanlıklarının değerlendirilmesi. *Ana Dili Eğitimi Dergisi*, 1(1), 116-128.
- Arıcı, A. F. (2005). *İlköğretim ikinci kademe öğrencilerinin okuma durumları (beceri-ilgi-alışkanlık-eğilim)*(Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Atatürk Üniversitesi, Erzurum, Turkey.

- Ayres, L. (2008). Semi structured interview. L. Given içinde, *The Sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods* (s. 810-811). California: Sage.
- Balcı, A. (2009). İlköğretim 8. sınıf öğrencilerinin okuma alışkanlık ve ilgileri üzerine bir araştırma. Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi. Gazi Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü.
- Berg, B. L. (2000). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Needham Heights: Allyn and Bacon.
- Can, R., Türkyılmaz, M., & Karadeniz, A. (2010). Ergenlik dönemi öğrencilerinin okuma alışkanlıkları. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 11(3), 1-21.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational Research Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*. Boston: Pearson.
- Devrimci, H. (1993). *İlkokul 5. sınıf çocuklarında okuma alışkanlığının incelenmesi*. (Unpublished master thesis). Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Dökmen, Ü. (1994). *Okuma becerisi ilgisi ve alışkanlığı üzerine psiko-sosyal bir araştırma*. İstanbul: MEB Yayınları.
- Gür, T. (2014). Öğretmen adaylarının okuma ve boş zaman değerlendirme alışkanlıkları. *Zeitschrift Für Die Welt Der Türken/Journal Of World Of Turks*, 6(1), 161-180.
- Hopper, R. (2005). What are teenagers reading? Adolescent fiction reading habits and reading choices. *Literacy*. November. 113-120.
- Karakoç. M. (2005). Lise birinci sınıf öğrencilerin okuma ilgi ve alışkanlıkları üzerine bir inceleme. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi. Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü.
- Kızıltepe, Z. (2015). İçerik Analizi. *Nitel Araştırma Yöntem, Teknik, Analiz ve Yaklaşımlar*. (Ed: Fatma Nevra Seggie ve Yasemin Bayyurt). Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Mayring, P. (2011). *Nitel Sosyal Araştırmaya Giriş*. Ankara: BilgeSu.
- MEB. [Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı] (2015). *Türkçe dersi (1-8. sınıflar) öğretim programı*. Ankara: Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Talim Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı.
- Merriam, S. (1998). *Qualitative Research and Case Study Applications in Education*. San Fransisko: Jossey- Bass.
- Mete, G. (2012). İlköğretim 8. sınıf öğrencilerinin okuma alışkanlığı üzerine bir araştırma (malatya ili örneği). *Dil ve Edebiyat Eğitimi Dergisi*, 1(1), 43-66.
- Miles, M., & Huberman, A. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis*. London: Sage.
- Myette, S. (2006). Finding a great read: Book selection strategies for sixth grade silent reading an abstract. United States: Master of Arts in Education, Pacific Lutheran University.
- Patton, M. Q. (2001). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. California: Sage.
- Şahin, A. (2009). İlköğretim 6. 7. ve 8. sınıf öğrencilerinin kitap okuma alışkanlıklarının sosyo-ekonomik düzeylerine göre incelenmesi. *Mersin Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 5(2), 215-232.
- TÜİK [Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu]. (2015). *İstatistiklerle Türkiye*. Ankara: Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu.
- TCKTB [Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı] (2015). *Türkiye okuma kültürü haritası*. Retrieved at May 24, 2016, from <http://www.kygm.gov.tr/Eklenti/55,yonetici-ozetipdf.pdf?0>
- Uzuner, Y. (1997). Niteliksel Araştırma Yöntemlerinin Özellikleri. Paper presented at the IV. *National Educational Sciences Congress*, Eskişehir.
- Wilson, B.C. (2007). A Newspaper reading habit in college students: Family newspaper literacy practices K-12 newspaper exposure and civic interest. United States: Tennessee Technological University
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2011). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.

The attitudes of instructors towards innovation in gastronomy education: The example of Turkey

Tuba Şahin Ören, Yakın Ekin, Veli Erdinç Ören

1. Introduction

It is important for academicians educating in universities to develop their skills about the sector they are educating, to follow new applications, to follow the application process of theoretical knowledge and to meet the needs of the qualified staff needed by the sector. In this process, however, unmotivated and unexcited instructors are forced to use outdated book information because they are away from current topics, slowing the progress of students in their education and professional life. Strategic education, innovation in education and vocational education for academicians should be carried out in order to prevent this situation and give an education that is not behind the sector. In the field of education, radical changes must be made out of the ordinary, or existing processes should be effectively modified and improved. Before the necessity of proposed change in the field of education, it is required that a situation analysis should be realized effectively.

Starting from this stalled situation which is thought to exist, the objectives should be clearly defined by investigating the attitudes of the instructors towards innovation in gastronomy education, a suitable study plan should be made and a business plan should be established by determining the methods and techniques to be used. In this context, the purpose of the study is the determination of the instructors' attitudes towards innovation in gastronomy education and as a result the recommendation of strategic applications which can ensure the better preparation of the students in the sector. The findings of the study are expected to provide a source of information for strategic planning and pilot applications to be made for economic, social development and development as the workforce in Turkey in the field of gastronomy is further upgraded in the long run.

2. Literature review

In order to understand the subject related to the study, innovation and types in the technical dimension and theoretical dimension, innovation training in education, strategic education and professional practice examples are examined.

2.1. Innovation and types of innovation

Innovation should include a new idea, a new product, process, service, learning the growth dynamics of the national service, developing / enhancing the workforce, as well as revenue generating conditions for innovative business investments (Urabe, 1988, 3). Innovation might be doing something about a new process, product or service that did not exist in the market earlier (Van Ders Duin, 2006, 48). Innovation is defined as the application of a product, a process, a new marketing method, the implementation of new organizational methods within the enterprise, the development of workplace organization external relations in a meaningful way (OECD/ Organization For Economic Co-Operation and Development, 2005, 46). Innovation is characterized by dividing it according to the subject studied.

Innovation types are evaluated in many contexts and various reductions are made. Baker (2002, 3) says that the process, the goods / services and the strategy are three main types of innovation, the radicality of each of them shows the increasing level of innovation and continuity against timeless is changeable. In other respects, four main types of innovation (Product Innovation, Process Innovation, Marketing Innovation and Organizational Innovation) are mentioned which cover the widespread impact of changes in firms' activities (OECD, 2005, 16). It is observed that innovation is treated as ten different types as the profit model, business network, structure, process, product performance, product system, service, channel, brand and customer loyalty. It is seen that these innovations are subject to research by interpreting them (Davis, 2008, 3).

2.2. Innovation in education

It is now an indisputable fact that raising the quality of the education process is the most important factor for any society to move today (Eti, 2011, iv). For this reason, important tasks fall into all social systems, primarily the education system. In this direction, it is imperative to redesign the education system so that the individuals can grow in accordance with this age, (Özmuş, 2012, 732). In other words, countries need to have social systems that can keep up with economic, social, cultural, technological and scientific changes in order to sustain their social order. The idea that there is a need for an education system capable of raising qualified human power so that these social systems can perform their functions in the best way is indisputable. Educational systems are influenced by changes in various fields, such as globalization, economic and political developments, as well as countries' own social dynamics, as well as scientific and technological developments. For this reason, countries are struggling to adapt their educational system to these changes, which are taking place in various fields (Özdemir et al., 2013, 70). This situation of the societies necessitates innovation approaches in education according to their fields of expertise.

Innovation in education is considered to be an activity that will provide contributions to improve the basic cognitive processes of individuals, such as developing problem-solving and creativity skills / competences, providing new ideas, and increasing the effectiveness of applications (Çukurbaşı, 2015, 16).

Skills play a very important role for innovation. Education at low level lags behind innovation in capacity, inadequate quality and capacity of education (Including vocational training and adult education) in all levels. The only difficulty is to establish the right balance between the limited budget allocated for training and the training of high-skilled specialists. (OECD, 2012, 18). In this context, 30 educational innovation strategies were developed by Nair (2015) and evaluated within pedagogical, organizational and non-academic dimensions. These strategies are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. 30 educational innovation strategies

No	Innovation Strategy	Pedagogical	Organizational	Non-Academic
1	<i>Personalization</i>	X		X
2	<i>Multi-Age Classes</i>	X	X	X
3	<i>Small Learning Communities</i>		X	X
4	<i>Student Advisories</i>		X	X
5	<i>Small Learning Communities with Academies</i>		X	X
6	<i>Multidisciplinary Curricula with Block Scheduling</i>	X	X	
7	<i>Cooperative Learning</i>	X		X
8	<i>Project-based Learning</i>	X		X
9	<i>Peer Tutoring</i>	X		X
10	<i>Peer Instruction</i>	X		
11	<i>Team Teaching</i>	X	X	
12	<i>Community Service Learning</i>	X	X	X
13	<i>Looping</i>		X	
14	<i>Business Partnerships for Assessment, Resources and Funding</i>	X	X	
15	<i>Global Connections</i>	X	X	X
16	<i>Internships</i>	X	X	X
17	<i>The Resurgence of Art</i>	X		X
18	<i>Laptops and Wireless Internet Technologies for Anywhere/Anytime Learning</i>	X	X	X
19	<i>Parent Involvement</i>		X	X
20	<i>Student-Led Performances</i>			X

21	<i>Non-Academic Life Skills Curricula</i>			X
22	<i>Meaningful Career Counselling</i>			X
23	<i>Social/Emotional Counselling</i>			X
24	<i>Physical Fitness Programs-Beyond Sports</i>			X
25	<i>Outdoor Learning</i>			X
26	<i>Student-Run Independent Newspaper</i>		X	X
27	<i>Relevant Staff Development and Adequate Staff Preparation Time</i>		X	
28	<i>Portfolio-Based Assessment</i>	X		X
29	<i>New Paradigm School Buildings</i>			X
30	<i>After School Programs and Community Use of the Schools</i>		X	X

Personalization therefore includes both what you learn in school and how you should learn it. The personalization of the teacher is an important element that underpins the whole of the new paradigm model of education. Age-based groups do not make any sense in the real world and they do not change the situation in the school. Students need to be clearly identified in their smallest groups, feel a group sense, feel common sense and loyalty within their group. If anyone had a magic wand in his hand and wanted to create a new system of instant education, he/she would choose this self-criticism argument. As a result, the development of real and sustainable schools will be possible when all communities are both involved in the change process and are informed of the changes (Nair, 2015).

Today, it has become a necessity to cultivate special field specialist individuals in every aspect. Higher education programs around the world are trying to expand training capacities by implementing innovative strategies to address future labour needs (Dil et al., 2012, 1217).

2.3. Innovation studies in vocational education

In a study to draw attention to innovation approaches in order to predict the development of knowledge and professional competencies of students in nursing education, the following conclusions were reached. Based on community based nursing education, cooperation between sectors such as business and industry should be realized. Instructors should prepare an educational guide that does not limit individual approach and creativity.

Özdemir et al. (2013) states that, in the light of the views of primary school administrators, in the time of innovative changes in the education system, the infrastructure must be planned in advance, in accordance with long-term strategic plans and with a participatory policy.

Yüksel et al. (2013) studying the contribution of innovation to the enterprises by the vocational schools which undertake the mission of raising the intermediate staff in the enterprises, have definitely determined the expansion of the electronic technology and the increase of the state support for the rotation of the academicians as an indispensable for the innovation in education.

3. Methodology

3.1. Population and sample

The population of the research is composed of 26 schools / faculties providing undergraduate education associated with "Gastronomy and Culinary Arts" in Turkish universities and 46 vocational schools offering "Culinary" two-year-degree degree education. In this context, online survey questionnaires were delivered to 86 instructors and faculty members in 68 vocational schools via internet sites and instructors of the related departments by electronic mail and feedback was obtained from 61 instructors. 11 questionnaire forms were not filled properly and they have same unfilled parts. That's why these questionnaires were removed from the data set. Because of the application technique of the study, participation was expected on the basis of volunteerism, so no other sampling method was used. Statistical information about the sample size are 99% confidence level, 0.01 level of significance (α).

3.2. Data collection method

An online questionnaire was used as data collection tool in the research. The online questionnaire consists of one section. In the questionnaire, there are 18 descriptive questions which are thought to help participants to predict approaches to gastronomy and culinary education in higher education and their attitudes towards innovation in education and 1 question to communicate suggestions on gastronomy / culinary education.

Student Selection and Placement System (ÖSYS) “2015 Guide to Higher Education Programs and Quotas” was examined in order to determine the higher education schools offering two year or four year degrees (associate and bachelor’s degree) in gastronomy and culinary arts. The Internet sites of the faculties and vocational schools were visited one by one and an online questionnaire link was sent to the electronic mail addresses of the instructors of the related departments. The evaluation period of the items in the questionnaire of participating instructors was determined as 9 minutes 36 seconds on average. Until 17.12.2015 it was expected to receive feedback from the participants. Subsequently, by inactivating the questionnaire link, the data obtained were analysed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS).

3.3. Data analysis

A descriptive analysis was conducted on the data set in order to predict the attitudes of participating instructors on gastronomy and culinary education in higher education and their attitudes towards innovation in education. Frequency (f) and percentage (%) analysis were conducted to reach descriptive statistical information of participating instructors. Direct quotations were made in order to reflect strikingly the views of academicians on the semi-structured questionnaire (Cresswell, 2015, 47) prepared to learn the participants' interpretations of the research problem (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013, 256).

4. Findings

Demographic characteristics and knowledge of the instructors about gastronomy and tourism education are presented by frequency (f) and percentage (%) analysis in Table 2.

Table 2. Demographic information

Variables	Group	f	%
Gender	Female	24	48,0
	Male	26	52,0
Age	21-30	16	32,0
	31-40	20	40,0
	41-50	11	22,0
	51-60	2	4,0
	61 and more	1	2,0
Nationality	Turkish	48	96,0
	Other	1	2,0
Education	Undergraduate	12	24,0
	Master’s Degree	20	40,0
	Ph.D.	16	32,0
Academic Title	Professor Dr.	2	4,0
	Associate Professor Dr.	3	6,0
	Assistant Professor Dr.	6	12,0
	Instructor Dr.	2	4,0
	Instructor	37	74,0
Academic Experience	Less than 5 Years	22	44,0
	6-10 Years	9	18,0
	11-15 Years	5	10,0
	16-20 Years	5	10,0
	More than 15 Years	6	12,0

<i>Field of Graduation</i>	<i>Gastronomy and Culinary Arts</i>	12	24,0
	<i>Tourism and Hotel Management</i>	16	32,0
	<i>Travel Management</i>	1	2,0
	<i>Hospitality Management</i>	2	4,0
	<i>Food and Beverage Management</i>	1	2,0
	<i>Business Administration</i>	1	2,0
	<i>Family Economics and Nutrition</i>	10	20,0
	<i>Food Engineering</i>	7	14,0

According to Table 2, participants consist of 26 males and 24 females. Participants in gastronomy and culinary education were found to be between 21 and 40 years of age. 20 of the participating instructors have graduate degrees (40,0%), 16 of them have doctorate degrees (32,0%) and 12 of them have degrees of bachelor degree (24,0%). Gastronomy and culinary education are given by instructors (74.0%) whose academic experience is mainly less than 5 years (44.0%). Graduation areas of participating academicians; Tourism and Hotel Management (30,0%), Gastronomy and Culinary Arts (24,0%), Family Economy and Nutrition (20,0%) and Food Engineering (14,0%).

Table 3. Participants' culinary education and sector follow-up related information

Variables	Groups	f	%
<i>Culinary Education</i>	<i>Not available</i>	18	36,0
	<i>Course</i>	3	6,0
	<i>Diploma</i>	14	28,0
	<i>Other</i>	10	20,0
<i>Practical Education about Culinary in Certain Periods</i>	<i>Yes</i>	17	34,0
	<i>No</i>	31	62,0
<i>Desire to Have a Practical Education</i>	<i>Yes</i>	23	46,0
	<i>No</i>	12	24,0
<i>By Whom to be Educated?</i>	<i>Individual Chefs</i>	25	47,1
	<i>Chefs Associated with Hotels</i>	17	32,0
	<i>Other</i>	11	20,7
<i>Proficiency of the Possessed Education Level in terms of the Courses Taught Following New Developments and Practices</i>	<i>Sufficient</i>	40	80,0
	<i>Not Sufficient</i>	9	18,0
<i>Method of Following the Sector</i>	<i>Yes</i>	48	96,0
	<i>No</i>	1	2,0
	<i>Competition</i>	26	16,0
	<i>Periodicals</i>	30	18,5
	<i>Internet</i>	44	27,1
	<i>Symposium</i>	26	16,0
	<i>Congress</i>	29	17,9
	<i>Other</i>	7	4,3

When Table 3 is examined, it is observed that 36% of the participants do not have a culinary education and the others receive culinary training through methods such as course (6.0%), diploma (28.0%) and sector experience / taking courses from various institutions (20.0%).

Seventeen academicians (34.0%) were trained about culinary in certain periods and 23 academicians (46.0%) stated that they wanted to take this training for practical purposes. In addition, as a response to by whom to be educated 50.0% by independent chefs, 34.0% by chefs working at a hotel, and 22.0% by private institutions, by Michelin star foreign chefs, by original centers relate to the area and by specialists. 96.0% of the participating academicians follow the new practices and developments in the sector via internet, periodical publication, congress, symposium, competition.

Table 4. Information about courses given

The Attitudes Of Instructors Towards Innovation In Gastronomy Education

Variables	Groups	f	%
Education Level of Students	Two-year degree	34	44,7
	Undergraduate	25	32,8
	Master's Degree	12	15,7
	Ph.D.	5	6,5
Structure of the Lessons	Practical	23	46,0
	Theoretical	24	48,0
Physical Conditions for Practice Lessons	Sufficient	40	80,0
	Not Sufficient	7	14,0
Courses Taught	Introduction to Gastronomy	14	5,1
	Introduction to Tourism	8	2,9
	Principles of Nutrition	20	7,3
	Bar and Beverages	6	2,1
	Food Science and Safety	13	4,7
	Food and Beverage Service	14	5,1
	Basic Culinary	21	7,6
	World Cuisines and Practice	21	7,6
	Menu Management	20	7,3
	Legal Aspects of Food	7	2,5
	Food and Beverage Automation Systems	1	0,3
	Kitchen Management	21	7,6
	Cold Kitchen	14	5,1
	Creative Culinary	15	5,4
	Food and Beverage Management	15	5,4
	Wine Science	3	1,0
	Turkish Cuisine and Practices	25	9,1
	Food and Culture	10	3,6
	Banquet Management	13	4,7
	Pastry and Chocolate Production	12	4,3

When the education given by the academicians is examined in Table 4, it is seen that they mainly provide gastronomy and culinary education at the undergraduate and two-year degree levels. 46% of them have been carrying out practical courses.

"Do academicians who mainly hold theoretical courses (48.0%) have to be educated about culinary?" This comment was put forward by an academician. 80.0% of academicians said that both physical education and practical conditions are enough in terms of the lessons they teach. In the findings obtained, 25 academicians said "Turkish Cuisine and Practices", 21 academicians conducted "Basic Culinary / World Cuisine and Practice / Kitchen Management" and 20 academicians conducted "Nutrition Principles / Menu Management" courses. Not listed but offered courses within the scope of curriculum are as Food and Beverage Cost Control, Food and Beverage Management, Food Formulation, Sensory Analysis, History of Gastronomy, Restaurant Management, Institutionalization in Tourism Establishments, Local Cuisine, Gastronomy Research and Writing, Food Hygiene and Sanitation, Material Knowledge, Ottoman Cuisine, Ornamental Art, Culinary Methods, Tourism Economy, Tourism Sociology, Management Organization, Local Cuisine, Kitchen Products, Hot Kitchen, Kitchen Applications".

A semi-structured questionnaire was prepared, "Are there any proposals you would like to add?" so that academicians can express their ideas and suggestions on the subject. Various points of view have been reflected in terms of academicians' gastronomy / culinary education at the higher education level.

"Teachers in Culinary Education schools need to work in the sector during certain periods during the year. An education unconnected from the sector cannot be considered."

“The gastronomy area is perceived only as an application. People working in this area need to know ‘the structure of foods and the effects of different processes on the structure of food’. Only in this way can this field reach a scientific infrastructure. If the scientific infrastructure is not formed, the field cannot stand. For this reason, we need to change our perspective on this area. Nothing is happening coincidentally in the preparation of food. If scientific infrastructure is created, applications such as changes / innovations in practice will be better understood. Progress with scientific steps might be recorded.”

“I believe that the formation training that should be taken to become a teacher affiliated to the Ministry of National Education should be taken by everyone who wants to make an academic career. I have seen enough lack in the environment in which I work that it is necessary to be a good instructor. I believe that in the first place we are in dialogue with many students rather than teaching and the flow chart types of the courses should be learned. Thank you.”

“First of all, I wish you success in your work, my sector needs to be made up of people who have both academic and work experience, but I think that it will not be beneficial to students who are solely academic or solely sector experienced. BEST REGARDS”

“University participations in national or international competitions in our country should be free. It will be possible to see more of the students in the sector by participating in these competitions.”

“The food and beverage sector has a rapidly changing and changing character. For that reason, trainers need to renew themselves. One may be inadequate in self-training in some cases (economic). Because you can grow up by reading and researching in theory, but in practice the courses are quite expensive. I think that employers’ institutions need to contribute to these fees for educators.”

When these suggestions put forward in the scope of the study are examined carefully, it is seen that both theoretical and practical infrastructure of gastronomy / culinary education should be strong. It is possible to reach various conclusions about gastronomy / culinary education through various predictions by both structured questions and semi-structured question.

5. Conclusion and recommendations

The theoretical knowledge of the people raised for the sectors where the practice is important should be strong. In addition, the development of implementation skills is vital to the advancement of that sector. In this context, it is necessary that the people who train the staff (educator / academicians) in these sectors should have the same qualifications. The structure of education higher education is usually as the forms of academicians-sector, academicians-students, sector-students (trainees). It is argued that the sector-academician dimension should be added to these associations. Given the comments of participants, an innovative attitude should be developed in gastronomy / culinary education. By means of the following model, it is aimed to add a new relation to existing education dimensions.

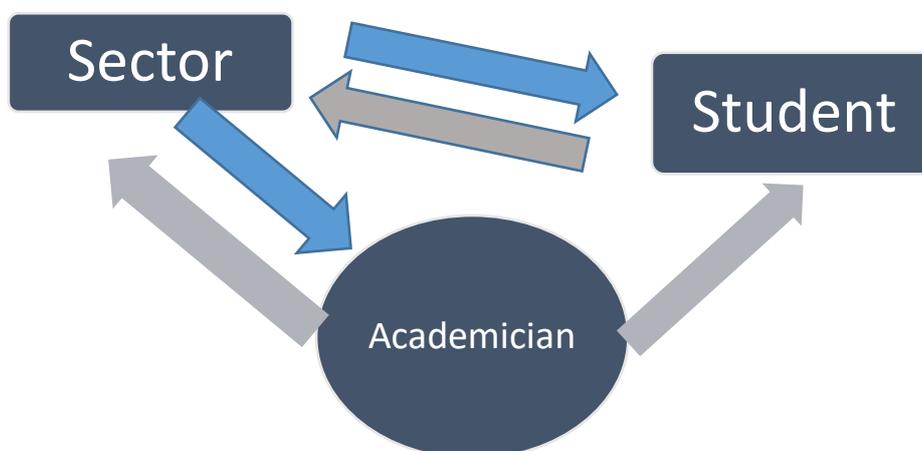


Figure 1. Dimensions of Gastronomy/Culinary Education

There are a variety of suggestions from participant academicians who teach gastronomy /

culinary education. They suggest that academicians should make practice in the sector, competition fees should be paid by the universities, new solutions should be developed due to in order to meet high cost of the practice training, the practice trainers should have the vision and famously proven chefs. This is precisely the case when the proposal is submitted as a recommendation through this study. As a result of the training of the academicians by the people in the sector, it may be possible to make qualified personnel more qualified for the needs of the sector. Pilot studies in which academicians are brought together with people from the sector can be put to practical use and can lead to research and development projects on the subject.

6. References

- Baker, K. A. (2002). *Innovation*. Retrieved at November 26, 2015, from <http://www.au.af.mil/au/awc/awcgate/doe/benchmark/ch14.pdf>
- Creswell, J. W. (2015). *Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri. Beş Yaklaşım Göre Nitel Araştırma Ve Araştırma Deseni* (2.Baskı Çeviri Editörleri: Mesut Bütün, Selçuk Beşir Demir). Siyasal Kitabevi: Ankara
- Çukurbaşı, B. (2015). *Başarı ve İnovasyon (Eğitimde Teknoloji Entegrasyonu)*. MEB Zirvedekilerle Buluşma Eğitim Programı Semineri. Retrieved at November 26, 2015, from <http://egitim.bartın.edu.tr/files/sunular/basariveinovasyon.pdf>
- Davis, P. (2008). *Innovation White-Paper*. Scanlon Leadership Network, Noertwind.
- Dil, S., Uzun, M. & Aykanat, B. (2012). Hemşirelik Eğitiminde İnovasyon. *International Journal of Human Sciences*, (9) 2, ss.1217-1228.
- Eti, A. (2011). *Sunuş*. Uluslararası Eğitim Forumu II, Eğitimde İnovasyon, Türk Eğitim Derneği & SEBİT Eğitim ve Bilgi Teknolojileri A.Ş., İşkur Matbaacılık: Ankara.
- Keeley, L., Walters, H., Pikkell, R. & Quinn, B. (2013). *Ten Types of Innovation: The Discipline of Building Breakthroughs*. John Wiley & Sons: New Jersey.
- Nair, P. (2001). *30 Strategies for Education Innovation*. Retrieved at November 27, 2015, from www.fieldingnair.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/05/EdInnovationNair5.pdf
- OECD (Organization For Economic Co-Operation and Development). (2006). *Oslo Manual: Guidelines For Collecting And Interpreting Innovation Data*.
- OECD (Organization For Economic Co-Operation and Development). (2012). *Innovation for Development: A Discussion of The Issues And An Overview Of Work Of The OECD Directorate For Science, Technology And Industry*
- OECD (Organization For Economic Co-Operation and Development). (2005). *Oslo Manual: Guidelines For Collecting and Interpreting Innovation Data (3. Baskı)*. OECD: European Commission.
- ÖSYM (Measurement, Selection and Placement Center). (2015). *2015-ÖSYS Yükseköğretim Programları ve Kontenjanları Kılavuzu*. Retrieved at November 28, 2015, from <http://www.osym.gov.tr/belge/1-23560/2015-osys-yuksekogretim-programlari-ve-kontenjanlari-ki-.html>
- Özdemir, G., Aydın, T. & Bozkurt, A. T. (2013). Eğitim Sistemindeki İnovatif Değişimlere Yönelik İlköğretim Okul Yöneticilerinin Görüşleri (Gaziantep İli Örneği). *Eğitim ve Öğretim Araştırmaları Dergisi, Kasım 2013, Cilt:2, Sayı:4, Makale No:07,ss. 70-77*.
- Özmuşul, M. (2012). Öğretmen Eğitiminde Yaratıcılık ve İnovasyon. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi, Eylül 2012, Cilt:20, No:3, ss.731-746*.
- Urabe, K. (Eds. Kuniyoshi Urabe, John Child, Tadao Kagono). (1988). *Innovationand Management: International Comparisons*. Walter de Gruyter: Berlin-New York.
- Van Der Duin, P. (2006). *QualitativeFuturesResearchforInnovation*. EburonDelft: Hollanda.
- Yıldırım, A. & Şimşek, H. (2013). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri (9. Baskı)*. Seçkin Yayıncılık: Ankara
- Yüksel, A., Uçkun G., Dinçel, G. & Demir, B. (2013). İnovasyon Yeteneğinin Artırılmasında Üniversite Sanayi İşbirliği ve Meslek Yüksekokullarının Rolü. *Electronic Journal of Vocational Colleges-Aralık 2013, UMYOS Özel Sayı, ss.21-28*.

The Acquisition of Healthy Life Behaviors to Children

Neriman Aral, Ayten Doğan Keskin

1. Introduction

Health promotion initiatives contribute to the formation of a healthy society (Şimşek et al., 2012). According to the World Health Organization, 70-80% of deaths in developed countries and 40-50% of deaths in underdeveloped countries are caused by lifestyle-related diseases (Dickey & Janick, 2001). For this reason, healthy living behaviors should be given to individuals from childhood. Health promotion strategies; individual empowerment (health literacy and health behavior), empowerment of the community, strengthening of the health system, inter-sectoral cooperation to build healthy community politics, and capacity (World Health Organization [WHO], 2009).

Health behaviors are defined as the totality of knowledge, practices and approaches carried out in order to improve health and health-related actions (Bebiş, Akpunar, Özdemir, & Kılıç, 2015). Positive health behavior makes it possible to improve health; when the behavior of the individual is negative, it is an important disease effect (Özvarış, 2012). Providing positive interventions and health behaviors from childhood to the individuals will help to improve health by protecting them from many diseases and disability risks throughout their lives (Geckil & Yılmaz, 2006). United States Centers for Disease Prevention and Control risky health behaviors encountered by adolescents; tobacco and other substance abuse, suicide, traffic accidents, insecure sexual life, unprompted-prompted injury and violence, poor nutritional habits, and physical inactivity (WHO, 2001).

In this study, children's understanding of healthy lifestyle behaviors is explained under seven headings. These are education, nutrition, physical activity, play and friends, family attitudes and behaviors, sleep and habits.

2. Education

It must be equipped with the necessary behavioral patterns so that the individual can maintain his life in a balanced manner, adapt to collective society, become a constructive member. This situation, which is very important in terms of individual and society, can only be realized through education (Özkan, 2006).

Healthy human power is needed for a nation to be able to develop and develop from the economic front (Aksu & Gürkan, 2010). Education is one of the most effective ways to raise the level of health of society and to build health consciousness (Rozmus, Evans, Wysochansky, & Mixon, 2005). Education constitutes the basic element in the consciousness of the society, and in the development of it. It allows the individual to develop the innate abilities in appropriate conditions. It also provides education, adaptation to life, making life more meaningful (Chew, Palmer, Slonska, & Subbiah, 2002).

Increasing the educational level of parents is regarded as a factor that facilitates parents' understanding and understanding of health information. Accurate and reliable health information can keep individuals away from health-threatening behaviors while motivating healthy lifestyles (Bebiş et al., 2015). Parents who can transform the right information they learn into health behaviors become the right role models, especially for their children (Yüksel, 2012). Lack of nutritional knowledge or inaccurate nutrition knowledge can directly affect the growth and development of children and can create developmental tension (Sabbağ & Sürücüoğlu, 2011). In order to maintain healthy eating habits, proper nutrition and healthy life, individuals need to have adequate nutrition knowledge. Nutrition information is also available only through nutrition education. It has been reported that nutrition education programs have a direct impact on nutritional information and diet behaviors (Sabbağ & Sürücüoğlu, 2011).

In an advanced society, the individual can comply with the thoughts and teachings conveyed to him in words and in writing. For this reason, health education in developed countries can be considered as an act of transferring knowledge. Health education should be done not only by

conveying information by writing, writing or displaying the person, but by giving it a new behavior and by getting used to using the information it has earned (Gözüm & Bağ, 1998). Culture is a social thing. From human birth to death, he lives in a society. For example, a child learns language, food, clothing, environment, social life, values, norms in a culture. From this point of view, culture is a concept that includes all that people in society have learned and shared, and almost everything that science has examined has been shaped by culture (Özkan, 2006). For this reason, food culture should be included in educational programs.

3. Nutrition

It is possible that individuals can live a healthy life in adulthood by developing a regular eating habit from early childhood period (Güler, 2003; Merdol, 2008). One of the most common chronic diseases in childhood is obesity. In the World Health Organization (WHO) report, attention is drawn to the fact that the obesity epidemic is one of the world's most important public health challenges, and that the trend is particularly alarming for children and young people and creates more health burden for future (Ergül & Kalkım, 2011). Risk factors that play a role in the development of obesity in childhood are activity inadequacy, long-term television watching, long-term computer use, decreased fiber intake, and fast food type eating habits (Vicente-Rodríguez et al., 2008). Obesity can also cause other chronic diseases such as diabetes, hypertension, orthopedic, psychopathological problems.

It is also reported that during the infancy period, the duration of breastfeeding, the type, quantity and start times of supplementary foods affect the formation of obesity (Imperatore, 2004). Therefore, from the time of pregnancy, the mother can play a role in preventing obesity, which is treated as a public health problem, by balancing and careful about her own nutrition and child nutrition. In childhood and adolescence, internet based obesity prevention programs improve the health behaviors of children and adolescents (Whittemore, Jeon, & Grey, 2012).

Along with the increase of obesity and the importance of body image in adolescence, diet programs are being introduced to get rid of excess weight in the lives of adolescents. With these unconscious and suddenly implemented programs, serious health problems can also arise. For example, anorexia nervosa characterized by eating and not eating to lose weight to threaten one's health and physical integrity. This eating disorder is one of the health problems that arise with the importance of body image in adolescence and adversely affect the life of the adolescent.

4. Physical Activity

In every of life period, healthy eating habits and regular physical activity form the basis of health. Physical activity is very effective in preventing and treating many chronic diseases such as obesity, diabetes, hypertension, coronary heart disease and osteoporosis (Evans & Cyr-Campbell, 1997). For this reason, opportunities should be provided to enable children to acquire active living behavior and environments should be created. These behaviors should be tried to be taught at home, at school, on the road, in all the environments the child is in. For example, children can be moved by walking on short distances using ladders instead of elevators. The period when sports and physical activity are most effective is childhood period (Çelik & Şahin, 2013). For this reason, children's spore orientation has great importance for healthy life in their life.

5. Play and Friends

The game is the child's work, and every environment can be a playground for the child. In the infancy, the game begins with sounds. Game stages are games based on cooperation, alone playing games, playing parallel games, playing games together. The play is necessary and important for the child's spiritual and bodily healthy development. As children grow up, peer groups become more influenced by their behavior, and peer influence dominates in youth period. For this reason, the child's environment may have a positive or negative effect on health (Gözüm & Bağ, 1998). For example, a child may appreciation a friend in the basketball group, and the child may start playing basketball or a child found in a group of friends who smoke, a child may start smoking.

6. Family Attitudes and Behaviors

Even when your body is sleeping, it continues to work. There is approximately 12 hours between dinner and breakfast. During this time, the body uses all of its nutrients. If breakfast is not done in the morning, there is not enough energy in your brain. In this case, problems such as fatigue, headache, attention, and lack of perception are experienced. Children's school success falls. When breakfast is not done, the body uses its own tissues, and the resistance against diseases is reduced. Fatigue, exhaustion can usually be abolished with saturation (Anonim, 2004). Parents should make the habit of doing breakfast for their children's future. The meal should be eaten on the dinner table. When a child does not have a meal or when the time to eat is prolonged, they should not be eaten in front of the television or after the child. With these behaviors, the child can not gain a habit of eating, can not learn the rules of the table, can not see the food he eats, can not take the food smell, and can not eat himself alone. Parents are model of their children about their eating habits. Changing fast food eating habits, and avoiding high-calorie foods before bedtime, healthy meals should be offered to children at break times (Pyle et al., 2006). Also in the kitchen, the snack drawers or prize drawers filled with ready packed snacks should be removed and the snacks should not be presented to the children as a reward.

With the industrialization and urbanization in the Turkish society, the intensive participation of family members in business life has forced people to eat outside the home. Today, this lifestyle has changed the eating habits of people. The food sector has prepared, semi-prepared, frozen foods for the consumers who are forced to eat fast food (Sürücüoğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2000). Among children and young people, "fast food" is considered an activity, and its popularity is increasing rapidly. In the "fast food" style diet, the food items are either inadequate or excessive. This situation creates the basis for chronic diseases such as obesity, diabetes, cardiovascular diseases and cancer. Cooking at home is a habit. In addition, responsibilities should be given to the child and the adolescents during the preparation and cooking stages, and during the preparation of the dinner table. The child may develop a sense of belonging to the family through responsibility. The child's social development is also supported. The parents' attitudes in the development of a healthy personality are largely important. Parents are required to have a safe, respectful, consistent, sensitive, collaborative, accepting, and empathy-sharing attitude (Can Yasar, Aral, & Kandır, 2003) for achieve healthy lifestyles, and for healthy communication with their children.

7. Sleep

Sleep is important and necessary in the growth and development of infants, children, and adolescents. Sleep is also necessary for the individual to be healthy throughout life (Çöl Araz, Yılmaz, & Gökçay, 2013). Sleep is different in newborn, infancy, pre-school, school age, and adolescence. The need for sleep is 16-18 hours per day during newborn infancy, and 8.5-9.3 hours per day during adolescence (Bülbül, Kurt, Ünlü, & Kırılı, 2010). Sleeping problems such as awakening at night, difficulty falling asleep, resistance to going to bed can be seen in infancy and childhood period (Çöl Araz et al., 2013). During adolescence, sleeping problems such as frequent waking at night, refusal to wake up in the morning, excessive daytime sleepiness (Bülbül et al., 2010) can be seen. To reduce these problems, sleep routines should be organized, and sleep should be made at the same time every night in childhood period (Çöl Araz et al., 2013). To reduce these problems, adolescents' are advised to direct to the sports, to make the night sleeping period sufficient, and to make habits that will facilitate sleeping (Bülbül et al., 2010).

8. Habits

The habits related to the unhealthy behaviors of the children and adolescents include excessive television watching, using mass media such as computer, internet, mobile phone; smoking, alcohol, and substance use. Television, which is mass media, has positive and negative effects on children. Television has positive effects such as enjoyable time, rest, getting new information, as well as some adversities when excessive television is watched. These negativities are aggressive behaviors, violence, learning difficulties, falling academic achievement, night fears, anxiety, sleep disorders, nutritional disorders, and obesity (Altınkılıç & Özkan, 2014). Excessive use of other mass media such

as computers, the internet and mobile phones can be addictive, adversely affect the physical and mental health due to developmental, sociological, psychological, physical effects. Smoking prevalence among adolescents in Turkey ranges from 4.1% to 37.5%; alcohol use prevalence is 4.4%. Alcohol use among adolescents is lower than the other countries, as smoking among adolescents in our country is similar to the results from studies in other countries (Güler, Güler, Ulusoy, & Bekar, 2009). Community-based work and support training programs are needed to prevent the use of alcohol and cigarettes. Human beings have very little behavioral pattern from birth. Bandura tells that the learning of the person is made by observing others. According to Bandura, observational learning is not just one person's imitation of the activities of another person, but the knowledge gained by cognitive processing of events on the environment. Human beings learn in the social environment where many behaviors are experienced. Many behaviors in the health field are observed to be obtained from the close social environment of the person (Gözüm & Bağ, 1998). For this reason, the social environment should not be ignored in the development and education of the child. During the acquisition of healthy lifestyle behaviors, it should not be forgotten that every environment for the child is a learning environment.

9. Conclusion

Changes of lifestyle of human beings that have been come about for past 20 years (increase in high energy food consumption, increase in dine out habit, becoming prevalent of an environment which requires less physical activity) have reduced the probability of forming and maintaining a balanced diet and a healthy lifestyle for children (Ahrens et al., 2006). World Health Organization reports that about two thirds of premature deaths and one third of total burden of illnesses among adults are directly associated with unhealthy behaviors like tobacco habit during adolescence period, lack of physical activity, unprotected sexual intercourse and violent acts (Kim, 2011). Health intellection today, sets forth the health-centered care approach; which protects, maintains and improves the health of individual, family and society. According to World Health Organization data, reasons of 70 – 80 % of the deaths in developed countries and 40 – 50 % of the deaths in under-developed countries are diseases which arise in relation to lifestyle. Infectious diseases that caused mass mortalities in the past have given way to illnesses which are related to lifestyle, like hypertension, fatness, type 2 diabetes and coronary heart diseases (İlhan, Batmaz, & Akhan, 2007).

Positive and negative behaviors practiced during childhood and adolescence will turn into habits at later ages. Therefore, experts who are working with infants, children and adolescents should inform parents and children in the matter of gaining healthy behaviors, and should direct them when needed. Public service announcements should be created, programs should be developed and exercises based upon family, school and society should be put into practice on this subject by experts.

10. References

- Ahrens, W., Bammann, K., de Henauw, S., Halford, J., Palou, A., Pigeot, I., Siani, A. & Sjöström, M. (2006). Understanding and preventing childhood obesity and related disorder-IDEFICS:A European multilevel epidemiological approach. *Nutrition, Metabolism & Cardiovascular Diseases*, 16 (4), 302–308. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.numecd.2006.01.011>
- Aksu, T., & Gürkan, A. (2010). Öğretmenlerin sağlıklı yaşam davranışlarının incelenmesi [The Evaluation Of the Healthy-Living Behaviours Of the Teachers] *Sağlık ve Toplum*, 20(2), 23- 30.
- Altıncılık, Z., & Özkan, H. (2014). Televizyon izlemenin 1-6 yaş çocuk sağlığı üzerindeki etkilerine yönelik annelerin tutum ve davranışlarının belirlenmesi [Determination of mothers' attitudes and behaviors about the effects of TV-watching upon the health of children aged 1-6 years]. *İzmir Dr. Behçet Uz Çocuk Hastalıkları Dergisi*, 4(3), 186-194.
- Anonim (2004). *Türkiye'ye Özgü Beslenme Rehberi*. Retrieved at July 09, 2017, from http://beslenme.gov.tr/content/files/yayinlar/kitaplar/diger_kitaplar/beslenme_rehberi.pdf
- Bebiş, H., Akpunar, D., Özdemir, S., & Kılıç, S. (2015). Bir ortaöğretim okulundaki adölesanların sağlığı geliştirme davranışlarının incelenmesi [Assessment of health promotion behavior of adolescents in a high school]. *Gülhane Tıp Dergisi*, 57, 129-135.

- Bülbül, S., Kurt, G., Ünlü, E., & Kırılı, E. (2010). Adolesanlarda uyku sorunları ve etkileyen faktörler [Sleep problems in adolescence and the effective factors]. *Çocuk Sağlığı ve Hastalıkları Dergisi*, 53, 204-210.
- Can Yaşar, M., Aral, N., & Kandır, A. (2003). *Okul Öncesi Eğitim*. İstanbul: Ya-Pa Yayınları.
- Chew, F., Palmer, S., Slonska, Z., & Subbiah, K. (2002). Enhancing health knowledge, health beliefs, and health behavior in Poland through a health promoting television program series. *Journal of Health Communication*, 7(3), 179-196.
- Çelik, A., & Şahin, M. (2013). Spor ve çocuk gelişimi [Sports and child development]. *The Journal of Academic Social Science Studies JASSS-International Journal of Social Science*, 6(1), 467-478.
- Çöl Araz, N., Yılmaz, K., & Gökçay, G. (2013). Sleep habits and factors associated with sleep problems among children in Southeastern Turkey. *Türkiye Klinikleri Journal of Medical Sciences*, 33(3), 685-691.
- Dickey, R. A., & Janick, J. J. (2001). Lifestyle modifications in the prevention and treatment of hypertension. *Endocrine Practice*, 7(5), 392-399.
- Ergül, Ş., & Kaklım, A. (2011). Önemli bir kronik hastalık: Çocukluk ve ergenlik döneminde obezite [A Major Chronic Disease: Obesity in Childhood and Adolescence]. *TAF Preventive Medicine Bulletin*, 10(2), 223-230.
- Evans, W. J., & Cyr-Campbell, D. (1997). Nutrition, exercise, and healthy aging. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 97(6), 632-638.
- Geckil, E., & Yıldız, S. (2006). Adolescent health behaviors and problems. *Adolescence*, 3, 26-34.
- Gözüm, S., & Bağ, B. (1998). Etkin sağlık eğitiminde sosyal bilişsel öğrenme kuramının kullanımı [The Using Of The Theory Of The Social Cognitive Learning In Effective Health Education]. *Journal of Anatolia Nursing and Health Sciences*, 1(2), 1-12.
- Güler, A. (2003). *İlköğretim ikinci kademesindeki eğitim gören öğrencilere verilen beslenme eğitiminin öğrencilerin beslenme durumu, bilgi ve alışkanlıklarına etkisi*. [Determining the effect of nutritional education imparted to the students studying at the second stage of the primary school on their nutrition, knowledge nutritional status and habits] (Unpublished masters dissertation). Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Güler, N., Güler, G., Ulusoy, H., & Bekar, M. (2009). Lise öğrencileri arasında sigara, alkol kullanımı ve intihar düşüncesi sıklığı [Prevalence of smoking, alcohol use, and suicidal ideation of high-school students]. *Cumhuriyet Medical Journal*, 31(4), 340-345.
- İlhan, N., Batmaz, M., & Akhan, L. U. (2010). Üniversite öğrencilerinin sağlıklı yaşam biçimi davranışları [Healthy Lifestyle Behaviors of University Students]. *Maltepe Üniversitesi Hemşirelik Bilim ve Sanatı Dergisi*, 3(3), 34-44.
- Imperatore, G. (2006). Childhood obesity: is it time for action?. *Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases*, 16(4), 235-238.
- Kim, Y. (2011). Adolescent's health behaviours and its associations with psychological variables. *Central European journal of public health*, 19(4), 205-209.
- Merdol, T. (2008). *Beslenme eğitimi ve danışmanlığı*. Sağlık Bakanlığı (Yayın No: 726). Ankara: Klasmat Matbaacılık.
- Özkan, H. H. (2006). Popüler kültür ve eğitim [Popular Culture and Education]. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi*, 14(1), 29-38.
- Özvarış Ş.B. (2012). *Sağlığı geliştirme ve sağlık eğitimi*. Ankara: Hacettepe Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Pyle, S. A., Sharkey, J., Yetter, G., Felix, E., Furlong, M. J., & Poston, W.S. (2006). Fighting an epidemic: The role of schools in reducing childhood obesity. *Psychology in the Schools*, 43(3), 361-376. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.20146>
- Rozmus, C. L., Evans, R., Wysochansky, M., & Mixon, D. (2005). An analysis of health promotion and risk behaviors of freshman college students in a rural southern setting. *Journal of Pediatric Nursing*, 20(1), 25-33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pedn.2004.12.004>
- Sabbağ, Ç., & Sürücüoğlu, M. S. (2011). İlköğretim öğrencilerine verilen beslenme eğitiminin beslenme tutum ve davranışlarına etkisinin değerlendirilmesi [Evaluation of the Influence of

- the Nutrition Education to be Provided to the Primary Students on the Nutrition Attitudes and Behaviors]. *Electronic Journal of Food Technologies*, 6(3), 1-13.
- Şimşek, H., Öztoprak, D., İkizoğlu, E., Safalı, F., Yavuz, Ö., Onur, Ö., Tekel, Ş., & Çiftçi, Ş. (2012). Tıp fakültesi öğrencilerinde sağlıklı yaşam biçimi davranışları ve ilişkili etmenler [Healthy Lifestyle Behaviours and Related Factors Of Medical School Students]. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Tıp Fakültesi Dergisi*, 26(3), 151-157.
- Sürücüoğlu, M. S., & Çakıroğlu, F. P. (2000). Ankara üniversitesi öğrencilerinin hızlı hazır yiyecek tercihleri üzerinde bir araştırma [The Research on Fast Food Preferences of University Students of Ankara]. *Tarım Bilimleri Dergisi*, 6(3), 116-121.
- Vicente-Rodríguez, G., Rey-López, J. P., Martín-Matillas, M., Moreno, L. A., Wärnberg, J., Redondo, C., Redondo, C., P., Delgado, M., Marcos, A., Castillo, M., & Bueno, M. (2008). Television watching, videogames, and excess of body fat in Spanish adolescents: The AVENA study. *Nutrition*, 24(7), 654-662. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nut.2008.03.011>
- Whittemore, R., Jeon, S., & Grey, M. (2013). An internet obesity prevention program for adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 52(4), 439-447.
- WHO (World Health Organization). (2001). *The second decade. WHO, Department of Child and Adolescent Health and Development*. Retrieved at July 11, 2017, from http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/64320/1/WHO_FRH_ADH_98.18_Rev.1.pdf
- WHO (World Health Organization). (2009). *Promoting Health and Development: Closing the Implementation Gap, World Health Organization*. Retrieved at July 11, 2017, from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/events/meetings/7gchp/en/>
- Yüksel, H. (2012). Üniversite öğrencilerinin sağlığı geliştirici yaşam biçimi davranışlarına etki eden sosyal faktörler [Social Factors That Influence University Students' Health Promoting Lifestyle Behaviors]. *Dumlupınar University Journal of Social Science/Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 34, 137-150.

The Views of Classroom Teachers for Qualified Teacher

Bilgen Kiral, Bertan Akyol

1. Introduction

Qualified individuals, qualified products, qualified administrators and qualified education are the basis of social development, and keeping up with the level of contemporary civilizations. The word of “quality” is defined as features observed without measurement (Hançerlioğlu, 1970, 195) the feature of being good or bad that shows how something is and distinguishes it from others (Dictionary of Turkish Language Association, 2016), and somebody or something being distinguished from others, having a unique features (Oxford Dictionary, 2016). Qualified education is the basis of qualified product and qualified individuals. Education is founded on students, teachers and educational programme. The most important of these is teacher factor. The quality and efficiency of education and teaching are directly related with the quality of teachers (Şişman, 2001).

Good and Brophy (1994) define the teachers, who can value educational time in the best way, use different materials in accordance with student needs, plan different opportunities to develop skills and knowledge of students, enable student progress and are active, as qualified teachers. Qualified teachers provide motivation to attain objectives; and conduct re-teaching when they consider necessary. Additionally, they are teachers, who provide active participation of students in the lessons, guide student skilfully, and encourage students.

Wortruba and Wright (1975, cited in: Witcher and Onwuegbuzie, 1999) listed the characteristics of qualified teachers as follows. They are educators, who are intellectual in their fields, do their jobs fondly, teach the subjects enthusiastically, use different teaching strategies and techniques, are flexible in terms of technique, communicate with students effectively, behave students positively, and are just in assessing achievements and behaviours of students. Whitlock and DuCette (1989), who interviewed 10 teachers in their research, found that qualified teachers did their jobs fondly, had self-confidence, were knowledgeable and could transfer their knowledge to their students, and had strong motivation for success. In addition to these, Milgram (1979) stated that qualified teachers were intelligent, creative and could use their intelligence and objectivity as they assessed and judged students socially (sympathetic, sensitive, etc.).

Shulman (1987) stated that there was certain knowledge that every teacher should have. These are content knowledge related to the field, pedagogical content knowledge (knowing students’ abilities, personalities, conditions and taking these as a whole), general pedagogical knowledge (principles and strategies in classroom management, organizational content), curriculum knowledge (program knowledge, materials and tools for teachers to be used in the program), knowledge of students and their characteristics, knowledge of context and educational context (group, class, region, society), educational outputs, and knowledge of objectives and values. Wubbels, Levy, and Brekelmans (1997) added that effective and qualified teachers could establish strong teacher-student relationship, they had positive classroom climate, they could empathize, provide students with flexibility, and were both authoritarian and holistic. Polk (2006) listed 10 characteristics of qualified teachers. These are good classroom performance, positive communication skills, creativity, expertise in profession, knowledge in pedagogy, mastery in assessment and evaluation techniques, openness to self-development and life long learning, good character, field knowledge, and modelling student. Steele (2010) stated that qualified teachers could use their body language well, teaches effectively and had leadership qualities.

Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and James (2002) listed the characteristics of qualified teachers as; being student-centred (loving students and being optimistic, supportive, kind, patient and helpful towards them), having effective classroom and behaviour management skills (authoritarian, leadership qualities, careful), expert educators (creative, open to new teaching techniques, explaining students the subject to be taught, encouraging students’ skills), ethical (just, honest, reliable,

objective, true, respectful), doing their jobs fondly (loving the subject, passion in teaching, willing to teach, commitment to the profession), knowledgeable in the field (knowledge of effective teaching and the material to be used) and expertise in the field (disciplined and good communicator). Harmer (1998, cited in: Mullock, 2003) defined good teachers as the ones, who make lessons interesting, love their profession, have good character, feature students' personalities, have knowledge and are entertaining.

In the related literature, many studies have been conducted on the subjects, such as characteristics of qualified teachers, effective teachers and good teachers. Some of these were conducted by Cortazzi and Jin, 1996; Young, Whitley, and Helton, 1998; Witcher, and Onwuegbuzie, 1999; Harslett, Harrison, Godfrey, Partington and Richer, 2000; Crumbley, Henry, and Kratchman, 2001; Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and James, 2002; Mullock, 2003; Kane, Sandretto and Heath, 2004; Okpala and Ellis, 2005; Özabacı and Acat, 2005; Arnon and Reichel, 2007; Onwuegbuzie, Witcher, Collins, Filer, Wiedmaier and Moore, 2007; Maden, Durukan and Aslan, 2010, Taşkaya, 2012.

Cortazzi and Jin (1996, cited in: Mullock, 2003), who conducted a study on 135 Chinese students, reported that expectations of Chinese students from good teachers were; mastery in the subject, expertise in the field (expectations of 67% of the participants), patience, sense of humour, ethically model, friendly, the skill to integrate students to real life, sympathetic and understanding, raising interest among students, ability to effectively use teaching methods, caring students, helping, and explaining the subjects clearly. Young, Whitley and Helton (1998), who conducted a study on 321 students and asked them about their ideal teacher, and these students stated that the exams they gave and difficulty levels of the exams, discussions in the classroom, tone of voice, sense of humour, enthusiasm to teach, addressing to students, using instructional materials, and sincerity towards students were some of the features that ideal teachers should have. Witcher, and Onwuegbuzie (1999) conducted a study on 219 university students (pre-service teachers) found that the highest expectation from an ideal teacher was being student-centred from 79.8% participants, which was followed by doing the job fondly, being ethical, good classroom and behaviour management, mastery in teaching methods and the field.

Onwuegbuzie, Witcher, Collins, Filer, Wiedmaier and Moore (2007) conducted a study on 912 university teachers to find out the characteristics of effective university teaching staff. 58.8% of the participants stated that student-centred teaching staff was effective, which was followed by mastery in the field, doing the job fondly, sharing knowledge, being holistic, good managers, ethical and sensitive. The least expressed of these features was being sensitive. Harslett, Harrison, Godfrey, Partington and Richer (2000) studied the effective teachers in terms of pedagogical relationships, management of student behaviours, and understanding in their research. They found that the most qualified teachers were the ones who understood about the culture, family, history and background of the students.

Kıral and Akyol (2016) interviewed 70 pre-service teachers in their study, and asked them about the qualities a teacher should have, and which of these qualities teachers lacked. According to their findings, teacher qualities were classified in two groups as professional qualities and personal qualities. Personal qualities are; being model, establishing positive communication, patience, good humour, tolerance and understanding, while the professional qualities are being professionally equipped, self-development, openness to innovations, and expertise in classroom management. More than half of the participants stated that teachers in the education system didn't have these qualities.

The common point of all those afore mentioned studies is that they tried to find out the ideal teacher. Teacher quality is a subject that is important for every culture. This is why it has been the subject point of many researches. Advancement of societies is based on the qualities of educational systems and qualified teachers. Accordingly, the purpose of the present research is defining the views of teachers who serve in the education system about the qualified teachers, and finding out whether the teachers in the education system have these listed qualities. The statement of the problem of the present research is "What are the views of the classroom teachers who serve in the education system about the qualified teacher?"

In accordance with this main purpose, the answers to the following questions are sought:

3. What are classroom teachers' views of qualified teacher?
4. According to classroom teachers, which of these qualities is lack for the teachers the encounter?

2. Method

The present research adopted descriptive survey model (Karasar, 1991, 77). Researches conducted in descriptive survey model provide a detailed description of the research subject (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel, 2008). The present research was conducted in accordance with qualitative research method, and tried to describe classroom teachers' views for qualified teacher.

Study Group

The study group of the present research consists of 45 classroom teachers who serve in Efeler district of Aydın Province in 2015-2016 academic year. Of these classroom teachers, 23 were male and 22 were female. Additionally, 10 teachers' ages ranged between 30-39, 30 teachers' between 40-49 and 5 teachers' between 50-59.

Data Collection Tool and Analysis

Before starting the research, the researchers gathered information about the subject and created a semi-structured interview form in accordance with the related literature. After getting specialist view from a professor of the field, pre-application was conducted with a teacher, and the form was finalized. The interviews were recorded on the forms. Interviews recordings on the forms were then transferred to the computer, by numbering each form. Views transferred on the computer were then split into categories and sub-categories (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005). Categories and sub-categories were coded, then the data were analysed. The reliability of the research was tested with Miles and Huberman (1994) equation ($\text{Reliability} = \frac{\text{Agreements}}{\text{Agreements} + \text{Disagreements}} \times 100$). Accordingly, the reliability of the present research was calculated as 100%. Then frequencies of the expressions teachers used to present their views were calculated. Views of the teachers were included in the research without any changes. Each of the participating teachers was given a code (Interview 1: I1), and these codes were used in the research.

3. Findings

This part of the research includes findings related to the qualities teachers should have, and which of these qualities teachers in the education system are lack of.

Findings Related to the Qualities Teachers Should Have

The qualities that teachers should have were analysed in two categories as personal qualities and professional qualities. For personal qualities, 206 views, and for professional qualities category 224 views were gathered. The findings related to these qualities are presented below.

Findings Related to the Personal Qualities Teachers Should Have

For the personal qualities that teachers should have, 206 views were obtained from the teachers who serve in education system. These views and their frequencies are presented in Table 1.

The Views of Classroom Teachers for Qualified Teacher

Table 1. Personal Qualities Teachers Should Have

Category	Sub-Categories	f	Category	Sub-Categories	f
Personal qualities	Positive communication	25	Personal qualities	Problem solving	4
	Patient	23		Empathetic	4
	Humanist	16		Responsible	4
	No discrimination	14		Reliable	4
	Research, questioning	11		No prejudice	4
	Serving as Model with behaviours	9		Compassion	3
	Clean speech	8		Consistent	3
	Idealist	8		Clean and Tidy	2
	Tolerant	8		Devoted	2
	Good humour	8		Hardworking	2
	Understanding	7		Protective	2
	Justice	7		Planned	2
	Honest	7		Determined	1
	Respectful	6		Good listener	1
	Clean, legible writing	5		Courage	1
	Hardworking	5			
Total					206

As presented in Table 1, five highest-ranking personal qualities were positive communication (25 views), patience (23 views), humanist (16 views), no-discrimination (14 views) and research-questioning (11 views); while the three views with the lowest frequency were determination, courage and good listener. Some quotations from the participants related to these views are presented below.

- *A teacher must be patient when they teach students. They must think how much of what they teach the students can learn, and try to understand them by putting themselves in their shoes. A teacher must be understanding, they must think that the student in the classroom might have encountered some problems at home or on the road to school (I19).*
- *Undoubtedly, the first quality a teacher should have is patience. Besides this, they should be tolerant, understanding, in good relationship with their students, and can establish good communication with them (I25).*
- *A teacher must be good-humoured, and establish communications with both the students and their families. They shouldn't discriminate between students, be able to use the language correctly and be understanding (I34).*
- *A teacher must be articulate, should establish good communication with the students and their parents, be model for the society with their behaviours, patient, tolerant, not discriminate between students by language, religion and nation, and have the ability to empathize (I36).*
- *Teachers should serve as models in protecting national and sentimental values with their behaviours, and have researcher and questioning qualities (I42).*

Findings Related to the Professional Qualities Teachers Should Have

For the professional qualities that teachers should have, 224 views were obtained from the teachers who serve in education system. These views and their frequencies are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Professional Qualities Teachers Should Have

Category	Sub-Categories	f
Professional qualities	Professional equipment	35
	Openness to innovations and changes	30
	Constant self-development	27
	Reading habit	25
	Love of profession	25
	Being student-centred	15
	Behaving in accordance with student psychology	14
	Using different methods and techniques	14
	Love for children	12
	Not imposing own ideas	5
	Using technology effectively	5
	Transferring knowledge effectively, in accordance with student level of knowledge	5
	Disciplined	3
	Non-violence	3
	Classroom management	3
Guidance	3	
Total		224

As presented in Table 2, for the personal qualities that teachers should have, 224 views were obtained from the teachers. Five highest frequency professional qualities were professional equipment (professional knowledge, field knowledge, general knowledge) (35 views), openness to innovations and changes (30 views), constant self-development (27 views), reading habit (25 views) and love for profession; while the four with the lowest frequency were discipline, non-violence, effective classroom management and guidance. Some quotations from the participants related to these views are presented below.

- *The first quality a teacher must have is professional love and commitment. Because teaching is a heart of heart. It cannot be done just for money (I1).*
- *First of all, a teacher must be competent in the professional and their field. They should be able to transfer their knowledge to the students in the best way, and love and understand the profession and children (I6).*
- *Teachers should be experts in their fields, developed professionally and have enough general knowledge and field knowledge (I8).*
- *Teachers should read a lot, love reading and impose the love of reading in a world where information constantly changes (I44).*
- *I think the most important quality a teacher should have is the love for the profession. If a teacher loves teaching, they can perform their profession properly (I45).*

Findings Related to the Qualities Teachers Lack

The qualities that teachers lack were studied in two categories as personal qualities and professional qualities. For personal qualities, 39 views, and for professional qualities category 116 views were obtained. The findings related to these qualities are presented below.

Findings Related to the Personal Qualities Teachers Lack

For the personal qualities that teachers lack, 39 views were obtained from the teachers who serve in education system. These views and their frequencies are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Personal Qualities Teachers Lack (or bad qualities)

Category	Sub-Categories	f
Personal qualities	Communication	8
	Strict discipline	6
	Anger	5
	Discrimination	5
	Patience	3
	Respect to students	3
	Being solution oriented	3
	Motivation	1
	Understanding	1
	Serving as model with clothing	1
	Prejudice	1
	Commitment	1
Affection	1	
Total		39

As presented in Table 3, the first four bad qualities teachers have were communication (8 views), strict discipline (6 views), discrimination (5 views) and anger (5 views); while the ones with lowest frequency (1 remark each) were clothing, prejudice, lack of commitment and lack of affection. Some quotations from the participants related to these views are presented below.

- *I believe teachers have many deficiencies in communicating with students. Student cannot easily communicate with their teachers, and share their problems (I10).*
- *What I observe in many teachers that, they neither love nor respect their students. They despise their students, and yell at them. I think this cannot be teaching (I12).*
- *The greatest problem I observe in teachers is that they cannot communicate with their students. They cannot behave their students objectively, and conduct lessons with certain students. Some teachers still have the sense of strict discipline. They get angry with the students who cannot understand what they teach (I30).*
- *I observe that teachers lack patience, because they can scold or yell at students in case of a slightest problem (I35).*
- *The number of teachers, who discriminate, is not limited at all in the system. Additionally, there are some teachers, who only work with certain students, cannot communicate with or insult students (I40).*

Findings Related to the Professional Qualities Teachers Lack

For the professional qualities that teachers lack, 116 views were obtained from the teachers who serve in education system. These views and their frequencies are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Professional Qualities Teachers Lack

Category	Sub-Categories	f
Professional qualities	No love for profession	15
	Seeing teaching as a guarantee job, with long holidays and little work load	13
	Not applying modern methods and techniques	13
	Not following innovations and developments	13
	No self-development	13
	Not having reading habit	13
	Field knowledge	8
	Love for children	7
	Unwillingness to work	7
	No professional studies	5
	Ineffective use of technology	3
	Trying to impose own opinions	2
	Classroom management	1
	Inability to teach at student level	1
	Threatening with grades	1
	Self control	1
Total		116

As presented in Table 4, the six bad qualities teachers think their colleagues have are, no love for profession (15 views), seeing teaching as a guarantee job with long holidays and little work-load (13 views), not applying modern methods and techniques (13 views), not following innovations and developments (13 views), no self-development (13 views), not reading (13 views), while the ones with lowest frequency (1 remark each) were classroom management, inability to teach at student level, threatening with grades and self control. Some quotations from the participants related to these views are presented below.

- *Teaching is seen as a guarantee job, with long holidays and little work load. I think this results in decrease in professional achievement. In other words, teaching is only seen as an occupation, not as the art of raising humans (I2).*
- *Parrot fashion can be still observed in some teachers. They don't put in effort for students to learn. The greatest problem here is that they don't love teaching, which is the greatest deficiency. Education system is not focused on raising teachers with necessary qualifications, but ones who can get high scores in the examinations (I6).*
- *There are some teachers who cannot keep up with the changing world. Those who cannot use technology efficiently... I think these are the greatest deficiencies (I7).*
- *I believe teachers aren't competent enough in following innovations and changes in the field, and they don't read enough books (I28).*
- *There are still teachers who just lecture or use question-answer method. They cannot implement different methods and techniques. These teachers may have experience or field knowledge, however this isn't enough because they don't follow anything after graduating from university and don't read enough. These teachers didn't prefer teaching, they became teachers involuntarily or by coincidence. Teaching is a heart of heart (I45).*

4. Conclusion

The present research consists of two parts as; qualities teachers should have and qualities teachers lack; and these parts consist of two categories as personal qualities and professional qualities. The personal qualities teachers should have with the highest frequency were positive communication, patience, humanism, no discrimination and researcher, questioning qualities, while the professional qualities with highest frequency were professional equipment, openness to innovations and changes, constant self-development, reading habit and love for profession. More views were obtained for professional qualities category. For the personal qualities that teachers lack (or bad qualities),

communication, strict discipline and discrimination were the most repeated sub-categories. According to the participants of the present research, among the professional qualities that teachers lack (or bad qualities) are not loving the profession, seeing teaching as a guarantee job, with long holidays and little work load, not applying modern methods and techniques, not following innovations and developments and not having reading habit. It was found that, most of the lacking qualities were professional qualities, and the number of lacking personal qualities was one third of lacking professional qualities. Accordingly, participants expressed that teachers should have more professional qualities, and also teachers they knew mostly lack professional qualities. Teaching is a heart of heart. It can continue only with love, constant self-development with reading habit, and adapting to the changing times. Teachers, who lack these qualities, cannot raise qualified students, qualified individuals, qualified doctors or qualified engineers. For this reason, it is of utmost importance for the future of a society that young people who are educated at faculties of education are individuals who adopt these qualities.

Milgram (1979), Whitlock and DuCette (1989), Wubbels, Levy, and Brekelmans (1997), Witcher, and Onwuegbuzie (1999), Harslett, Harrison, Godfrey, Partington and Richer (2000), Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and James (2002), Polk (2006), Onwuegbuzie, Witcher, Collins, Filer, Wiedmaier and Moore (2007), Kırıl and Akyol (2016) also obtained similar findings in their researches. Young, Whitley and Helton (1998), stated that the exams they gave and difficulty levels of the exams, discussions in the classroom, tone of voice, sense of humour, enthusiasm to teach, addressing to students, using instructional materials, and sincerity towards students were some of the features that ideal teachers should have. Steele (2010) found that qualified teachers could use their body language well, teach effectively and had leadership qualities. Qualified teacher, ideal teachers has been a subject that has been studied from past to present, and will one of the most important subjects to be studied in the future. Teachers can be qualified when they educate their students in accordance with the needs of the modern times, and accordingly when their students have high qualities.

In accordance with the findings of the present research, following suggestions were developed;

1. Teachers should be provided with in-service training on their field and pedagogical formation.
2. Successful teachers should be awarded in various ways.
3. Successful teachers can be provided with the opportunities to go abroad for summer schools in order to develop themselves, follow innovations, and learn different techniques and strategies.
4. Teachers, who don't love their profession, can be assigned in different duties.
5. Similar researches can be conducted on different groups with qualitative methods and techniques.

References

- Arnon, S. ve Reichel, R. (2007). Who is the Ideal Teacher? Am I? Similarity and Difference in Perception of Students of Education Regarding the Qualities of a Good Teacher and of Their Own Qualities as Teachers. *Teachers and Teaching*, 13(5), 441-464.
- Büyüköztürk, Ş., Çakmak, E. K., Akgün, Ö. A., Karadeniz, Ş. ve Demirel, F. (2008). *Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemleri*[Scientific Research Methods]. Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Crumbley, L., Henry, B. K. ve Kratchman, S. H. (2001). Students' Perceptions of the Evaluation of College Teaching. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 9, 197-207.
- Good, T. L. ve Brophy, J. E. (1994). *Looking in classrooms*. NewYork: Harper Collins.
- Hançerlioğlu, O. (1970). *Felsefe Sözlüğü*[Philosophy Dictionary]. İstanbul: Remzi Kitabevi.
- Harslett, M., Harrison, B., Godfrey, J., Partington, G., & Richer, K. (2000). Teacher Perceptions of the Characteristics of Effective Teachers of Aboriginal Middle School Students. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 25(2).

- Kane, R., Sandretto, S. ve Heath, C. (2004). An Investigation into Excellent Tertiary Teaching: Emphasizing Reflective Practice. *Higher Education*, 47, 283–310.
- Karasar, N. (1991). *Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemi*[Scientific Research Method]. Ankara: Nobel Yayınları.
- Kiral, B. ve Akyol, B. (12-14 Mayıs 2016). Öğretmen Adaylarının Gözünden 'Nitelikli Öğretmen'[Qualified Teacher from the Perspective of Prospective Teachers]. 11. Ulusal Eğitim Yönetimi Kongresi, Kuşadası.
- Maden, S., Durukan, E. ve Aslan, A. (2010). Türkçe Öğretmeni Adaylarının Öğretmen Niteliklerine Yönelik Görüşleri. *Turkish Studies International Periodical for the Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*. 5 (4), 1364-1378.
- Miles, M. B. ve Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis*. Thousand Oaks, Sage.
- Milgram, R. M. (1979). Perception of teacher behavior in gifted and nongifted children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71, 125–128.
- Minor, L. C., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Witcher, A. E. ve James, T. L. (2002). Preservice Teachers' Educational Beliefs and Their Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective Teachers. *The Journal of Educational Research*. 96(2), 116-127.
- Mullock, B. (2003). What makes a good teacher? The perceptions of postgraduate TESOL students. *Prospect*. 18(3), 3-24.
- Okpala, C. O., & Ellis, R. (2005). The perceptions of college students on teacher quality: A focus on teacher qualifications. *Education*, 126, 374–378.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Witcher, A. E., Collins, K. M. T., Filer, J. D., Wiedmaier, C. D. ve Moore, C. W. (2007). Students' Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective College Teachers: A Validity Study of a Teaching Evaluation Form Using a Mixed-Methods Analysis. *American Educational Research Journal*. 44 (1), 113–160.
- Oxford Sözlüğü. <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/quality> adresinden 01.03.2016 tarihinde indirilmiştir.
- Özabacı, N. ve Acat, M. B. (2005). Öğretmen Adaylarının Kendi Özellikleri İle İdeal Öğretmen Özelliklerine Dönük Algılarının Karşılaştırılması[The Comparison of Prospective Teachers for Their Views of Their Features and Ideal Teacher]. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi*. 42, 211-236.
- Polk, J. A. (2006). Traits of Effective Teachers. *Arts Education Policy Review*. 107 (4), 23- 29.
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1–22.
- Steele, N. A. (2010). Three Characteristics of Effective Teachers. *Applications of Research in Music Education*. 1-8.
- Şişman, M. (2001). *Öğretmenliğe Giriş*[Introduction to Teaching Profession]. Ankara: PegemA Yayınları.
- Taşkaya, M. S. (2012). Nitelikli Öğretmende Bulunması Gereken Özelliklerin Öğretmen Adaylarının Görüşlerine Göre İncelenmesi[The Analysis of Qualities of Teachers from the Perspective of Prospective Teachers]. *Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*. 33 (2), 283-298.
- Türk Dil Kurumu Sözlüğü[Dictionary Turkish Language]. (2016). tdk.org.tr adresinden 01.03.2016 tarihinde indirilmiştir.
- Witcher, A. ve Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (17-19 November 1999). Characteristics of Effective Teachers: Perceptions of Preservice Teachers. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association.
- Whitlock, M. S. ve DuCette, J. P. (1989). Outstanding and average teachers of the gifted: A comparative study. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 33, 15–21.
- Wubbels, T., Levy, J., ve Brekelmans, M. (1997). Paying attention to relationships. *Educational Leadership*. 54(7), 82-86.
- Yıldırım, A. ve Şimşek, H. (2005). Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri[Qualitative Research Methods in Social Sciences]. Ankara: Seçkin Yayınları.

The Views of Classroom Teachers for Qualified Teacher

Young, B. N., Whitley, M. E. ve Helton, C. (4-6 November 1998). Students' Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective Teachers. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South.

Relationship Between Informatics Leadership, Learning Organization, and University Culture in Higher Education *

Mehmet Ulutaş¹, Hasan Arslan²

Introduction

Rapid social, political, and economical changes take place in this era named information age. Within such experience, leaderships of school and education may be said to differ from others. In this context, increasing accountability, focus on learner-centered leadership, having new analytical skills (such as knowledge-based decision making, research, visualization of complex problems, etc.), coping with the increasing competition, achieving system-wise social integration, being aware of globalization, and adopting the phenomenon of information community are important changes to be emphasized (Balci, 2011).

Educational institutions are in the first place among the organizations to keep up with the rapidly changing world. The influence of educational institutions as promoters of development on communities cannot be denied. For educational institutions, it is very important to be sustainable and manageable in an up-to-date fashion. Thus, these factors must be considered within the functionality of management processes. Use of technology and the effects of resources provided for this purpose on educational institutions are the factors to be investigated.

In parallel with the widespread use and development of communication technologies, the higher education system has gone into a new dimension. Changes such as academic freedom and novel management styles follow in this new setting that can be defined with proliferation of knowledge, increase in its use, and the momentum in communicating (Yamac, 2009). In such a setting, roles of academic administrators also change and develop. It will not be misleading to state that leadership within higher education constantly changes. The focuses of this development are the structure of organization in the center, individual phenomena, and social components. The environment of the organization and the availability of development also affect these (Bolden, Petrov, and Gosling, 2008). Leaders need successful models that could be used as guides because the field is new and, thus, informed practice is scarce. Rapid development in today's informational technologies leads to areas of novel proficiencies (Bixler, 2000).

Although leaders' aims to lead remain unchanged, the methods that they use to achieve their goals vary. In addition, leaders have begun to use computer, one of the main contemporary communication tools, and its products in order to meet the expectations of employees following them. This leads to many new opportunities (DasGupta, 2011).

Information leadership is based on sharing the vision that the whole school supports (Hately and Schiller, 2003). Information technology in education changes the administrator's vision in order to develop and support others' skills. Administrators that use and try to learn information technologies are in positions as role models exhibiting the importance of information for school culture (Gronow,

* Address for correspondence:

Dr.Mehmet ULUTAŞ, Canakkale University Faculty of Education 17100 Canakkale, Turkey
Telephone:+90 (286) 217 1303 Fax: :+90 (286) 212 0751 Email: ulutasmehmet@gmail.com

¹ Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Education, Department of Computer and Instructional Technologies, Canakkale

² Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Education, Department of Educational
E-mail: ¹<ulutasmehmet@gmail.com>, ²<arslan.phd@gmail.com>

2007). Information leadership may be defined as having the power to influence individuals and groups in using the information for improving communication.

In learning organizations, on the other hand, as another dimension in the research, learning is prioritized. Learning function is considered both as a process and a value. In these organizations, learning is phenomenon perceived as a process available anywhere, not a momentary act. All relationships are based on collaboration and individuals improving themselves also develop their organizations. Organizations are creative and employees are happy and excited. Within learning organizations, team work, collaboration, creativity, empowerment, and quality as the most important organizational characteristics attract attention (Braham, 1998). In the future, organizations that will compete with others will discover this: learning responsibility and effectiveness for people that make up the organization will prevail at all levels within these organizations (Senge, 2011).

Schools, particularly universities, are organizations that provide service, dedicated to learning and teaching. Prioritized goal in these institutions is to provide their students with learning. Thus, their survival is based on this type of service. The most important characteristic that distinguish such institutions from others is about being mostly a learning organization (Hoy and Miskel, 2010).

Senge (2011) argues that learning organizations are made up combining five new technologies. Senge's () approved five disciplines are explained in his/her work titled "Fifth Discipline". These five disciplines are: systemic thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, and team learning.

The common culture, taking a significant place within the concept of university culture as the third dimension of research, consists of behavior styles, developed by a group of people using the same location for a while, and the related group's model. Developing a new strategy, re-structuring, and environmental friendliness may be effective in developing culture for today's institutions. An advanced change is based on reliability and this comes about through institutionalization but not culture (Kotter, 2008). Goffee and Jones (2003) name the organizational culture the social architecture of success or failure. This could be considered quite true for universities.

Universities are envisioned in a culture of information sharing. In this sense, individuals, process, and technology must be considered within the university culture. The characteristics to be exhibited in this culture can be considered the following: transparency, trust, availability of various communication channels, support from upper administration, and availability of a system of reward for information sharing (Gruber, 2000).

Universities are named based on universality. They are the top education and research institutions; they are also centers for science and culture. These institutions, documenting the human history and shaping the future, are an extension of advanced communities. These communal entities are also cultural assets with a mission to bridge the past to future. Therein, they are more valuable (Demir, 2008). Universities are the forefront of intellectual life. They reflect a model culture with pleasant environment, enthusiastic students, and faculty never giving up learning (Rosovsky, 2008).

Universities, with a privileged position among educational institutions, prepare the students for life through educational programs and create a culture of living in the internal interactional areas. Beside the programs, students acquire some latent gains. Each university has some common internal characteristics (Cincioglu, 2011).

It can be said that the important components that make up the university are associated with its structure and social dimensions. Systems, procedures, and practices related with the university structure, its socialized identity, partnerships, agreements, and informal relationships combined constitute its formal relationships, channels of communication, opportunities, and, most importantly, the university culture itself (Bolden et al., 2008).

University culture may be described as the sharing passed to the future, defining the vision, decisions, communication, power, life style, based on internally formed shared norms and values. In the current research, the university culture was examined through four different culture types used within Harrison and Handy Model. These are culture of success, culture of power, culture of support, and culture of hierarchy.

This age, when we are in a process of constant change and development, is now named the information age. Main goal of this process is to provide people with a happy, healthy, and prosperous life. Hence, the information is attributed a guiding and enlightening mission before humanity. All individuals and organizations need to keep up with this change. Universities are the only organizations in the position of social leaders as pioneers of this change. Relevant research provides some new developments for people, each day. The position of universities within this process is very important. Promotion and contribution of innovations, through their research identities, can be considered among the basic functions of universities.

It will not be a mistake to say that individuals and organizations attain the most important basics of science and technology through learning. Putting learning in the center may be considered an indicator of being progress-focused. Another important vision herein is about gaining the latest information and technology in this way. Particularly universities that can be considered learning organizations have a very important share in this sense.

Technology is newly examined within the educational administration field. It can be considered a priority to structure the technology relationship to the field and to define how it will be utilized. It has now become a requirement to examine this important contemporary power within administrative circles. Organizations and individuals need to improve based on the requirements of this age. One competence sought after in educational administrators is about being open to technology. The concept of technology alone is not adequate to cover all the changes experienced today. This phenomenon of development, corresponding more to the concept of informatics, is one of the basic sources in the current research. Leaders, effectively using and letting informatics be used in their own organizations, are mainly located in universities that are known as learning organizations and that could be considered initiators of progress. It is crucial to investigate the said informatics, leadership, concepts of being learning-centered, and university cultures. Research to be conducted on this issue is considered to contribute mainly in today's world and in the future.

Many scientific studies focus on technology leadership in relation to this issue. However, this approach to leadership alone concentrates on just a single dimension of today's progress. In the current research, informatics leadership including the technology leadership as well is put forward. This phenomenon is more associated with the field. The issue of technology is perceived as a more technical subject. However, the issue of informatics is composed of more administrative subjects such as information and communication. The level of relationship between universities as learning organizations and the informatics leadership is considered important to define. The concept of university culture as well as the said components, crucial in relation to research, makes up another component considered to contribute in the relevant literature. This concept, named and investigated as organizational culture within the relevant literature is examined within the higher education in a narrower scope. The current research is thought to contribute importantly in higher education administration. The current research is considered significant as per defining the relationships among informatics leadership, learning organization, and university culture and as per the contributions in the relevant field. Through the model proposed, higher education is examined from a different angle and the current research results are considered to contribute importantly in the future of higher education and the components discussed. Through these contributions, prioritizing an innovative view and informatics, universities are expected to become real learning organizations cultures.

Aims

The current research aims to define the effects of the relationship between academicians' levels of perceptions of informatics leadership and learning organization in higher education on university culture. A model considered significant in relation to the current study has become clear based on the conducted researches. The concept of informatics leadership, to be put forward in the current study, is considered to contribute importantly in the field. However, this new phenomenon has been observed to be ineffective in universities and informatics leadership within universities, known as learning organizations, is thought to be promoted.

Relationship Between Informatics Leadership, Learning Organization, and University Culture

The current research was initiated upon the understanding that informatics leadership will explain the university culture through learning organization with the model that was proposed following theoretical investigations conducted. University culture, on the other hand, is included along with the cultures of success, power, support, and hierarchy. The network of relationships between the said concepts was considered based on the theoretical model presented below.

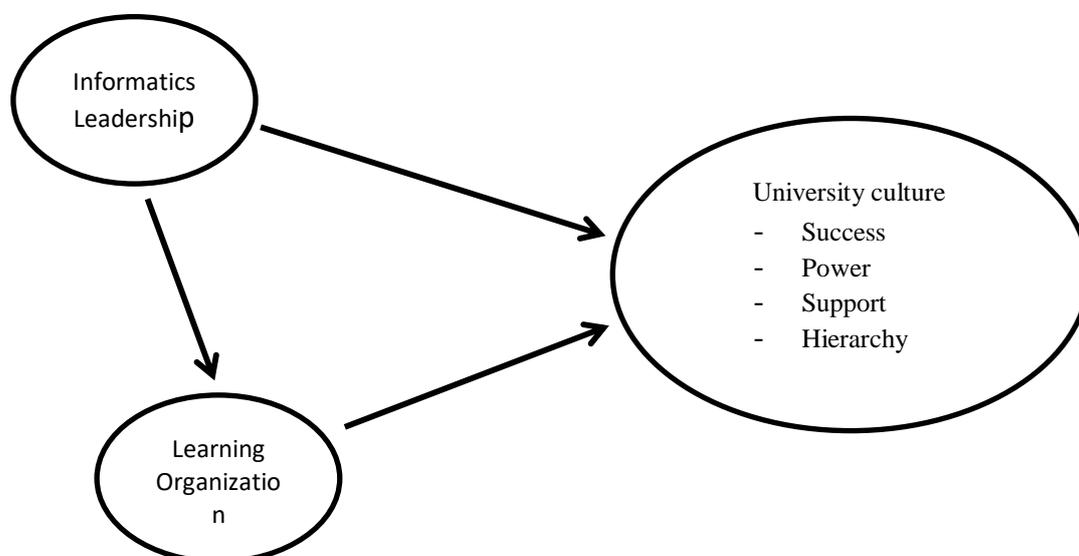


Figure 1. Theoretical model associated with the concepts included in the current research.

Figure 1 includes the model creating the basis for the current research. Particularly the concepts of learning organization and culture forming the model are observed in other previously conducted studies. The concept of leadership is a significant phenomenon in relation to the concepts of learning organization and culture. Thus, the concepts with relationships with one another were included in previous research. The studies on the said model within the relevant literature were presented under related titles in the current research. The said model was decided to be applied upon investigations conducted. The research question is as follows: Is the structure, included in the model in relation to university informatics leadership explaining the university culture based on the learning organization, through academicians' perceptions, with the four different culture dimensions stated as cultures of success, power, support, and hierarchy, supported?

Limitations

Research limitations are as follows:

- The current research is limited to the teaching faculty employed in public universities in Turkey during 2014-2015 academic years.
- The current research is limited to the mail addresses of faculty employed within higher education and registered in TUBITAK (Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) and ARBIS (Researchers Information System) in 2015.
- The current research is limited to the 3 instruments used. These instruments are: Informatics Leadership Scale, Learning Organization Scale, and Organizational Culture Scale.

Assumptions

Basic assumptions in the current research are as follows:

- Participating faculty's responses to the items included in the data collection instrument reflect the truth.
- It is assumed that perceptions of all academicians employed in Turkey can be measured based on the ARBIS-registered mail addresses.

- Some responses on instruments used within the current research were excluded in the data set before analysis process. It is assumed that the excluded responses will not create a difference to influence the current research.

Methods

Survey Model, a qualitative research method, is preferred in the current research. Survey model aims to describe a phenomenon existing as it is (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2006). Survey studies enable the qualitative or quantitative description of tendencies, perceptions, and attitudes in a general population through research on a sample selected within a population and consequently lead to inferences (Creswell, 2014).

Regression analyses and structural equation modeling (SEM) were used in the current research in order to test the relationships between variables and a theoretical model with variables. SEM is preferred as it is able to help separately define possibly complicated relationships among a group of dependent variables. Basically, it is aimed to test a model with a sound theoretical structure, through SEM (Şimşek, 2007; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tahtam, 2006).

Participants

The population of the current research, on the quantitative dimension for the 3 data collection instruments used, consists of total 108886 academicians (<http://www.yok.gov.tr>, 01.07.2015) including 18063 full professors, 12323 associated professors, 27250 assistant professors, 16361 teaching faculty, 7307 instructors, 3585 experts, and 42060 research assistants. The population was communicated through emails registered in ARBIS, thus, with no study to select a sample.

Instruments

Three different scales were used within the research as follows: Informatics Leadership Scale, Learning Organization Scale, and Organizational Culture Scale. A development process for the Informatics Leadership Scale was included. In the pilot application, Cronbach's alpha for the scale was found as .98. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value for the scale was .98. On the other hand, the scale Bartlett's value was significant with .000. The scale consisted of 18 items on three separate factors. The first factor is guidance, the second is communication, and the third is information.

For Learning Organization Scale, domestic and foreign literature was reviewed and scale adaptation process was decided to be through a foreign dissertation. Thus, Learning Organization Scale with 40 items, developed by Seaford (2003) and used in Smith's (2008) dissertation, was utilized for the second dimension of the current research. A pilot application was conducted upon scale adaptation studies. Scale Cronbach's alpha was found to be .97 in the pilot application. Scale KMO value was .96 and the Bartlett's value was .000 on a significant level. Following adaptation analyses, the 16-item form of the scale was decided upon. Dimensions of the scale are as follows: mental models as the first factor, systemic thinking as the second factor and team learning as the final factors.

For University Culture Scale, domestic and foreign literature was reviewed. Organizational Culture Type Scale, developed by Nihal Mamatoglu (2004) with Harrison's (1972) sub- dimensions of success, support, hierarchy and power, was preferred. The said scale consists of 16 items with 4 dimensions. The questionnaire, with the addition of scales as well as personal information form developed to collect demographic data, was used as the data collection instrument. Academic title, research field, seniority, management experience, and gender were included in the demographic information.

Data Collection

Data collection was conducted with the usage of three different scales. Data were collected via emails in the application conducted. An email sender system named Mailerlite was used within the application. The data collection tool was put together through a questionnaire system called Surveyey and the determined 36336 email addresses were sent the relevant webpage. The Mailerlite system automatically discarded 9348 email addresses that repeated or entered inaccurately and the scale was sent to a total of 26988 academician email addresses. The reports received in the sent emails showed

that 7902 (33.4%) academicians opened the emails; however, only 102 (0.43%) academicians clicked on the link for the scale. 10 days after this application, a reminder email was also sent to the same group. Reminder email was sent to 22384 academicians in the system. Reports indicated that, following the reminder, 9132 (41.11%) academicians opened the emails; however, only 1463 (6.59%) academicians clicked on the link for the scale. Consequently, 1203 (4.45%) academicians provided data.

Data Analysis

First of all, the data set of the current research was prepared for the analyses to be conducted through some applications. In the data preparation for analysis, some studies are required to be conducted in order to clear data from errors, to check whether data are within possible limits, to consider lost values, and in order to organize the outlying values (Cokluk, Sekercioglu, and Buyukozturk, 2012). Descriptive analyses in the current research were conducted via the SPSS software. In order to prevent lost values, the option to leave a question/statement unanswered/not-responded to was removed. Outliers and incorrectly entered data were checked and excluded prior to the analysis. Graphic examinations of outliers and regularity tests were also conducted. For those, histogram with normal distribution curves, stem-and-leaf diagrams, and the box graphs to also observe outlying scores were used (Buyukozturk, 2012).

In the preparation analyses for the data collected from 1203 academicians, prior to the research data analyses, Z values were checked for the -3 and +3 limits. Data returned by the academicians employed in the private universities were noticed and excluded in the analysis. In addition, data were listed based on the standard deviations and all data, marked the same on any scales, with "0" SD, were checked and removed prior to the analysis. In these checks, 209 data were excluded and the analyses were conducted on 994 returns. SEM was used in order to test models constructed in relation to the purpose of current research. AMOS 20 software was used to analyze the model.

Findings

Analyses were conducted on the responses to the following question: : Is the structure, included in the model in relation to university informatics leadership explaining the university culture based on the learning organization, through academicians' perceptions, with the four different culture dimensions stated as cultures of success, power, support, and hierarchy, supported? In these analyses, first of all, relationships between these concepts were investigated, as sated in the research model. For this purpose, correlations between the basic research concepts and their sub-dimensions were examined. Findings of this examination are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Correlations between Informatics Leadership, Learning Organization and University Cultures, and Their Sub-Dimensions

Concepts and Their Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1) Informatics Leadership	1												
2) Guidance	.94*	1											
3) Communication	.95*	.83*	1										
4) Information	.96*	.87*	.91*	1									
5) Learning Organization	.69*	.69*	.64*	.66*	1								
6) Mental Models	.66*	.67*	.60*	.63*	.93*	1							
7) Personal Mastery	.66*	.66*	.61*	.63*	.94*	.85*	1						
8) Systemic Thinking	.67*	.67*	.62*	.64*	.95*	.86*	.87*	1					
9) Team Learning	.61*	.59*	.58*	.60*	.92*	.81*	.83*	.83*	1				
10) Culture of Success	.58*	.56*	.55*	.56*	.80*	.75*	.75*	.77*	.76*	1			
11) Culture of Power	-.21*	-.19*	-.18*	-.22*	-.29*	-.26*	-.28*	-.27*	-.28*	-.34*	1		
12) Culture of Support	.54*	.52*	.51*	.53*	.76*	.71*	.72*	.72*	.72*	.82*	-.34*	1	
13) Culture of Hierarchy	.56*	.54*	.53*	.54*	.74*	.68*	.70*	.70*	.70*	.83*	-.29*	.79*	1

*p<.01

A review of Table 1 shows significant relationships between basic concepts of the current research and their sub-dimensions. Following relationships were found in the current research: a medium-level positively significant relationship, $r=.69$, $p<.01$, between the concepts of Informatics Leadership and Learning Organization; a medium-level positively significant relationship, $r=.58$, $p<.01$, between the concepts of Informatics Leadership and the Culture of Success; a low-level negatively significant relationship, $r=-.21$, $p<.01$ between the concepts of Informatics Leadership and the Culture of Power; a medium-level positively significant relationship, $r=.54$, $p<.01$, between the concepts of Informatics Leadership and the Culture of Support; and a medium-level positively significant relationship, $r=.56$, $p<.01$, between the concepts of Informatics Leadership and the Culture of Hierarchy. In addition, the following relationships were determined: a high-level positively significant relationship, $r=.80$, $p<.01$, between the concepts of Learning Organization and the Culture of Success; a low-level negatively significant relationship, $r=-.29$, $p<.01$, between the concepts of Learning Organization and the Culture of Power; a high-level positively significant relationship, $r=.76$, $p<.01$, between the concepts of Learning Organization and the Culture of Support; a high-level positively significant relationship, $r=.74$, $p<.01$ between the concepts of Learning Organization and the Culture of Hierarchy. These relationships may be significant due to the shared values, being a part of the same organization, or expressing similar perceptions. In addition, a review of the sub-dimensions of concepts indicated significant and high-level relationships between the main concepts and their sub-dimensions. It may be said that the stated values are appropriate for testing the model included among the current research concepts.

Relationship Between Informatics Leadership, Learning Organization, and University Culture

Fit indices regarding the model tested are presented in Tables 3, 4, and 5. Table 2 includes the values of fit indices in path analysis conducted in relation to university Informatics Leadership explaining the Culture of University Success through Learning Organization.

Table 2

Path Analysis Fit Indices of the Suggested Model regarding the Culture of University Success

X²	Df	p	X²/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA
166.935	41	.000	4.072	.969	.951	.989	.056

Table 2 includes the current research findings on path analysis fit indices regarding the Culture of University Success. It must be stated that all fit indices obtained in the current research show good values. It is observed that, based on 994 applications, X²/df value below 5 reflects a good fit; a GFI value of .969 indicates a good fit; a CFI value of .989 also reflects a good fit; an AGFI value of .951 shows a perfect fit, and, finally, a RMSEA value of .056 similarly indicates a good fit. Consequently, it may be emphasized that these fit indices indicate a good fit for the model. The model, forming the theoretical base for the current research, was successfully finalized based on these examinations. The standardized redictions regarding the path analysis of the model is presented in Figure 2.

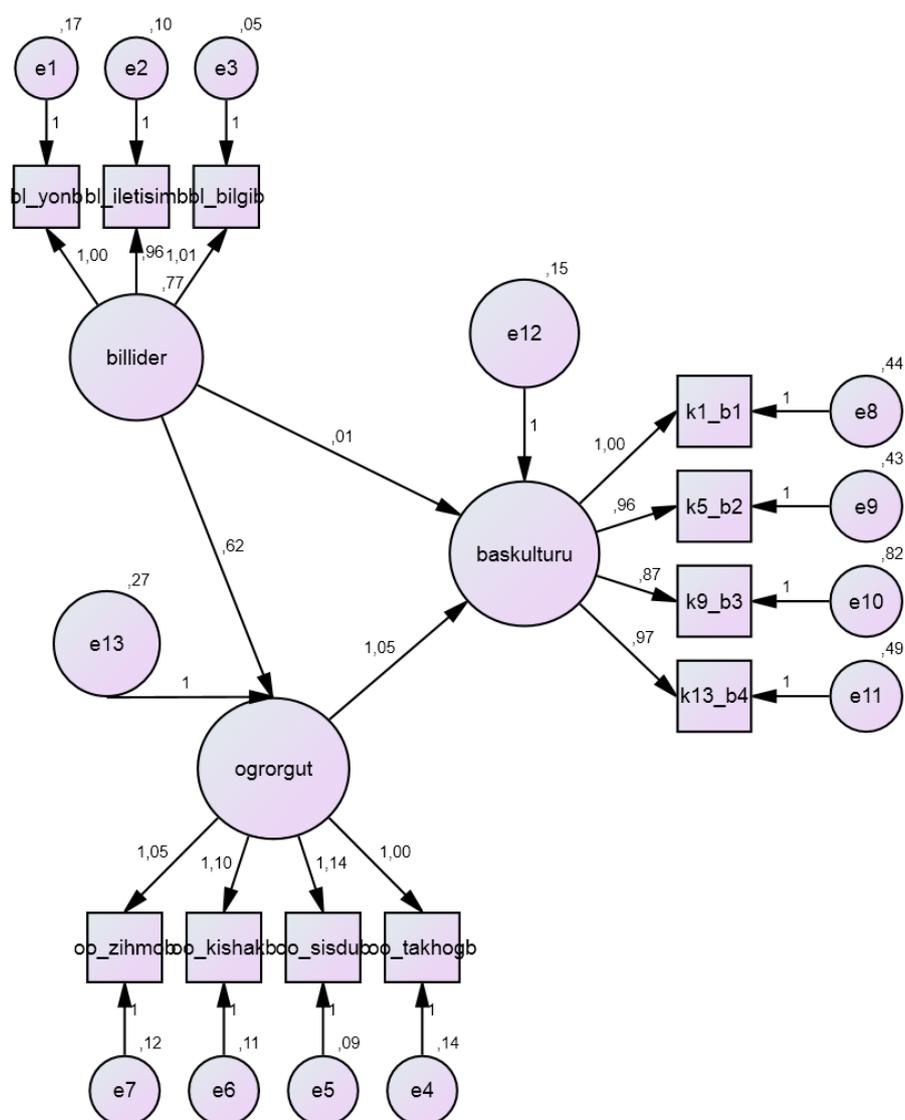


Figure 2. The standardized predictions of path analysis regarding Informatics Leadership, Learning Organization, and the University Culture of Success.

In the current research, findings obtained through path analysis conducted with SEM indicate that the concept of Informatics Leadership explained the Culture of University Success through the concept of Learning Organization. The Informatics Leadership alone cannot explain the Culture of University Success ($\beta=.01$). It is required to state that the concept of Learning Organization is a mediating variable within this model. The Informatics Leadership explains the Culture of University Success with a high value ($\beta=1.05$) through Learning Organization ($\beta=.62$). Table 3 includes values of fit indices regarding the path analysis conducted for the Informatics Leadership, at universities, explaining the University Culture of Power through the Learning Organization.

Table 3
 Path Analysis Fit Indices of the Suggested Model regarding the University Culture of Power

χ^2	Df	p	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA
165.971	41	.000	4.048	.970	.952	.986	.055

Path analysis fit indices of the suggested model regarding the university culture of power are presented in Table 3. It is observed that all fit indices obtained in the analysis show good values. It is seen that, based on 994 applications, χ^2/df value of 4.048 below 5 reflects a very good fit; a GFI value of .970 indicates a good fit; a CFI value of .970 also reflects a good fit; an AGFI value of .952 shows a perfect fit, and, finally, a RMSEA value of .055 similarly indicates a good fit. Consequently, it is stated that these fit indices indicate a good fit for the said model. The model, forming the theoretical base for the current research, was successfully finalized based on these examinations. The standardized predictions regarding the path analysis of the model is presented in Figure 3.

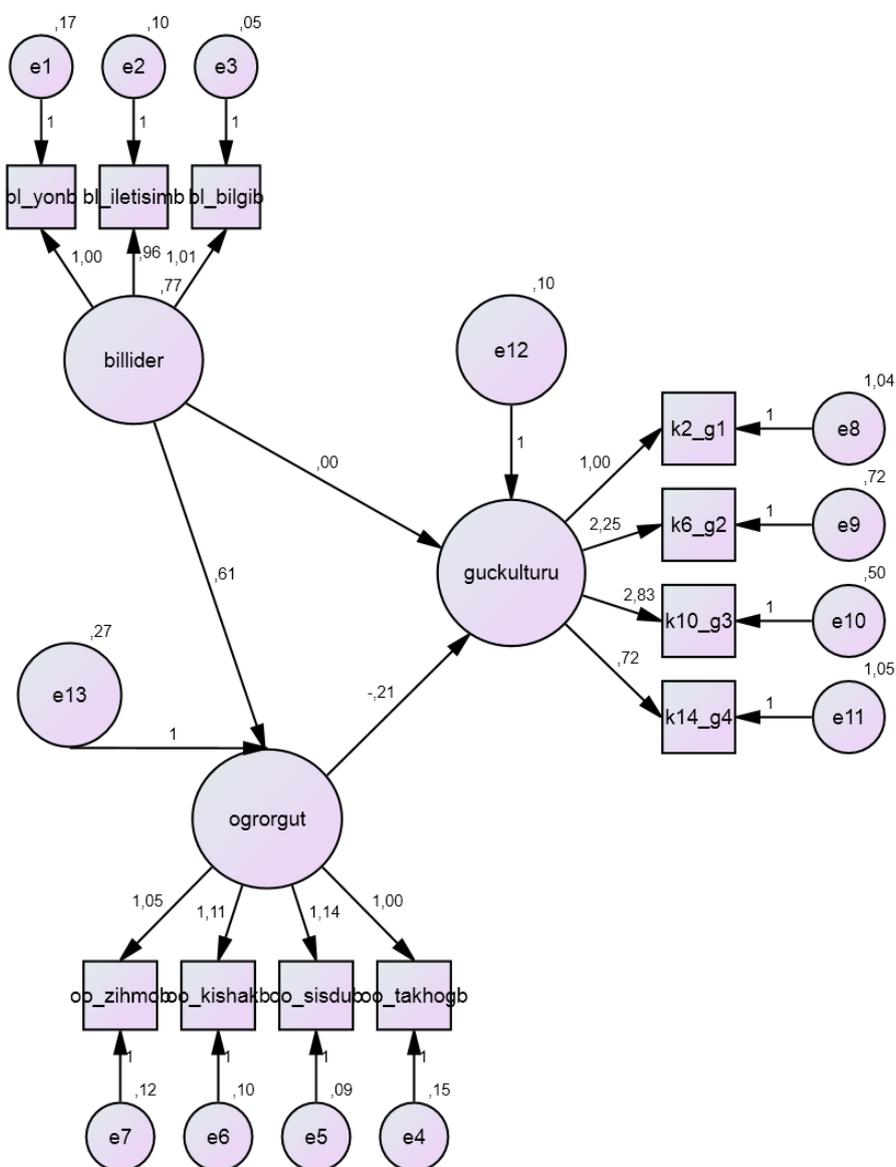


Figure 3. Path analysis standardized predictions regarding Informatics Leadership, Learning Organization, and University Culture of Power.

In the current research, findings obtained through path analysis conducted with SEM indicate that the concept of Informatics Leadership explained the University Culture of Power through the concept of Learning Organization. The Informatics Leadership alone cannot explain the University Culture of Power ($\beta=.00$). It will not be wrong to state that the concept of Learning Organization is a mediating variable within this model. The Informatics Leadership can explain the University Culture of Power ($\beta=-.21$) through Learning Organization ($\beta=.61$). However, this explanation points out to a negative relationship. Table 4 includes values of fit indices regarding the path analysis conducted for the Informatics Leadership, at universities, explaining the University Culture of Support through the Learning Organization.

Table 4

Path Analysis Fit Indices of the Suggested Model regarding the University Culture of Support

χ^2	Df	p	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA
196.105	41	.000	4.903	.964	.941	.986	.063

Findings regarding the path analysis in the current research in relation to the university culture of support are presented in Table 4. It is observed that all fit indices obtained in the analysis show successful values. χ^2/df value of 4.903 indicates a good fit; a GFI value of .964 shows a good fit; a CFI value of .986 also reflects a good fit; an AGFI value of .941 shows a good fit, and, finally, a RMSEA value of .063 similarly indicates a good fit. Consequently, it is stated that these fit indices indicate a good fit for the said model. The model, forming the theoretical base for the current research in the third step, was successfully finalized based on these examinations. The standardized predictions regarding the path analysis of the model is presented in Figure 4.

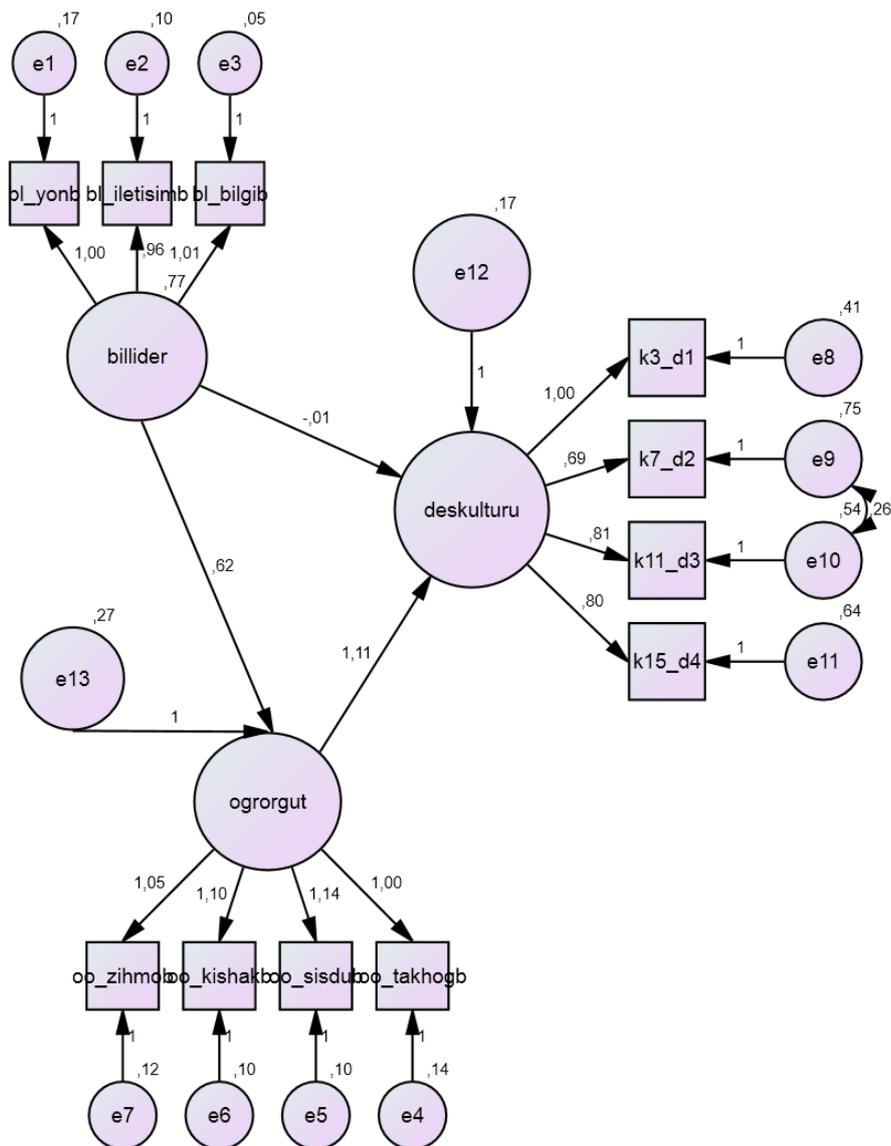


Figure 4. Path analysis standardized predictions regarding Informatics Leadership, Learning Organization, and University Culture of Support.

In the current research, findings obtained through path analysis conducted with SEM indicate that the concept of Informatics Leadership explained the University Culture of Support through the concept of Learning Organization. The Informatics Leadership alone does not explain the University Culture of Support ($\beta=-.01$). It must be stated that the concept of Learning Organization is a mediating variable within this model. The Informatics Leadership explains the University Culture of Support ($\beta=1.11$) through Learning Organization ($\beta=.62$). However, this explanation points out to a negative relationship, with a high value. Table 5 includes values of fit indices regarding the path analysis conducted for the Informatics Leadership, at universities, explaining the University Culture of Hierarchy through the Learning Organization.

Table 5

Path Analysis Fit Indices of the Suggested Model regarding the University Culture of Hierarchy

χ^2	Df	p	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA
140.365	41	.000	3.424	.975	.959	.991	.049

Findings regarding the path analysis in the current research in relation to the University Culture of Hierarchy are presented in Table 5. It is observed that all fit indices obtained in the analysis show good values. χ^2/df value of 3.424 indicates a good fit with 994 data; a GFI value of .975 shows a good fit; a CFI value of .991 also reflects a good fit; an AGFI value of .959 shows a perfect fit, and, finally, a RMSEA value of .049 similarly indicates a higher fit. Consequently, it is seen that these fit indices indicate a good fit for the said model. The model, forming the theoretical base for the current research in the third step, was successfully finalized based on these examinations. The standardized predictions regarding the path analysis of the model is presented in Figure 5.

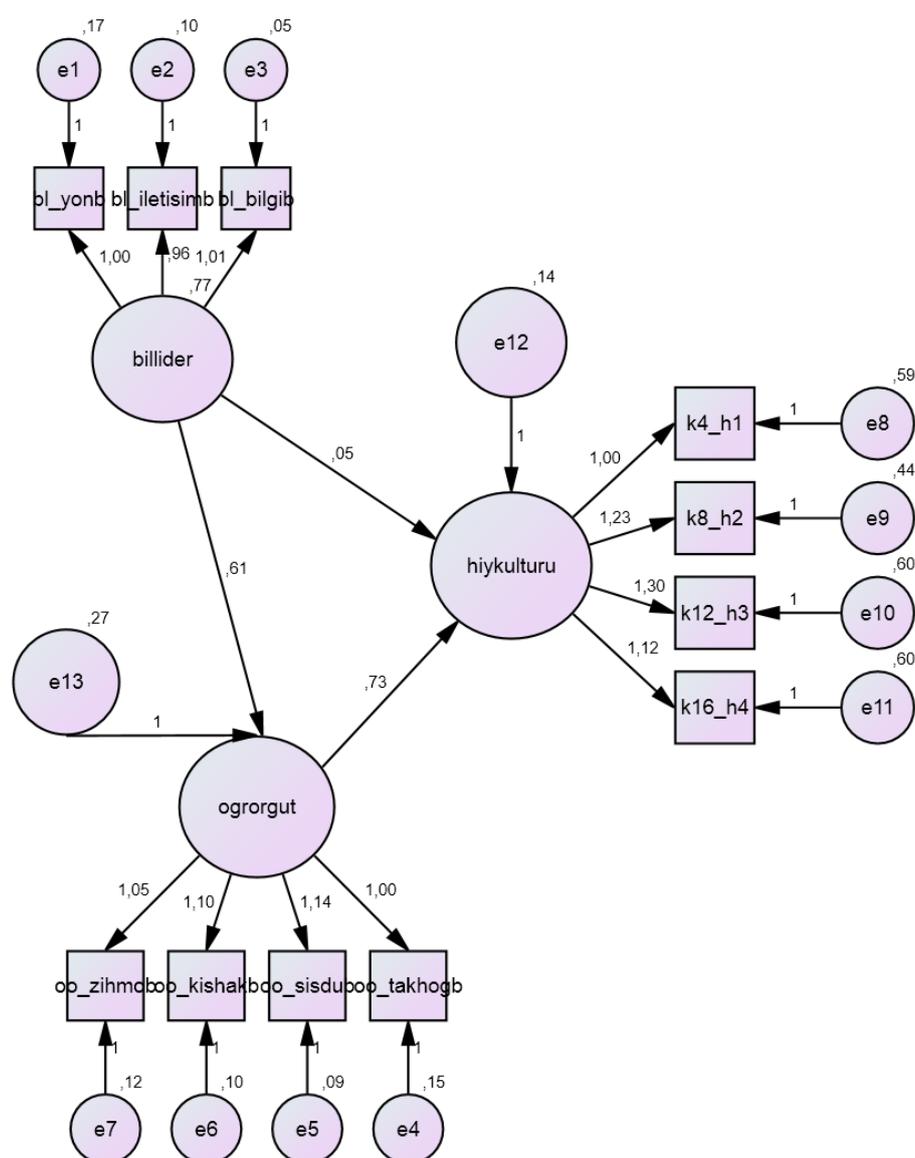


Figure 5. Path analysis standardized predictions regarding Informatics Leadership, Learning Organization, and University Culture of Hierarchy.

In the current research, findings obtained through path analysis conducted with SEM indicate that the concept of Informatics Leadership explained the University Culture of Hierarchy through the concept of Learning Organization. The Informatics Leadership alone does not explain the University Culture of Hierarchy ($\beta=.05$). It must be stated that the concept of Learning Organization is a mediating variable within this model. The Informatics Leadership explains the University Culture of Hierarchy ($\beta=.73$) through Learning Organization ($\beta=.61$), with a high value.

Discussion

The analyses regarding informatics leadership predicting learning organization indicate a linear and positive relationship between the two concepts. Current research findings show that informatics leadership significantly predicts the learning organization. Considering this finding, an institution with informatics leadership may be said to increase the level of being a learning organization. This is, also, a foreseen result that reveals the importance and the power of influence of leadership in organizations one more time. However, a more significant finding is that the informatics leadership wields such influence. Contemporary organizations, in this sense, may be said to create such expectation upon change. Masier (2013) points out to significant relationships between the concept of learning organization and the self-managed learning perceptions of employees in the Advanced Technology Telecommunication Company. In addition, Atak (2009) similarly states that the information age influences the organizations and the concept of organization is associated with such concepts as organizational learning and information management.

It may be stated that the same happens with a reverse review of the relevant concepts and the learning organization also predicts informatics leadership. Namely, in a learning organization, the informatics leadership is also supported. In other words, learning organization contributes in the informatics leadership to take place. Also in Bilir's (2014) study findings, significant relationships are revealed between the learning organization and relatively new human resources leadership, political and symbolic leadership.

In addition, informatics leadership and learning organization influence and predict university cultures. Learning organization is a concept to be considered very significant in the formation of a university culture. Universities may fully be considered learning organizations. However, some inadequacies are observed in Turkey. Activities about learning organizations are required to be organized at universities. It is of great importance that higher education system is converted into a structure where everything functions very well; knowledge and qualifications are prioritized; team activities are given importance; personal views are respected; individuals are prompted to think scientifically, and sharing is the mainstream. Cetin-Gurkan (2007) also investigated higher education institutions as learning organizations. The researcher emphasizes that, in order for universities to be learning organizations, a flexible and participatory structural model with responsibilities shared, a strategy with a vision, and a good and effective communication medium must be required. An organizational culture supporting productivity, development, and risk taking, the provision of required knowledge, technology, and sources, and activities to accelerate learning are essential. Also, it is stated that university culture in Turkey is more about a culture of teaching rather than learning. Yucel (2007), in his/her study, concluded that organizational culture was effective on the learning organization and listed the following recommendations for the institutions to become learning organizations: value their employees, have a shared vision interpreted in the similarly by everyone, produce and share new knowledge and change behaviors accordingly, practice continuous learning, prompt employees to learn, consider mistakes as opportunities to learn, easily adjust to change, take risks and create an organizational culture prioritizing team work and collaboration.

Informatics leadership as well as learning organization is a significant predictor in the development of university culture. As Mamatoglu (2006) stated, the culture must be considered along with new concepts of the traditional leadership. Tanriogen (2013) investigated the relationships between leadership behaviors and the organizational culture and defined significant relationships between leadership and culture. Perceptions on school principals were examined in the study and the exhibited leadership styles were found as follows, respectively: human resource-based, structural,

political, and symbolic. Within the same study, it was stated that schools are shaped, based on teachers' perceptions, respectively, with the culture of duty, culture of support, culture of success, and bureaucratic culture. Considering the effect of informatics leadership on university culture, it may be said that, although there is a relationship between the two, its predicting power is not on high levels. Path analyses of the suggested model with SEM indicated that university cultures were not explained with informatics leadership and this explanation was provided through learning organization. This may be due to informatics leadership as a new concept at universities and its influence on culture is not yet revealed. However, it is thought that studies in future will show an increased effect. Yet, informatics leadership reveals this influence on high levels through learning organization.

Conclusion

In the current research, levels of relationships among higher education Informatics Leadership, Learning Organization, and University Cultures were examined and the suggested model for the current research was tested. Results based on the findings obtained can be listed as follows:

- Concepts of Informatics Leadership and the Learning Organization have a linear relationship. Also, the Informatics Leadership is a significant predictor of universities being Learning Organizations. Universities as Learning Organizations are significant predictors of Informatics Leadership as well. These two concepts mutually influencing each other are importantly located at universities.
- There is a linear relationship also between the Learning Organization and University Cultures. Universities as Learning Organizations are significant predictors of University Cultures (Success, Power, Support, and Hierarchy) too. Similarly, there is a significant relationship between Informatics Leadership and University Cultures. Informatics Leadership is a significant predictor of University Cultures (Success, Power, Support, and Hierarchy). However, this prediction is lower than that provided by the Learning Organization.
- It may be said that there were positively significant relationships among Informatics Leadership, Learning Organization, and University Cultures as the main concepts in the current research and the models put forward based on these relationships had a good fit. Informatics Leadership included in the models significantly predicted the university Cultures of Success, Power, Support, and Hierarchy through the Learning Organization. The Culture of Power, on the other hand, had a negative relationship.

Suggestions

The suggestions developed based on the current research findings and results are listed below:

- A practice of rotating administrative system in universities may be developed as much as possible. Academicians that want to become administrators may be given opportunity without any complications for some period with arrangements for education and administration to continuously function.
- In order for the institution to be a learning organization, support with practices that could be associated with informatics leadership may be recommended. The use of research teams on new technologies, building networks to access information, supporting communication based on informatics, and planning guidance activities may be put forward as considerable practices. Similarly, informatics leadership should be supported within the organization through such applications as building mediums for academicians on all levels to share personal opinion comfortably, organizing workshops to share ideas, and developing institutional incentive plans to promote team work.
- Developing successful university cultures is associated with the importance given to the learning organization. In order for this to happen, everyone at all levels needs to adopt the sense of a team. A questionnaire system for all to define the institutional vision may be used. A forum system to share organizational inadequacies and needs may be put into function by

the administration. Information technology departments at universities may be used for providing the said improvements.

- The Informatics Leadership is also a significant variable in developing university cultures. Factors affecting the culture to blend with the informatics leadership will significantly influence university cultures. As such, the following practices may be emphasized: using virtual media based on the institutional structure, providing technological devices to be used by everyone within the organization, putting effort to strengthen information infrastructure, enabling sharing knowledge, using information technologies as meeting and communication channels, prioritizing research and development activities, building informative structures for innovation, and creating educational systems. Such practices associated with informatics leadership, in relation with organizational structure, will positively influence university cultures.

References

- Atak, M. (2009). *Öğrenen örgüt ve örgütsel bağlılık ilişkisi* (Yayımlanmamış doktora tezi). Atatürk Üniversitesi, Erzurum.
- Balcı, A. (2010). *Sosyal bilimlerde araştırma: yöntem, teknik ve ilkeler* (8. Baskı). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Bilir, B. (2014). *Öğretmenlerin öğrenen örgüte ilişkin algı düzeyleri ile yöneticilerinin liderlik stilleri arasındaki ilişkinin araştırılması* (Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi). Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi, Çanakkale.
- Bixler, H. C. (2000). *Creating a dynamic knowledge management maturity continuum for increased enterprise performance and innovation* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The George Washington University, Washington D.C.
- Bolden, R., Petrov, G. ve Gosling, J. (2008). *Research and development series: Developing collective leadership in higher education*. London: Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.
- Braham, B. J. (1998). *Öğrenen bir organizasyon yaratmak* (Çev. A. Tekcan). İstanbul: Rota Yayınları.
- Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2012). *Sosyal bilimler için veri analizi el kitabı* (16. Baskı). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Cincioğlu, O. (2011). Collateral curriculum and university culture. *Sakarya University Journal of Education*, 1(2), 70-81.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Nitel, nicel ve karma yöntem yaklaşımları araştırma deseni* (Çev. Ed. S. B. Demir). Ankara: Eğiten Kitap.
- Çetin-Gürkan, G. (2007). Öğrenen örgütler: yükseköğrenim kurumlarının öğrenen örgüt olması. *Yönetim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 5(2), 118-130.
- Çokluk, Ö., Şekercioğlu, G. ve Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2012). *Sosyal bilimler için çok değişkenli istatistik SPSS ve LISREL Uygulamaları* (2. Baskı). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- DasGupta, P. (2011). Literature review: e- leadership. *Emerging Leadership Journeys*, 4(1), 1-36.
- Demir, R. (2008). *Üniversitenin bugünü ve yarını* (3. Baskı). Ankara: Palme.
- Fraenkel, J. R. ve Wallen, N. E. (2006). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Goffee, R. ve Jones, G. (2003). *Kurum Kültürü* (Çev. K. Kutmandu). Ankara: MediaCat.
- Gronow, M. (2007). ICT leadership in school education. "Directions for Catholic Education Leadership in the 21st Century" *Australian Catholic University Conference*.
- Gruber, H.G. (2000). *Does organisational culture affect the sharing of knowledge? The case of a department in a high technology company* (Unpublished master dissertation). Carleton University, Ottawa, Ontario.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E. ve Tahtam, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis*. New Jersey: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Harrison, R. (1972). Understanding your organization's character. *Harvard Business Review*, 50(23): 119-128.

- Hately, N., ve Schiller, J., (2003) What personal ICT skills do school leaders need? *The Practicing Administrator*, 4, 5 – 7.
- Hoy, W. K. ve Miskel, C. G. (2010). *Eğitim yönetimi teori, araştırma ve uygulama*. (Çev. S. Turan). Ankara: Nobel.
- Kotter, J. (2008). Kültürler ve koalisyonlar. R. Gibson (Ed.), *Geleceği Yönetmek* (Çev. A. Ergül ve A. Uysal), (ss. 180-194). İstanbul: Yakamoz.
- Mamatoğlu, N. (2004). Örgütsel kültür tipi ölçeği. *3P Psikiyatri, Psikoloji, Psikofarmakoloji Dergisi*, 12(4), 305-315.
- Mamatoğlu, N. (2006). Örgüt içi iletişim ve performans değerlendirme sistemi algıları örgüt kültürü algısını yordar mı?. *Ankara Üniversitesi SBF Dergisi*, 61(4), 177-201.
- Masier, D. J. (2013). *An exploratory study of the relationship between self-directed learning and Senge's five disciplines necessary to become a learning organization: in a high-tech company* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). North Carolina State University, North Carolina.
- Rosovsky, H. (2008). *Üniversite: Bir dekan anlatıyor* (18. Baskı), (Çev. S. Ersoy). Ankara: TÜBİTAK.
- Seaford, S. (2003). The manifestation of the five disciplines of a learning organization in coalition of essential schools and their critical friends groups. Ed.D. diss., University of La Verne, La Verne, CA.
- Senge, P.M. (2011). *Beşinci disiplin* (15. Baskı), (Çev. A. İldeniz ve A. Doğukan). İstanbul: Yapı Kredi Yayınları.
- Smith, D. S. (2008). The relationship between learning organizations and student achievement in middle schools (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of LaVerne, California.
- Şimşek, Ö.F. (2007). *Yapısal eşitlik modellemesine giriş*. Ankara: Ekinoks.
- Tanrıoğen, Z. M. (2013). *İlköğretim okulu müdürlerinin liderlik tarzlarının örgüt kültürü ile ilişkisi* (Yayımlanmamış doktora tezi). Pamukkale Üniversitesi, Denizli.
- Yamaç, K. (2009). *Bilgi toplumu ve üniversiteler*. Ankara: Eflatun.
- YÖK. (2015). *Yükseköğretim Bilgi Yönetim Sistemi Devlet Üniversiteleri Öğretim Elemanı İstatistikleri*. <http://www.yok.gov.tr> adresinden 1 Temmuz 2015 tarihinde edinilmiştir.
- Yücel, İ. (2007). *Öğrenen örgütler ve örgüt kültürü -bir uygulama-* (Yayımlanmamış doktora tezi). Atatürk Üniversitesi, Erzurum.

Education and Technology for a Sustainable Future

Christian Ruggiero, Francesca Rossetti, Daniele Del Gaudio, Andrea Rocchi

Introduction

Sapienza University of Rome participates in Solar Decathlon Middle East 2018 International Competition. The aim of the team is to design and realize the best sustainable and energy-efficient housing prototype on a real scale. The purpose of the project is to create a Smart Solar House that can guarantee maximum efficiency and effectiveness in the use of technology resources and provide an attractive, accessible and comfortable environment. The present paper wants to analyze the Solar Decathlon Contest from different standpoint, highlighting Smart Systems and Smart People aspects.

The paper examines the Solar Decathlon Team Sapienza case study from two different perspectives: 1) from technological point of view, analyzing the role and implementation of the Internet of Things in the Smart House and 2) from a socio-cultural and educational standpoint. In the Solar Decathlon contest the Sapienza University Team try to reach an important goal in two years: build a full-scale prototype of the best and most attractive sustainable, zero energy and smart solar house, acting into a multidisciplinary context, and involving students into a educative process.

With the “ReStart4Smart” project, Sapienza accepts the new sustainability challenges of the contemporary society, that require to face different way of design, construct, operate and totally rethink the buildings in which people lives.

1. What is the Solar Decathlon International Competition

1.1 Solar Decathlon US

Solar Decathlon is an international competition between different teams composed by university students. The aim is to design and build the best solar powered house, during a contest three years long. Solar Decathlon is so much more than a simple competition and can be compared to an international process of sustainability promotion, impacting stakeholders and common people too. The first Solar Decathlon was held in 2002 and, from 2005, the competition has occurred biennially.

The next Solar Decathlon is planned in Denver, Colorado. Solar Decathlon’s goals are several and each of them are linked to promote sustainability in a large scale. In details, we can target three different goals: provide participating students with unique training; educate students and the public about the latest green technologies and sustainable buildings; demonstrate to the public the comfort that combine energy with onsite renewable energy production.

Since 2002, the Solar Decathlon has expanded to Europe, China, Latin America and the Middle East. A new Solar Decathlon Africa is being planned for 2019 in Morocco.

1.2 Solar Decathlon Middle East

Solar Decathlon Middle East is the first edition of this inter-university competition to have place in the Middle East. As the original Solar Decathlon US, one of the main characteristic elements of the SDME competition is its emphasis on sustainability, innovation and research. The participant teams work not only to develop and build their houses, but also to enhance the systems’ integration and generation of knowledge on sustainable construction. As well as the American edition, the matrix of SDME 2018 is institutional.

The contest was created through an agreement signed between Dubai Water and Electricity Authority (DEWA) and the Department of Energy of the United States of America in June 2015 with the aim to organize a sustainable solar houses competition in Dubai in 2018 and 2020.

The Rules of the competition have been developed and adapted from the U.S. Department of Energy Solar Decathlon Rules and the Solar Decathlon Europe Rules in order to meet the unique objectives and principles (Table 1) of the Solar Decathlon Middle East Organization:

Table 1. Solar Decathlon Middle East 2018 Principles

Middle East Climate	Innovation	Sobriety	Mobility
Developing and promoting ideas, capacities and technologies that can be implemented for the benefit of the inhabitants of the Middle East region, in consideration of the cultural, climatic and social particular contexts	Architects and engineers are required to find the most adapted solutions for the specific context while sharing the most innovative ideas with colleagues from other countries through an intercultural debate	Through a limitation of photovoltaic power installed, an important evaluation of energy efficiency and a strong incentive to produce and consume wisely, coherently with the aim to increase the people awareness about sustainability	Even if is not an international competition for electric vehicles, the social relevance about this topic can not be ignored in order to guarantee a holistic approach on sustainability and lifestyle

The challenge in the Solar Decathlon Middle East 2018 International Competition is to project and effectively design, build and operate solar-powered houses that are energy-efficient. In addition they should be attractive, and have the necessary customization to adapt the house designs to the heat, dust e high humidity experienced by the ME region during part of the year. Competing solar houses will be evaluated on the basis of 10 separately contests (Table 2):

Table 2. Solar Decathlon Middle East 2018 Contests

Contests	Keywords (description)
Architecture	Spatial and environmental factors
Engineering and construction	Construction and engineering systems
Energy management	Management and reduction of energy consumption
Energy efficiency	Functionality and efficiency of the house design
Comfort conditions	Control of temperature, humidity, lighting
House functioning	Maximize the performance of the house
Sustainable Transportation	Simulating the driving patterns of a typical household
Sustainability	Reducing the negative environmental impact
Communication	Teams communication capacity to find creative
Innovation	Evaluating the degree of innovation of the house

Sapienza University of Rome has become one of the selected international teams among 22 universities that will compete for two years within the SDME 2018 Edition. The 22 university teams competing, coming from 16 different countries, were selected by an International jury in a shortlist of over 60 nominations.

2. The Sapienza University team “ReStart4Smart”

Sapienza University is the largest university with about 145,000 students from all over the world. The University is competing in the Solar Decathlon Middle East 2018 edition with its Team, a multidisciplinary group with the aim of designing and building in two years, from October 2016 to October 2018, a full-scale prototype of sustainable and smart solar house. The Sapienza project has been named “ReStart4Smart” and the goal is to answer to the contemporary challenges concern the sustainability lifestyle.

ReStart4Smart points to introduce a new approach to Architecture that, taking inspiration from the traditions of the past, manages to exploit all the possibilities offered by the use of renewable energy sources. The Team is composed by over 50 undergraduate’s, PhDs, and Master’s students from the three Faculties of Architecture, Civil and Industrial Engineering and Political Sciences, Sociology and

Communication of Sapienza University of Rome, coordinated and supported by key Faculty members, each a leading academic in his own fields of expertise. This composition reflects the intent of Solar Decathlon, and Sapienza University too, to involve directly students giving them the major role into this process.

As result of this choice, group members are deeply involved in project activities through training, research activities, design and experimentation processes, fully integrated in the academic programs. The ReStart4Smart strategy is focused on four different dimensions, four pillars strictly connected to the requests of Solar Decathlon Middle East contest, explaining the term “4” on which the entire project has been planned (Table 3).

Table 3. The “ReStart4Smart” four pillars

Smart Shape	Smart Envelope	Smart Systems	Smart People
Shape and orientation of the building, the positioning and sizing of the openings and the distribution of interior spaces	Technical-construction dimension concerning both the characteristics of the structure	Technological dimension favoring the use of high efficiency system solutions, the integration of renewable energy sources and the use of advanced building automation systems and Internet of Things	Socio-cultural dimension through training and direct involvement of users will be able to better and consciously manage energy consumption and comfort levels

Team Sapienza’s Solar House will be build in Rome, at the Pomezia multipurpose center of CEFME-CTP (Parity organism institute for education and security in Rome), starting from Autumn 2017. The Smart Solar House will be disassembled and reassembled in order to test and simulate construction procedures and timing. Then, operational tests will be carried out during the hottest months of June, July and August 2018, when the climatic conditions are closer to those found in Dubai during the competition. The achievement of all major energy and environmental certifications is also planned (LEED, Protocollo Itaca, Estidama, EU Energy Certification).

2.1 The role of Internet of Things in the smart house

IoT is a term coined by Kevin Ashton in 1998 which describes the interconnection of the objects, allowing the identification, the communication and the data collection (Oriwoh, Sant, & Epiphaniou; 2013). The IoTs can improve the information availability, and the related social processes, opening to unexpected consequences (Cluster of European Projects on the Internet of Things, 2011).

The Internet of Things (IoT) technology is the network of physical objects and devices, embedded with software, sensors, and connectivity. IoT enables the physical objects to collect and exchange data through network infrastructure (Ruggieri, Rossetti, D’Ascenzo & Cappelli; 2017). The IoT is an ecosystem composed by technologies, sensors and devices which allows the connection and interaction between machines (Machine to Machine - M2M) and people (Human to Machine - H2M): all the surrounding things connected to the network enable an access to several data (Gomez, Huete, Hoyos, Perez & Grigori; 2013) arranging them into a new usable format.

Home devices are an important component of the IoTs, remotely monitored and controlled via the Internet (Jin, Jia & Spanos; 2017) by related software.

These devices characterize the entire ecosystem. Domotic technologies involves the control and automation of lighting, heating, ventilation, air conditioning, security, as well as home appliances such as washer/dryers, refrigerators/freezers. The smart house is a home where the IoT technologies are present in everyday life. People interfaces with their house combining simplicity and comfort satisfying their needs and improving at the same time the energy house performance (Li et al., 2016). In facts, the IoT applications are often energy efficiency oriented. For example, they allow

an easiest in/outdoor environment monitoring, offering contemporary a comfortable space for the human being and optimization of the energy consumption.

House automation is one of the most important issues in lifestyle-related technology. Another important theme to underline regards the impact on the residential safety.

Personal data protection and comprehensive networking individual adaptation security are particularly important issues since that networked devices constantly exchange signals and data. This important traffic, which embed personal information, must be protected against unauthorized viewing and access, in order to avoid criminal uses. It is possible to secure the digital building technology just following some basic rules: ensure professional installation, use secure passwords, carry out regular updates and protect wireless networks carefully.

Despite the data privacy problematics, IoTs can be exploited to improve people's lives, introducing progress into everyday life, increasing people skills and awareness about technologies, allowing to achieve new tasks. The IoTs has a fundamental role in the smart houses and, consequentially, in the Restart4Smart project.

In addition to the energy and environment efficiency features typical of a Zero Energy Building and a Green Building (Casini, 2016), ReStart4Smart intends to integrate the IoTs, through a continuous interaction with context and users in order to acquire data and information useful to the optimization of its operation, flexibility and sustainability.

2.2 Educational context and smart house

It is possible to separate the educational framework about sustainability into four dimension (Wals, 2011): the objective IT dimension refers to theoretical and applied approaches to sustainable development; the subjective I dimension pertains to personal development needed to become actively engaged with sustainable development; the inter-subjective WE dimension focuses on collaborative competencies for working in inter-disciplinary environments; the cross-boundary dimension integrates the I, WE and IT through experiential, project-based learning. The cross-boundary dimension focuses on reflexively (I) dealing with complex problems (IT) in interactive settings (WE).

Restart4Smart, as team participating to the Solar Decathlon, approach mostly this last dimension by involving the students into a project-based learning process. All team members are deeply involved on project activities through a rigorous training, research, design and experimentation process, fully integrated in the academic programs, facing tasks which requires to improve interactional and technical skills.

Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) have been generally considered significant contributors to the promotion of sustainability (Karatzoglou, 2012), through the Education for Sustainable Development (ESD). It is possible to detect several academic publications and researches about the impact of sustainability topic into the Higher Education Institutions. On other hand, the project-based learning dimension seems to be underestimate: the focus is mostly about the presence of sustainability topic into academic curricula and about the related effects on the students.

A contribution about this theoretical field is represented by a recent publication regard the development of the sustainability topic in Malaysia (Reza, 2016), which can be considered a nation where the sustainability topic is prominent also in the education field. In fact, the nation has incorporated the principles of Agenda 21 as one of the important sustainable development documents in its national planning process. Agenda 21 is a non-binding, voluntarily implemented action plan of the United Nations with regard to sustainable development. It is a product of the Earth Summit (UN Conference on Environment and Development) held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in 1992. Since the 90's, Malaysia has experienced a consistent economic growth. This positive trend has resulted in several investments on education sector, particularly on the HEIs, showing an impressive direct correlation between the rise of new higher education institutions and the economic wellness experienced in Malaysia. Malaysian academic institutions have incorporated the topics of Agenda 21 within their academic courses by introducing sustainable development issues into their curricula for teaching, learning and research. Sustainability in the academic programs are covered within science, social

science, and engineering disciplines. Despite the great investment and development in the field of sustainability education, there are just few examples of educational process which go over the theoretical dimension, that seems to be prominent in the nation. The only attempts in this direction are represented by few initiatives about the sustainability topic such as the forum of “Sustainable Campus”, which works on building awareness and promoting a culture to leave through sustainability, organized and managed by the Institute for Environment and Development, which has been established for promoting sustainability in the academia as well as to link with the practitioners and the policy makers. In conclusion, despite the great investment on the sustainability education field in Malaysia, project-based activities such as Restart4Smart seems to be not present.

However, we can find other examples which are closer to the project competing into the Solar Decathlon contest, like the Interdisciplinary Study Programme on Sustainability (ISPoS) run by Charles University Environment Centre in Prague (Dlouha and Burandt, 2015).

In the ISPoS all the learning elements are transdisciplinary. Teachers and students come from different disciplinary backgrounds too. In collaboration with the Leuphana University of Lüneburg, the project began in 2011 and was aimed at developing a study program centered on a dialogical learning method by facing true problems. The course represented an important innovation allowing a profitable interdisciplinary learning process about sustainability.

Through collaborative works, students must analyze the consequences of global change by the development of solution for specific case studies. The ISPoS program consisted of four learning modules. First three consist of virtual seminars and multidisciplinary e-learning lecture series but, in the fourth final module, knowledge and competences acquired over the course of the first three are applied to an exploration of the sustainability problems of the Czech-German borderland region. This module provided the ISPoS students an opportunity to conceive practical solutions for the sustainability transition as for the project subject of the present work. Students were encouraged to practice their skills in communication, to increase their knowledge sharing abilities, to elevate their critical thinking and problem solving skill. This problem-oriented process embedded itself a strong practical dimension, asking to the students to face real problems, as the Restart4Smart team does into the Solar Decathlon contest.

Another example of new educational approach about ESD is represented by the use of Game Based Learning (GBL) (Bevilacqua et al., 2015) into the quotidian life. For example, into the cooking process. The original project was developed in an engineering course at Università Politecnica delle Marche (Ancona, Italy) and called “Cook & Teach”. The basic idea of the game regards the Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) topic, by applying a particular focus into micro daily tasks, as the preparation of meals. In “Cook & Teach” students have to prepare a meal and, contemporary, assess the environmental impact of this. The student-player have to analyze the impact of what he eats and of every product generated, transported, used and discarded into the Food Supply Chain. In fact, from this point of view, products are seen as potential source of pollution after their use and as source of energy consumption for their production. The game structure put the players into realistic problems, offering to the students the space to reflect also about their daily dimension, creating a connection between everyday life and macro sustainability issues. This realistic point of view linked with a daily dimension is in common with Restart4Smart, in which students have to build the sustainable house of the future, reflecting at the same time about important aspects inherent to the daily life at home.

From an educative standpoint, the Restart4Smart project offers to the students members of the team an opportunity to integrate a theoretical dimension through a project-based learning, facing directly technical, sustainable lifestyle and socio-economic issues in order to ensure the success of their project. Furthermore, it is developed in a multidisciplinary team, giving students the opportunity to learn more about the importance the team work.

The educative project runs upon two main objectives: educate the students about the opportunities and environmental benefits presented by clean-energy solutions and demonstrates to the public the comfort and affordability of the renewable energy systems available today. The Smart Solar house prototype will act as a permanent laboratory open to the public for education and training on sustainable architecture and integration of renewable energy sources in buildings. During the

construction and monitoring period, guided tours will be organized at the CEFME-CTP Center to the construction yard for education and training on sustainable architecture and renewable energy sources. This action, together with educational activities in schools, represents one of the main points listed in the Team agenda, which aim is to increase people awareness about these topics also starting vis-à-vis process and word of mouth. Coherently, closed the competition phase, the ReStart4Smart Solar House will become a permanent laboratory open to the public. Furthermore, the House will be shown in exhibitions and events of national and international relevance. All project impacts are expected to raise the awareness of the public about energy efficiency and responsible energy use in buildings, and encourage the use of innovative sustainable technologies and the architecturally attractive integration of solar systems in order to promote sustainability values, coherently with the recent request advanced by international important institutions, as previously exposed.

The project is fully supported by institutions, industrial and media partners of excellence such as The Ministry of Education, University and Research or The Ministry of Cultural Heritage and Activities and Tourism, in order to guarantee the most advanced and innovative solutions and the widest reach to both professionals and public at large.

Conclusion

From the proposal phase of the competition, up to July 2017, the participation of Team Sapienza and the Solar Decathlon Middle East have been widely publicized achieving 94 website articles, 23 events, 3 newspaper articles, 3 radio services.

The 22 Universities admitted to the SDME form a small group of world excellence, ready to challenge the most important solar building event at world. Solar decathlon is not a simple contest in which develop and construct the best house prototype, but also an opportunity for the participating teams to actively contribute into an international educative process about sustainability.

Coherently, the aim of the Restart4Smart team is to increase the knowledge and the dissemination of the sustainability topic through the following objectives: 1) educate students regard the opportunities and benefits offered by the use of renewable technologies, careful energy management and sustainable building, inviting them to develop creative and innovative solutions for energy saving; 2) encourage stakeholders to choose materials and technologies that can reduce the environmental impact of their designs, optimizing their economic convenience and ensuring occupant comfort and safety; 3) promote to general public the conscious use of energy and technologies to increase the energy efficiency of housing; 4) encourage the adoption of renewable energy sources by promoting the integration of formal high quality solar systems through the replacement of traditional building blocks; 5) demonstrate how high-performance solar homes can be comfortable, aesthetically pleasing and economically viable, and that a well-designed home can self-produce all the electricity needed for domestic consumption.

References

- Bevilacqua, M., Ciarapica, F.E., Mazzuto, G., Paciarotti, C., (2015). "Cook & Teach": learning by playing. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 106, 259-271.
- Casini, M. (2016). *Smart Buildings: Advanced Materials and Nanotechnology to Improve Energy-Efficiency and Environmental Performance*. Sawston: Woodhead Publishing.
- Dlouha, J., Burandt, S., (2015). Design and evaluation of learning processes in an international sustainability oriented study programme. In search of a new educational quality and assessment method. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 106, 247-258.
- Li, R., Yi, M., Li, H. C. Y., Mak, C. K., Tang, T. B. (2016). Sustainable Smart Home and Home Automation: Big Data Analytics Approach. *International Journal of Smart Home*, 10, 177-198.
- Gomez, J., Huete, J.F., Hoyos, O., Perez, L., Grigori, D. (2013). Interaction System Based on Internet of Things as Support for Education. *Procedia Computer Science*, 21, 132-139.
- Oriwoh, E., Sant, P., Epiphaniou, G. (2013). Guidelines for Internet of Things Deployment Approaches – The Thing Commandments. *Procedia Computer Science*, 21, 122-131.

- Karatzoglou, B., (2013). An in-depth literature review of the evolving roles and contributions of universities to education for sustainable development. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 49, 44-53.
- Reza, M.H.I., (2016). Sustainability in Higher Education: Perspectives of Malaysian Higher Education System. *Sustainability in Higher Education*, 10, 1-9.
- Ruggieri, R., Rossetti, F., D'Ascenzo, F., Cappelli, L., (2017). Building new business model from multiple case study research in the Internet of Me. *Proceedings of the 11th International Conference on Business Excellence*. pp. 852-862, Bucharest, Romania.
- Jin, M.; Jia, R.; Spanos, C., (2017), Virtual Occupancy Sensing: Using Smart Meters to Indicate Your Presence. *IEEE Transactions on Mobile Computing*. PP (99): 1-1. ISSN 1536-1233.
- Vermesan et al., (2011). *Internet of Things Strategic Research Roadmap*, Cluster of European Projects on the Internet of Things. Retrieved at September 20, 2017, from <http://www.internet-of-things-research.eu/>
- Wals, A., (2011), Initiative for Transformative Sustainability Education at Wageningen University, The Netherlands, *Journal of Education for Sustainable Development*. 2, 251-255.

Selection Strategies Used by University Students While Summarizing a Fictional Text

Şenel Gerçek

1. Introduction

Summarising is a learning method based on determining important information in a text without compromising its essence, purpose and structure, and by organizing and consistently compiling this information according to its importance (Akyol, 2013; Güneş, 2014). This method is not only based on a simply selection process but also on a synthesising strategy that requires students to analyse the information in the text that provides new information and to use the previous knowledge for the concepts in a simple way. When summarising a text, students use a number of summarising strategies and produce a new shorter text, which replaces the original text they read. Summarising strategies can change according to the genre and the length of the text. However, it is a product of a cognitive process based on reminiscence-concept. This process requires readers to constantly refer to previous information, to transfer this information to working memory, and to combine new information with prior knowledge (Weinstein and Mayer, 1983).

Summarising is a skill that constantly improved. According to Hidi and Anderson (1986) the summarizing skills of the students in the upper grades were more advanced than the lower grades (Hidi and Anderson, 1986). It was noted by Hill (1991), Brown, Day and Jones (1983) and Brown, Smiley ve Lauten (1978) that upper grade students are more likely to be more prone to planned writing, more sensitive to basic thinking, and more capable of reducing the number of sentences in a given number of sentences (Kamhi-Stein, 1993).

Some certain suggestions and methods have been developed to distinguish significant and insignificant information in a text. The articles "Toward a Model of Text Comprehension and Production" (1978) and "Strategies of Discourse Comprehension" (1983) which are written by Walter Kintsch and Teun A. van Dijk, two-leading researchers for summarising strategies are the most referred ones in the literature. The model suggested by Kintsch and van Dijk consists of a process aimed at identifying and transforming the propositions, and reaching the main idea in the text. The model basically consists of the following components: The reader's schema, micro-structure, macro-structure and macro-rules. According to the model, the reader constructs micro-structures by shortening the text with the help of a series of transformers known as macro-rules, and reaches the macro-structure containing the main idea of the text (Kintsch and van Dijk, 1978). The model facilitates to predict the macro processes for the reader who has already determined the purpose of approaching to the text. According to van Dijk (1979: 51), "The theory of macro structures is intended as a partial formalization of earlier psychological ideas about 'schemes', 'themes', 'plan' or 'frames', and does not only apply to verbal information processing but also to other complex cognitive abilities.". The model generally enforces the use of three macro-rules to expose the macro structure of the text: Deletion, generalisation, and construction (Kintsch and van Dijk, 1978). In deletion process, propositions that do not explain each other are deleted. In generalisation process, general propositions can be used instead of the ones that come after each other and point to the same concepts. And finally, in construction process, a new proposition is produced by combining every related proposition.

In the model of Kintsch and van Dijk, the scheme is a control mechanism for determining the parts of the text that shape the gist. The reader determines the aims of the text according to this scheme. For example, the prior knowledge and experiences about traditional texts are the determinants of the schemata, giving clues as to how the reader should interpret the text. Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) state that, the following questions are searched for the answers through these schemata:

- a) What parts of the text are included in the categorical scheme (For example, a research report must consist of introduction, method, results, and discussion sections)?
- b) Which information contains information(s) about the macro structure of the text in every

chapter (For example, in a research report, the introduction section must explicitly state the purpose of the study)?

Although the process of reaching the macro structure is generally based on the same logic, the strategies to be used in summary can be changed according to the type and nature of the text. For example, in the summary of an informative text, the strategy of "generalization" is more prevalent whereas the strategy of "deletion" is predominant in fictional texts (Giora and Yeschayahu, 1994). In the same way, the links between concepts and thought-clusters are the determiners in descriptive texts, whereas the determiners are the relations among the plot-setting-character and time in fictional stories. For this reason, it can be said that a structure similar to the hierarchy of events in real life is also valid for fictional texts. Thus, the question how the reader structures the story, becomes important in any model of narrative comprehension as much as the textual comprehension process of a text. In connection with this, van Dijk (1980: 6) states that "In a cognitive perspective this means that language users must be able to recognize a story when they hear/read one, to distinguish between a story and a non-story, and to produce a story. This means that they must (implicitly) know the categories, rules and constraints defining a narrative discourse, and be able to strategically use these in processes of production and comprehension.". Not only the structure and content analysis of fictional texts play a key role in determining the macro structure of such texts, it is also a fairly detailed subject. Therefore, the pattern of the events, person, place and time come to the forefront.

These concepts, which describe the basic components of all types of fiction, especially the story and the novel, provide a general framework for the reader about how the contents are placed in the structure, as well as the making the fictional world-based thought clusters more clearly seen in the content-fiction plane. Thus, the reader has an intuitive approach to how to read the text. In addition, he makes choices among countless clusters of ideas through such universal schemata that regulate the processes of cognition and recalling.

Whether it is fiction or descriptive, it has been known since ancient Greece that every story has its own specific content and form, especially the fictional stories developed around a particular plot. Aristotle defines a universal narrative form based on the *Tragedy* by stating in his famous *Poetics* that each plot should have a beginning, a middle and an end, and that should be long enough for the sake of the audience's memory (Akerson, 2015). Many and various poetical and rhetorical books about structural frames of verbal and written expressions have been written in the East and West for centuries, and they mostly emphasized on effective and competent design methods. However, the Russian anthropologist Vladimir Propp, the famous work of the early 20th century, *The Morphology of The Folktale*, is considered to be the first systematic work to reveal the structure of simple narrative texts. Propp, in his work, argued that the Russian fairy-tale had a universal developmental scheme of all 31 functions (Propp, 2008). This form-based approach of Propp has been further developed, especially by the Russian formalists in the 1920s and later by the structuralists such as Lévi Strauss, Barthes, Bremond, Todorov, and Greimas in 1960s that they have tried to reveal the universal structure of various types of narratives and phenomena (van Dijk, 1980; van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983).

The text theories produced by literature criticism have also been an inspiration for the studies in the area of cognition, and especially the answer has been searched for the question of how narrative texts are handled in cognitive processes such as storing, recalling, and remembering the information in the memory. In the psycho-linguistic field, Bartlett (1932), D. M. Minsky (1975), E. Charniak (1972), RC Schang (1975), Rumelhart (1975), Thorndyke (1975), F. RC Anderson (1977), Van Dijk and Kintsch (1977), J. Mandler and N. Johnson (1977), NL Stein and CG Glein (1979) PW and in the socio-linguistic field, W. Labow and J. Waletzky (1967), have developed theories on how events or situations are more likely to be remembered (van Dijk, 1980). Despite the differences in approaches, the beginning-middle-end hierarchy of any plot remained a dominant element.

The research by W. Labow with J. Waletzky in 1967 brought important and new approaches to re-interpret traditional narrative stages. In the study, it is argued that the basic structure of fictional texts can not be analysed or understood well unless the structure of ordinary life stories of the people is better known. They state that "In our opinion, it will not be possible to make very much analysing

and understanding of these complex narratives until the simplest and most fundamental narrative structures are analysed in direct connection with their original functions.” (Labow and Waletzky, 1997: 3). Labow and Waletzky give a narrative structure consisting of hierarchy of orientation, complication, evaluation, resolution and coda, based on analysis of 14 personal stories that they gathered through face-to-face interviews. This structure, pointing to a reader-oriented linguistic organisation presents the rhetorical scheme of the narration and makes the content schema of the text “concrete, clear, and achievable”: “In narrative texts, rhetorical schemas do not have to follow each other in linear order; the reader arranges this order in his own mental activity. (...) Only when the reader completes the rhetorical scheme, will it be possible to understand and comprehend the text. It is the reader’s knowledge about the discourse that makes him notice and comprehend the rhetorical schemes and re-establish the mental rhetoric structure that is presented to him.” (Yazıcı, 2013: 91-92).

In many of the studies, the importance of the structural hierarchy of the texts has also been emphasised, especially in the studies by Kintsch (1974), Kintsch and van Dijk (1975) and Meyer (1975). In these studies, it has been suggested that the idea or proposition clusters, which are at the top of the hierarchy are better, easier and more accurate to remember (Reder and Anderson, 1980). In the process of recall and remembrance, the sequence of information rather than the order of presentation comes to the forefront according to the logical structure. The information at the top of the hierarchy is presented in the first place in the text, while the insignificant or less important information lies below. This information, which is at the top of the hierarchy, is mostly composed of general and abstract thoughts and it is acquired at the first reading (Meyer and McConkie, 1973). For this reason, the fact that basic ideas are placed in the correct place and in the hierarchical structure of the text is considered as one of the basic conditions of a good remembrance (Meyer, 1987). A competent reader is a reader who knows the structure and the organization of texts and approaches to the text with this knowledge. Such a reader is a reader who is able to use a limited number of scheme containing abstract and superimposed meanings while comprehending the concept of text (Meyer, 1987).

To sum up, the importance attributed to the role of previously acquired approach and experience in the comprehension of any knowledge is also the basis of the schema theory. When the founding elements of a fictional story are learned, a story diagram is now alive in the mind of the reader or listener. This scheme refers to a conventional structure consisting of the beginning, the middle and the ending phases of the story in which a list of certain characters is put in certain sequences of events in certain setting and time to come into action. The schema approach that facilitates revealing the macro structure of the text is also a decisive factor for the selection operations in the process of summarizing fictional texts. The structure of any narrative text can be examined in two levels in terms of facilitating the understanding of the macro structure of text: “event structure” indicating the chronological sequence of events and “discourse structure” indicating the presentation order of events (Brewer & Lichtenstein, 1980). These structures are examined in the present study as well.

2. Methodology

2.1. The Method and The Participants

In this study, it is used document analysis method for the description and analysis of the current situation. Document analysis is a qualitative research method which aims to analyze written materials that contain information about the cases or phenomena targeted for research (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2011). This study is based on the analysis of the summarization assignments of the 65 undergraduates who participated in *Reading Literature I* elective courses given in an education faculty of a Turkish state university, which is in the Marmara Region. The participants were studying at the faculties of art and sciences, architecture, communication, dentistry, education, engineering, law and physical education and sports in 2016-17 Academic Year.

2.2. Data collection and Analysis

The students were asked to read and summarize the 92-page novel “Bitirgen” by Figen Şakacı in two weeks and these summaries were collected from the students through Turnitin service. In analysing the texts, 16 assignments that include papers over three pages, having incorrect or inconsistent information, mainly composed of interpretations, mostly unsuitable to the summarization rules, or reflecting the same event sequence of the text exactly the same as in the novel, were eliminated. Thus, 49 assignments were included in the review.

Assignments were numbered individually and each assignment was read twice. Later, a wide scale was prepared after the fictional texts were identified as a strategy item for micro-structure (word, event, setting, time, characters etc.), macro-structure (plot, main idea etc.) and macro rules (deletion, generalization, reconstruction). This scale was filled according to whether the following strategies were used in the assignments. These strategies are:

1. Plot-based schema formation strategy,
2. Deletion, generalization and reconstruction strategy,
3. Topic sentence and main idea sentence identification strategy,
4. Word selection strategy,
5. Event and character selection strategy.

This study is based on the interpretation of the values in the scale and it aims to find out what selection strategies the university students tend to use in the summarization.

2.3. Research Question and Limitations

This study aims to search for answers to questions about which selection strategies university students prefer while summarizing a fictional text. In the study, (a) no information was given about the correct summary rules, (b) content and format restrictions regarding the summary texts to be prepared were not made, so that it was attempted to observe what kind of summarization perception the students had using their current knowledge.

2.4. Material of The Research (The Short Novel: Bitirgen)

Bitirgen is a 92-page story of fiction, an example of short novel. The novel is structurally composed of two parts. The first part is the presentation of the events as a diary by the main character, *the little girl*, by the first person singular *I*. The main story of the novel is explained in this section. The second part includes the little girl’s emotional comments about her mother moving from the story she told in the first chapter after she grew up.

3. Findings, Results and Discussions

1. Students tend to start with a general statement that reflects the content of the text (a1). In 39 stories, some statements given at the beginning, such as (from assignments) “*Bitirgen is a novel that tells about events in the life of a little girl in adolescence.*”, “*Bitirgen is a story of a grown-up.*”, show that students tend to determine the macro structure of the text by using a topic sentence at the very beginning. In a sense, the judgment by Labov “It is not unusual for the narrator to begin the story with one or two clauses that summarize the entire story” (Labov, 1972: 363) indicates a habit for summarizing stories, as well.

2. Students tend to emphasize the beginning of the fictional text while summarising (a2). In 38 summaries, the beginning of the novel has been overtly indicated as in the examples (from assignments): “*Bitirgen goes to a seaside town for 3 months to have a holiday with her family.*”, “*The novel, Bitirgen, starts with the arrival of Bitirgen and her family in a small town for a holiday.*”, “*Mosquito’s Town*”, the name of the town where the events began, is only mentioned in 12 summaries. This findings shows that however the students pay attention to the beginning section, they prefer to delete place names.

3. The father’s death (13), which marks the end of the first episode, was accepted as the ending part of the novel by 45 students (result) and included in the summary; the second part describing the girl missing her mother (m1), which has a separate content from the main story, was only found in the

summary of 26 students. It was also observed that at the end of their summaries, students mostly don't tend to use conclusion statements that reflect their own comments, except for 5 summaries such as (from an assignment): "As a result, Bitirgen is a story of growth of a child girl during puberty in 1980's, and reflects child sensitivity and childlike pure feelings."

4. There is a relationship between the frequency of proper nouns taking place in the text and the frequency of taking them in the summary. Bülent Abi, Müjde Abla and Fırat Bey (b4, c, d, h, j, j1, j2) are the names most frequently mentioned in the novel, in almost all the summary texts in addition to the relative names such as mother, father, sister and brother. However, the names of Sister Semra (12 times) and Aunt Bedia (20 times) are occurred very rare in the novel, their names were mentioned respectively in 35 and 42 summaries. The main reason for this common mention comes from their status rather than the frequency of their names in the story events. This proves that the importance of any narrative character in the novel or any fictional genre is identified not only by their status, but also by their emotional and behavioural situations.

5. In the summaries, the frequency of quoting directly from the novel is quite low. More than one direct quotation was found in 9 summaries. 7 of these quotations are short, one-sentence quotations to support the previous or next judgment. The other 2 summaries consist of block quotations in the size of a paragraph.

6. The death of his father (1, 13), who loses his life after he stays in the hospital for a while (11, 12), is given in the novel through the statement below: "Dear my Bitirgen, my father finally arrived but in a green car". The term "green car"⁶ here takes place in a total of 19 summaries to indicate the father's death, either directly or indirectly. In the 6 of the summaries, both the term "green car" (yeşil araba) and the term "death" (ölüm) were mentioned together. The concept "death" was only seen in 8 of the summaries; the term "decease" (vefat) was used in 3 of the summaries; the term "funeral" (cenaze) in 1 summary and the term "lost" (kayıp) was used in 1 summary to talk about the father's death. Apart from these, some other terms like "hearse" (cenaze arabası), "the coffin with a green cloth" (yeşil örtülü tabut), "the coffin" (kefen), "the wooden box" (tahta kutu), "only his body" (sadece bedeni), or "in the shroud" (kefende) were preferred without using the term "death". The death of the father has never been mentioned in 5 of the summaries. Mentioning some certain concepts, thoughts, phenomena, and events, without changing contradicts the summarization technique; however, the use of synonyms instead of the term "death" by the students may be an admiring approach to the word because it is not preferred by the author, either rather than it is considered as a taboo.

7. The young girl, the narrator of the novel, writes in the first pages that she bought a notebook to keep a diary (b1) with the recommendation of her teacher, Mr. Fırat (b4), and that she gave her diary the name "Bitirgen" as her father called her "Bitirgen" (b2) and she did not know the meaning of the word. After about a page, the narrator girl explains that she asked the meaning of "Bitirgen" to her father and got the answer "little sweet apricot" (b3). This event is also reflected in the summary of the students to a great extent. It was stated in 42 summaries that the novel was written in a diary-style. The meaning of Bitirgen was explained in the way as it was in the novel in 35 summaries, the Father effect was emphasised in 40 summaries; the advice from Mr. Fırat to keep a diary was only mentioned in 12 summaries. What is interesting here is that the students kept the order of the events in the book while summarising such as (from assignments):

"The nickname "Bitirgen" is given to her by her father. It means little sweet apricot."

"Bitirgen is a name given to her by her father and its meaning is a little apricot as sweet as a candy."

"She turns her notebook into a diary after her teacher advises; and she gives the same name as the name her father calls her. Bitirgen means a small delicious apricot."

These examples suggest that the students are having problems with combining and restructuring the sentences or that they desire to keep the original text and that's why they avoid making new sentences. Those are very few examples of combined sentences such as:

"She gave the diary the name "Bitirgen" because her father called her "Bitirgen" which means "sweet little apricot".

⁶ The vehicles carrying the funerals in Turkish culture are green. Therefore "green car" refers to hearse.

“She decides to keep a diary, thanks to her teacher, Mr. Fırat. She names the diary as Bitirgen as her father calls her, which means “little sweet apricot as sweet as a candy.”

8. The plot of the novel in the summaries was determined by most of the students in a similar narrative scheme. The event in the narrative scheme, the order of inclusion in the summary text of the events and the characters is generally the same as the order presented in the fictional text. As understood from the common scheme the following, while forming the plot of fiction or long story, the vast majority of students make person-focused choices (b2, b4, c, d, h, j1, j2, k, l1, l2, l3, m1) and try to ignore the events in the narrative as much as possible while building the macro structure of the text. Many interesting events in the novel (exploding a wall with dynamite, fights of main character, and etc.) were not included in the summaries, but the features of those who had more positive/negative effects on the character were described more often. The effect of text features such as content, theme, type, and narrative techniques should be also the research topic of this study.

9. It has been observed that every insertion to the summary apart from the events, persons and situations specified in the narrative diagram:

- a) increases the length of the summary text,
- b) weakens the connection between the elements forming the scheme,
- c) the summary moves away from the macro structure which will reflect the main idea,
- d) important information becomes indistinguishable from unimportant information.

For example, some information about Bülent’s fiancé is given in 17 summaries. The most important reason why this information, which will provide no contribution to the basic idea of the text, is included in the summary can be thought that it is absolutely necessary to mention the negative feelings of the character towards the woman who takes the person Bitirgen loves. However, this situation does not cause any conflict or change in the fictional narrative, it shows that this information is unnecessary and must be deleted.

Likewise, the fact that Bitirgen has her “period” for the first time and it is pointed out as a transition of a girl to adolescence in the novel, the fact only mentioned in 10 summaries. This can be explained with the psychological or social reasons. Because this fact is seen as a privacy issue of a woman in Turkish culture and it is not a common topic to talk in daily life.

Table 1. Common Narration Scheme of the Summary Texts

<u>SEQUENCE OF EVENT STATEMENTS</u>		<u>FREQUENCY NUMBER</u>
a	The beginning sentence of the summary	
a1	(General introduction/introduction sentence)	39
a2	- The emphasis on the beginning of the story	38
a3	- The emphasis on the place where the story begins (in Sivrisinek Kasabası)	12
b	The name 'Bitirgen'	
b1	- Stating it as the name of the "Diary"	42
b2	- Emphasis on the fact that this name is the nickname given by her father	
	40	
b3	- Explaining the meaning	35
b4	-The emphasis on the fact that it was written as the advice by Mr. Firat	12
c	The emphasis on Bulent's marriage	38
d	Working at the call centre with Sister Semra's encouragement	34
e	The emphasis on listening to others secretly	31
f	Dismissal from the call centre	32
g	The curfew (12 th September 1980, the Military coup)	37
h	The death of Mujde Abla	44
i	Coming Home (to Istanbul)	34
j	Firat Bey	
j1	-Longing for Firat Bey	28
j2	-Firat Bey's abuse	45
k	Sister's marriage	34
l	The father	
l1	-Dad's disease, leaving home for treatment with the mother	45
l2	-Bitirgen's stay in aunt Bedia's house, and her dissatisfaction	42
l3	-The death of the father	
	45	
m	The conclusion	
m1	-Longing for the mother	26

4. Conclusion

Summarization requires a metacognitive skill; for this reason, students should know all aspects of the summarization technique. As exemplified in this study, students are able to apply general deletion techniques while summarising a long text, yet they are insufficient in terms of deletion at the micro level. In addition, generalization and rewriting/reconstructing processes also show a limited success in the summaries.

Summarising is something that restricts the student's unlimited writing creativity. That's why, considering as an important part almost every point and including it in the summary, causes the summary to be unnecessarily lengthened and it digresses the content of the text away from the main idea. Because of this, intensive exercise should be done by the students about which characteristics of the words, word phrases and sentences with which characteristics should be extracted or combined, and the benefits of summarization adequacy should be mentioned to increase its positive effect. Teachers should remind students to use the rules, when they assign them a summary work or homework. They should also review the handed summaries carefully and give positive or negative feedback.

5. References

- Akyol, H. (2013). *Turkish Teaching Methods Appropriate for the Curriculum (6th Ed.)*. Ankara: Pegem Akademy.
- Brewer, F. W. and Lichtenstein, E. H. (1980, December). *Event Schemas, Story Schemas, and Story Grammars (Technical Report)*. In Center for the Study of Reading. No: 197. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Library Large-scale Digitization Project, 2007.
- Erkman-Akerson, F. (2015). *Edebiyat ve Kuramlar*. İstanbul: İthakiYayımları.
- Giora, R. and Shen, Y. (1994). *Degrees of Narrativity and Strategies of Semantic Reduction*. *Poetics* (22). Issue 6. Pp. 447-458.
- Güneş, F. (2014). *Approaches and Models of Turkish Teaching (3rd Ed.)*. Ankara: Pegem Akademy.
- Hidi S. and Anderson, V. (1986). *Producing written Summaries: Task Demands, Cognitive Operations, and Implications for Instruction*. *Review of Educational Research*. Winter, 1986, Vol. 56, No. 4, Pp. 473-493.
- Kamhi-Stein, L. (1993). *Summarization, Notetaking, and Mapping Techniques: Lessons for L2 Reading Instruction*. *Information Analyses* (070).
- Kintsch, W. and van Dijk, T. A. (1978). *Toward a Model of Text Comprehension and Production*. *Psychological Review*. 85, Pp. 363-94.
- Labov, W. (1972). *The transformation of experience in narrative syntax*. *Language in the inner city*, ed. by William Labov, 354-96. Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Labov, W., and Waletzky, J. (1997) [1967]. *Narrative analysis: Oral versions of personal experience*. *Journal of Narrative and Life History* 7 (1-4), 3-38.
- Meyer, B. J. F., and McConkie, G. W. (1973). *What is recalled after hearing a passage?* *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 65, 109-117.
- Meyer, B. J. F. (1987). *Following the Author's Top-level Structure in Text: Key for Reading Comprehension*. In R. J. Tierney, P. L. Anderson, and J. N. Mitchell, eds. *Understanding Readers Understanding*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 59-76.
- Propp, W. (2008). *Masalın Biçimbilimi*. İstanbul: İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları.
- Reder, L. M., and Anderson, J. R. (1980). *A Comparison of Texts and Their Summaries: Memorial Consequences*. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* 19. 121-134.
- Weinstein, C. E., Mayer, R. E. (1983). *The Teaching of Learning Strategies*. In *Innovation Abstracts*. Vol. 5 No. 32 Nov. 4. ERIC.
- Van Dijk, T. J. (1979). *Recalling and Summarizing Complex Discourse*. In W. Burghardt & K. Hölker (Eds.). *Text Processing (Text verarbeitung)* (49-118). Berlin: De Gruyter
- Van Dijk, T. J. (1980). *Story Comprehension: An Introduction*. *Poetics* (9). nrs. 1/3. Pp. 1-21.

Selection Strategies Used by University Students While Summarizing a Fictional Text

- Van Dijk, T. A. and Kintsch (1983). *Strategies of Discourse Comprehension*. New-York: Academic Press.
- Yazıcı, N. (2013). the Organisation of the Narration in Deli Dumrul and the Rhetorical View of the Schema, *National Folklore*, Vol. 98, pp. 87-99.
- Yıldırım, Ali and Hasan Şimsek. (2011). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri*. 8. Basım. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.

Evaluation Of Creative Problem Solving Procedure By Cooperative Method Of Basic Electronics And Measurement Course

Gonul Altay, Jale Ipek

Introduction

Increasing knowledge and changing demands of life from day to day require individuals to develop new roles. As a result, the development of new perspectives for the progress of education has become compulsory. Because traditional teaching models cannot achieve targeted teach (Cobb, 1999). In good education, it is aimed to educate individuals who can communicate and work within groups, think creatively, integrate creativity with analytical thinking, innovate and solve the given problem in a practical way. It is thought that the learning environments designed with the constructivist approach that relate learning to real life in particular will be useful in achieving this goal set in education (Tezci and Gurol, 2003).

In constructivist approach in the literature, the formation of information collects two groups in terms of the meaning they place in individual and social roles. Those who emphasize the individual formation of knowledge act on the theory that Piaget actively enters into the process of knowledge creation to remove the imbalance of the individual and that Ernst von Glasersfeld emphasizes the cultural significance of the individual and the mental models of the individual. Those who emphasize the social formation of knowledge have drawn attention to the cooperative learning process. They have stated that knowledge is created by experiences, and that existing knowledge is re-framed by experiences. Cooperative learning is defined as a teaching method that allows students to work together as a group to maximize their own and other learners' learning (Johnson, R. T., and Johnson, D. V., 1990, Akt., Herreld, 1998). According to Perkins (1994), cooperative learning increases cognitive development, abstract thinking, creativity and problem solving skills in individuals. Accordingly, educational environments should be organized to allow students to demonstrate and develop creative behaviors. Feldhusen et al. (1985) expresses the following things to be done in the learning environment in order for the students to exhibit creative behaviors (Akt.Aksoy, 2004):

1. Educational environments should be created that allow pupils to understand a problem and use creative performance-enhancing methods to solve it.
2. In order for creativity to develop, it is necessary for the student to express his / her thought in a comfortable and freeway. Therefore, the educational environment needs to be regulated in a way that enhances the self-confidence of the student and increases the research curiosity.
3. Every creative act should be rewarded to increase motivation.
4. It is important to increase the curiosity of the students to connect with the real life.
5. The training environment needs to be enriched with multimedia tools.
6. Cooperative work should be provided to minimize the sense of competition in the students.

In cooperative learning environments, students also learn to respect each other's thoughts whenever they can freely express and discuss their ideas. Thus, they will gain positive influences on their creative thinking skills by learning different perspectives. The fact that these learning environments are applicable to the students at every level of education in the field of literature gives a positive idea in terms of the usefulness of the method.

The Importance of Vocational and Technical Education

Vocational and technical education in a system based on the school with the Republic is an important issue in terms of raising qualified human power and increasing the level of labor productivity required by open foreign economic policy. In our country, this task has great duties and responsibilities. There is a need for careful technical and vocational training to train the human power to adapt to the

technological developments in the field of production and service. Vocational and Technical Anatolian High Schools, which have a very important place in the vocational education system, are the educational institutions that prepare the students for both the business and professional fields in preparing the students for the higher education institutions.

The students who receive vocational and technical education in Turkey have great difficulties in understanding the abstract concepts in their vocational courses which are originated from the fact that these institutions are in need of high technology. In these lectures, which are taught by traditional methods, the concept of abstractedly poses a major problem for learners both in the sense of the subject and in the motivation of learning. There is a great deal of erosion at the end of short periods of time for information that is thought to be learned or memorized for the exam. For this reason, it is necessary to organize the learning environment in order to bring student-centered form, cooperative learning group work and probing based learning skills.

In this research, it is aimed to evaluate the process of creative problem solving by cooperative working method in basic electronics and measurement course, one of the vocational courses with many abstract concepts. Thus, in basic electronics and measurement course, their level of perception of cooperative learning process with group work and how much this process affects them and how to improve their creative problem-solving skills will be learnt. In the study, a cooperative learning environment was provided within the scope of "Basic Electronics and Measurement" course with 20 students in the 10th grade department of information technologies which received vocational and technical education in the 2016-2017 academic year. Then, the creative problem-solving process scale of Jari Lavonen, Ossi Autio, and Veijo Meisalo (2004) which is adapted to Turkish by Ipek et al. (2017). Also it was used a semi-structured interview form consisting of open ended questions.

2. Method

This study is about how students perceive the cooperative working process, how they learn creative problem solving skills, and how they develop positive thinking skills of alternative ideas. The research was carried out with 20 students studying in the 10th grade in the department of information technology which received vocational and technical education in the spring semester of 2016-2017 academic year. The research carried out under the "Basic Electronics and Measurement" course lasted for five weeks, two hours per week. 13 of these students are male and 7 are female students. 11 students are 16 years old and 9 students are 17 years old.

Prior to the training, a study was conducted to inform the students about the cooperative creative problem solving process.

2.1. Application Process

This research was conducted based on the following 3 problem situations in "Basic Electronics and Measurement" course for 10 lessons.

- **Problem Statement 1:** What is soldering? How to make the right solder?
- **Time:** 4 lessons (Practice lasted 2 weeks)
- **Problem Statement 2:** What is the serial and parallel circuit? Sample preparation for serial and parallel circuits
- **Time:** 4 lessons (Practice lasted 2 weeks)
- **Problem Statement 3:** What is Kirchhoff's Law? Mixed circuit construction according to Kirchhoff's Law
- **Time:** 2 lessons

The problems are based on creative problem solving steps, as shown in Figure 1. This process is expressed in Problem Statement 1 as follows.

Evaluation Of Creative Problem Solving Procedure

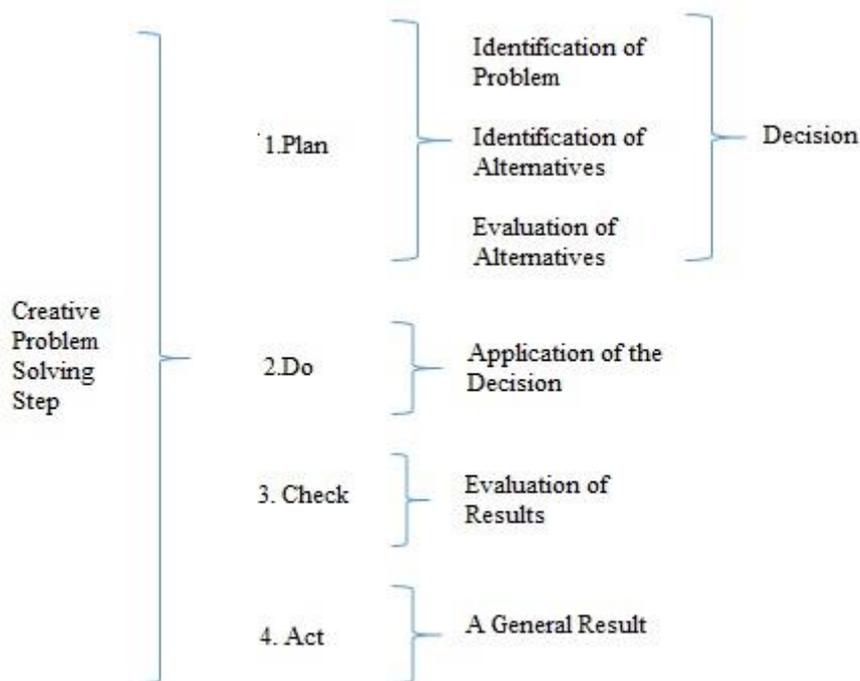


Figure 1. Creative Problem Solving Steps

Identification of Problem

- Problem Statement 1: What is soldering? How to make the right solder?
- Time: 4 lessons

Identification of Alternatives

- What is the solder used in electronic circuits?
- What are the places where our solder is used in our daily lives?
- What are the steps to make the right soldering?
- Are there alternatives to soldering?

Evaluation of Alternatives

- Students are divided into groups with whom they can collaborate. Some of the participants are shown in Figure 2.
- A total of 3 working groups are formed.
- Samples made by soldering methods are examined by groups.
- Various observations and investigations related to the problem are made.
- Each group identifies its own application for soldering.
- Develop a detailed action plan for the identified implementation work.

Application of the Decision

- An appropriate flow chart is created for the application run to occur.
 - Steps are taken in accordance with the action plan.
 - Materials are prepared.
 - Task distribution is made within each student group.
 - The soldering iron is heated for soldering.
 - The cables required for soldering are separated according to the process to be performed and the ends are stripped with the side cutter.
 - With the help of heated soldering iron, the cables are joined together with solder.
- Several examples from the resulting student work are shown in Figure 3.

Evaluation of Results

- Brainstorming is the solution to the problems experienced by the students in practice.

- During the application phase, the situation is assessed frequently.

A General Result

- It has been seen that the work was done faster with the help of the solder paste.
- It has been understood that the working environment must be adequately ventilated.
- Using the same materials, geometric shapes, furniture products, name writing studies were done to evaluate the steps of correct soldering.



Figure 2. Participants



Figure 3. Student Works

2.2. Data Collection Tools

In the study, the creative problem-solving process scale of Jari Lavonen, Ossi Autio, and Veijo Meisalo (2004) which is adapted to Turkish by Ipek et al. (2017). Also it was used a semi-structured interview form consisting of open ended 8 pieces questions. In the study process of Lavonen et al. (2004), the Overall Mapping of a Problem Situation (OMPS) method was used in the Creative Technology Education Project (CTEP). In this method, it is aimed to provide a positive evaluation of the ideas developed in the result of a cooperative work, to direct the problem solving processes and especially to develop creative skills and abilities. The response options of the items on the scale consisting of 21 items are listed as "Absolutely Not Agree, Not Agree, Undecided, Agree, Absolutely Agree" in the 5-Likert structure.

3. Findings

As a result of the quantitative analysis, it was observed that there was no statistically significant difference between the scale scores obtained by sex and age. However, 70% of the students stated that they preferred cooperative working method.

As a result of the content analysis obtained from the collected qualitative data, 15 students stated that they did not have previous education about electronic circuit elements and 5 students made self-circuit by watching the videos. By using the electronic circuit elements made by this study, 7 students stated that they did not express any emotions, 10 students said that the work done was nice and pleasurable, they had fun while learning, and 3 students had difficulties at times.

Evaluation Of Creative Problem Solving Procedure

"We were separated into groups. Cooperating. We did some good things. It was fun." **S1**

"Together, everyone is holding up a job and getting out of the beautiful things." **S5**

"Good things, we do well." **S6**

"It was nice to be grouped with all my friends." **S7**

"We were separated into groups, shared our ideas, and so on." **S12**

"We had a lot of fun together." **S14**

"Work done as a group. It was done by taking common ideas." **S15**

"I mixed the pipes, I mixed the cable types." **S17**

"I did not mix the cable types." **S18**

"Merging, testing, coding, etc. I learned such information." **S19**

"I learned to code, combine parts, choose materials properly." **S20**

During the exercises, 8 students stated that they did not have any difficulty at any stage, 3 students had a lot of fun despite their difficulties, and 9 students had difficulties in some stages such as hand sweating, bonding of solder and cables.

"Robbing the cables." **S2**

"It was a little difficult to do the soldering but nobody got hurt and it was fun." **S5**

"In soldering. Cables are soldered to each other ..." **S6**

"We were a bit difficult to wire and solder." **S7**

"I have difficulty in combining cables." **S8**

"The cables were sweating and slipping without being small." **S9**

"I'm having trouble doing soldering and robbing cables." **S13**

"He was tough, but later he got better. The part I am forced to do is over."

S14

"At first it was difficult but then it was easy." **S15**

"I was not." **S16**

"Coding difficulties, finding parts." **S19**

"I got information about how to combine pieces of difficulty when coding." **S20**

14 students have the opinion that "It is better and more positive to work together, to get ideas, and to work with a common decision." 7 students have the opinion that "Individual work is done more quickly and more personally".

The ideas on whether these applications in basic electronics and measurement lessons are appropriate for grade 10 are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Compliance of Classes of Applications

Code	F
9. Level	1
10. Level	9
11. Level	4
12. Level	2

The students have expressed their feelings and thoughts about this practice and the method used as follows;

"Beautiful, pleasant." **S3**

"I think it's easy." **S4**

"Easy, instructive." **S5**

"We can invent something to ourselves." **S6**

"It's a very good thing. It will always work." **S7**

- "I always wanted it to go that way." **S8**
 "Keep going like this all year." **S9**
 "It's fun and time-consuming." **S10**
 "It is beautiful and amusing." **S13**
 "I would have been more successful if we continued." **S14**
 "It's a beautiful feeling." **S15**
 "Fun and educational." **S16**
 "I really did not think I would do it at first, but I did it and I loved it very much." **S17**
 "I love it at first, but I did it easily." **S18**
 "We are very lucky that our life has entered, making almost all of your work easier." **S19**
 "Making our life easier." **S20**

4. Conclusion and Discussion

As a result, it is seen that the most effective aspect of the work force on which the societies based on industrialization are based is the level of education that they have. In other words, if industrialization is considered to be an indispensable element in the development of our country, there are very close relations between the realization of the targets set for the industry and the education system in the plans for development (Ergün, 1994). In other words, the information society demands a human power that is increasingly advanced (Sönmez, 2006).

As the world entered the 20th century, the majority of people in Western countries were injured only from primary education, whereas secondary education was seen as a recognized privilege (Sönmez, 2006). In this enlargement in the present secondary education system, there is a degree of importance given to qualified human development. This expansion is undoubtedly the result of the advancement of modern technology. When the specific aspects of vocational and technical education which aimed at training the human power to adapt to the advances in technology are examined, it has become important to train individuals with creative thinking skills that are socially developed, able to work collaboratively based on their working environments, the relationship with the environment, some of the learning is practiced in enterprises. As a result of this study, it has been seen that the students have come to work with cooperate, ideas and a common decision in a better and developable manner. Students have stated do not want that traditional education methods' system that is limiting, learner-passive, not be free and flexible. Instead, it has been determined that they want a collaborative learning method that enables them to think creatively and analytically, giving them opportunity to experiment. Cooperative learning environments offer broader opportunities for the development of learners' abilities, another result of which is that the teacher is only guiding in the educational process, and the learners develop their flexible thinking skills. However, in order to create this approach, which is very different from traditional education approach, it is necessary that all items are in one with each other. Thus, the school will be able to adapt to the changing demands and needs of the age and respond to the needs and desires of the learners (Tezci and Gurol, 2003).

5. References

- Aksoy, B. (2004). Probabilistic learning approach in teaching geography. *Unpublished master thesis. Gazi University, Institute of Educational Sciences, Ankara.*
- Cobb, P. (1994). "Where is the Mind? Constructivism and Sociocultural Perspectives on Mathematical Development" *Educational Researcher*, 23, 13-20
- Ergün, N. (1994). *Some variables affecting the preferences of higher education institutions, which are the continuation of the fields of vocational high school seniors* (Master's thesis, Inonu University).
- Herreld, C.F. (1998). why isn't cooperative learning used to teach Science? *Bioscience*, 48 (7), 353-359. Retrieved October 15, 2002 (de indirildi) from the world wide web: <http://www.ebsco.com>

Evaluation Of Creative Problem Solving Procedure

- Johnson, R.T. ve Johnson, D.VV. (1990). Social skills for successful group work. *Educational Leadership*, 47 (4), 29-33. Retrieved October 11, 2(X)2 (de indirildi) from the world wide web: <http://www.proquest.com>
- Lavonen, J., Autio, O., ve Meisalo, V. (2004). Creative and Collaborative Problem Solving in Technology Education: A Case Study in Primary School Teacher Education. *Journal of technology studies*, 30(2), 107-115.
- Perkins, D. N. (1994). *The Intelligent eye*. Santa Monica, CA: The Getty center for education in the arts.
- Sonmez, M. A. (2006). Organizational culture in vocational high school. *Educational Administration in Theory and Practice*, 45 (45), 85-108.
- Tezci, E., Gürol, A., and Institute, F. S. B. (2003). Constructivist Instructional Design And Creativity. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology-TOJET*, ISSN: 1303, 6521.

Privacy Perception of University Students

Derya Elmali Şen, Fatih Yazici, Evşen Yetim

1. Introduction

The simplest definition of the concept of privacy is confidentiality and it has a structure which differs from culture to culture and also from time to time in the same society. Privacy, existed in both eastern and western cultures since ancient times, is an interdisciplinary concept that is in the interests of the different science fields such as philosophy, sociology, psychology, law, architecture, politics and lately also information technology. When looked at the literature, all disciplines agree that privacy is a value. According to the philosopher privacy is a part of human existence. Psychologists emphasize to the importance of privacy for ego development and continuity. Sociologists often draw attention to the privacy and sincerity concepts to providing human relations. On the other hand the lawyers and political scientists regard privacy as a fundamental human right (Newell, 1995).

Privacy was defined, as a legal concept for the first time in 1890 by Brandeis and Warren. They defined privacy as "people's right to be left alone" and "the right most valued by civilized man". They also emphasized to concept of "freedom" as a necessity of being individual (Brandeis & Warren, 1890). Privacy, in fact is a fundamental human need and failure to meet privacy needs has been shown to be related to antisocial behaviors and behavioral disorders.

It is quite difficult to make an inclusive and only one definition of privacy experience that consisted of a compound of physical and social dimensions of the environment with psychological and individual existence of human. There is no consensus about the privacy whether it is a state of the individual at the time, a space quality, a certain process, a target, an attitude of individual or group, a size of interpersonal communication, an observable behavior or not (Göregenli, 2011). Many different definitions of privacy found in the literature. Newell (1995), revealed the variety by giving definitions in the table as below (Table 1).

Table 1. Definitions of privacy found in the literature (Newell, 1995)

Privacy is;	
(a)	not in principle detectable by everyone in the same way (Bailey, 1979)
(b)	the source of activities (Weiss, 1983)
(c)	an instrument for achieving individual goals of self-realization (Westin, 1967)
(ç)	a compound of withdrawal, self-reliance, solitude, contemplation and concentration (Chermayeff & Alexander, 1963)
(d)	an attribute of place (Webster, 1979)
(e)	a state of being (Fischer, 1971; Bailey, 1979; Weiss, 1983; Schoeman, 1984)
(f)	a zero relationship between a group and a person (Kelvin, 1973)
(g)	freedom to choose what, when and to whom one communicates (Westin, 1967; Proshansky et al., 1970)
(h)	personal control over personal information (Westin, 1967; Greenawalt, 1971)
(i)	negation of potential power-relationships (Kelvin, 1973)
(ı)	the right to be left alone (Cooley, 1880; Brandeis & Warren, 1890)
(j)	control of personal space (Hall, 1969; Canter & Canter, 1971; Canter, 1975; Gold, 1980; Fisher et al., 1984; Duvall-Early & Benedict, 1992)
(k)	a central regulatory process (Altman, 1975)
(l)	a voluntary and temporary condition of separation from the public domain (Newell, 1992)
(m)	a valued commodity (Loo & Ong, 1984)
(n)	a state in which persons may find themselves (Velecky, 1978)
(o)	a value that should be considered in reaching legal decisions (Gavison, 1984)

2. The Method

The lack of a common meaning that is valid for everyone and absence of certain limits of privacy make it interesting. The polysemy and uncertainty of the concept complicates its defining. However, privacy is perceived with different dimensions such as religious, judicial, personal, bodily/sensory, spatial and cultural from generation to generation; and its content and boundaries vary.

The study focused on what privacy means for university students. The following hypotheses were raised in this context;

H1. Privacy is most perceived as religious, personal and bodily concepts by university students.

H2. Privacy is also perceived as a spatial concept by university students.

The study was conducted using a questionnaire consisting of open and closed-ended questions (Appendix). Initially, some personal informations from the respondents; such as age, sex, nationality, degree program, faculty, socio-economic status and place they lived longest period of life in, were collected. There were two open-ended questions that were asked to examine what private and privacy mean to students. The closed-ended questions were ranking questions; first was consisted of six concepts (thoughts and emotions, belief, knowledge, body, living space and family) that considered to be private and second was consisted of six dimensions (judicial, personal, bodily, spatial, religious and cultural) which were privacy-related dimensions. It was aimed to learn that privacy was most perceived as which concept and the place of spatial dimension among the others. The obtained data was analyzed with SPSS.

The research population was defined as the total number of students (825) who attended to English prep classes of Karadeniz Technical University in Trabzon, Turkey. From the research population a random sample was drawn during the last two weeks of spring semester of 2015-16 Education Period. The sample consisted of 376 preps (131 female, 245 male). These students were contacted all together in their classes.

3. Findings

3.1. General Findings

Demographic data was evaluated and the findings were as following: there were 376 respondents, of whom 245 (65.2%) were male and 131 (34.8%) were female. 73.4% of respondents were undergraduate students while 26.6% were graduate students. According to age distribution, 45.2% of respondents were 18-19, 16.5% of them were 20-21, and 12.8% were 24-25 age range. 98.7 percent of respondents were Turkish citizens. Nearly half of the respondents (49.5 %) were students of Faculty of Engineering, while 13.3% of them attend Faculty of Economic and Administrative Sciences, and 10.1% were students of Faculty of Medicine. When respondents were asked where they spent the longest period of their lives, 38.8% of them answered as metropolitan and 34% answered as city. When the socio-economic status of respondents asked, 74.7% of them responded as they have middle-income, and 18.1 % responded as they have high-income (Table 2).

The first question was “what private means to you” and 91.5% of respondents answered the question, while 8.5% of them left unanswered. 33.7% of respondents defined the private as “personal”, 28.6% of them defined as “secret”, 8% defined as “private life”, and 7.7% defined as “private space”. These were followed by the definitions such as human right (3.1%), religious concept (2.7%), valuable (1.9%), body (1.9%), freedom (1.6%) and value (1.4%), respectively (Appendix, Table 3).

The second question was “what privacy means to you” and 80.1% of respondents answered the question, while 19.9% of them left unanswered. 20.2% of the respondents defined the privacy as “personal”, 18.4% of them defined as “confidential”, 13.3% defined as “secret”, 8.2% defined as “private space”, 6.1 % defined as “private life”. These were followed by the definitions such as human right (5.3%), value (3.7%), valuable (1.6%), religious concept (0.8%), body (0.8%) and freedom (0.5%), respectively (Appendix, Table 3).

Privacy Perception of University Students

Table 2. Demographic information of respondents

		n	%
Sex	Female	131	34,8
	Male	245	65,2
Degree program	Undergraduate	276	73,4
	Graduate	100	26,6
Age	Non-response	43	11,4
	18-19	170	45,2
	20-21	62	16,5
	22-23	31	8,2
	24-25	48	12,8
	26 and more	22	5,9
Nationality	TC	371	98,7
	Other	5	1,3
Faculty	Non-response	57	15,2
	Faculty of Engineering	186	49,5
	Faculty of Eco. & Administrative SC	50	13,3
	Faculty of Medicine	38	10,1
	Faculty of Education	11	2,9
	Faculty of Literature	10	2,7
	Faculty of Science	9	2,4
	Faculty of Architecture	6	1,6
	Faculty of Fine Arts	5	1,3
	Other	4	1
Place that was lived long period of life in	Non-response	1	0,3
	Village	38	10,1
	Small town	62	16,5
	City	128	34,0
	Metropolitan	146	38,8
	Abroad	1	0,3
Socio-economic status	Non-response	3	0,8
	Lower-income	4	1,1
	Low-income	15	4,0
	Middle-income	281	74,7
	High-income	68	18,1
	Higher-income	5	1,3
	Σ	376	100

Table 3. Definitions of private and privacy

	private		privacy	
	n	%	n	%
Non-response	32	8,5	75	19,9
Personal	127	33,8	76	20,2
Confidential	20	5,3	69	18,4
Secret	87	23,1	50	13,3
Private life	30	8,0	23	6,1
Private space	29	7,7	31	8,2
Human right	12	3,2	20	5,3
Religious concept	10	2,7	3	0,8
Freedom	6	1,6	2	0,5
Value	5	1,3	14	3,7
Valuable	7	1,9	6	1,6
Body	7	1,9	3	,8
Other	4	1,1	4	1,1
Σ	376	100	376	100

In the third question six concepts (thoughts and emotions, belief, knowledge, body, life space and family), considered to be private, given to respondents and they asked to rank the concepts from most private to least private (Appendix). 96.5% of respondents answered the question. According to the rankings; “body” came to the fore in the first rank (57.2%), “family” came to the fore in the second (26.9%), “family” again came to the fore in the third (27.9%), “thoughts & emotions” came to the fore in the fourth (27.4%), “living space” came to the fore in the fifth (24.7%) and lastly “knowledge” came to the fore in the sixth rank (55.6%). Although the concept of “belief” was ranked with similar rates and had the highest value in the fourth rank (21.3%), it came to the fore in any ranks (Table 4).

Table 4. Ranking of the concepts that are considered to be private from most private to least

	Thoughts & emotions		Belief		Knowledge		Body		Living space		Family	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
	Non-res*	13	3,5	13	3,5	13	3,5	13	3,5	13	3,5	13
1. rank**	43	11,4	40	10,6	8	2,1	215	57,2	12	3,2	45	12,0
2. rank	60	16,0	59	15,7	11	2,9	67	17,8	65	17,3	101	26,9
3. rank	63	16,8	64	17,0	17	4,5	35	9,3	79	21,0	105	27,9
4. rank	103	27,4	80	21,3	45	12,0	16	4,3	52	13,8	67	17,8
5. rank	75	19,9	72	19,1	73	19,4	19	5,1	93	24,7	31	8,2
6. rank	19	5,1	48	12,8	209	55,6	11	2,9	62	16,5	14	3,7
Σ	376	100,0	376	100,0	376	100,0	376	100,0	376	100,0	376	100,0

* Non-res: non-response

**1: most private; 6: least private

In the fourth and last question six privacy-related concepts given to respondents in sentences (I think privacy is a judicial / personal / bodily / spatial / religious / cultural concept) and they asked to rank the concepts from most important to least (Appendix). 92.6% of respondents answered the question. According to the rankings; “personal” came to the fore in the first rank (45.5%), “bodily” came to the fore in the second (37.2%), “religious” came to the fore in the third (22.6%), “cultural” came to the fore in the fourth (25%), “cultural” again came to the fore in the fifth (29.3%) and lastly “judicial” came to the fore in the sixth rank (33.8%). Although “I think privacy is a spatial concept”

Privacy Perception of University Students

sentence had the highest value in the sixth rank (28.7%), it came to the fore in any ranks with its rates (Table 5).

Table 5. Ranking of the privacy related concepts from most important to least

	Judicial		Personal		Bodily		Spatial		Religious		Cultural	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Non-res*	28	7,4	28	7,4	28	7,4	28	7,4	28	7,4	28	7,4
1. rank**	12	3,2	171	45,5	92	24,5	4	1,1	57	15,2	12	3,2
2. rank	24	6,4	82	21,8	140	37,2	15	4,0	74	19,7	13	3,5
3. rank	46	12,2	59	15,7	56	14,9	50	13,3	85	22,6	52	13,8
4. rank	64	17,0	27	7,2	34	9,0	77	20,5	52	13,8	94	25,0
5. rank	75	19,9	6	1,6	20	5,3	94	25,0	43	11,4	110	29,3
6. rank	127	33,8	3	0,8	6	1,6	108	28,7	37	9,8	67	17,8
Σ	376	100,0	376	100,0	376	100,0	376	100,0	376	100,0	376	100,0

* Non-res: non-response

**1: most important; 6: least important

3.2. Findings related to the spatial dimension of the privacy

The findings were evaluated in terms of the spatial dimension of privacy. Both private and privacy words were defined as “private space” which was a spatial expression in the fourth rank (Table 3, Figure 1 and 2). When the ranking of concepts, considered to be private, examined in terms of spatial dimension of privacy; “living space” concept came to the fore in fifth rank in general (Table 4). On the other hand, when ranking in order of importance of privacy related concepts examined, “spatial” concept came forward in any rank in general findings (Table 5).

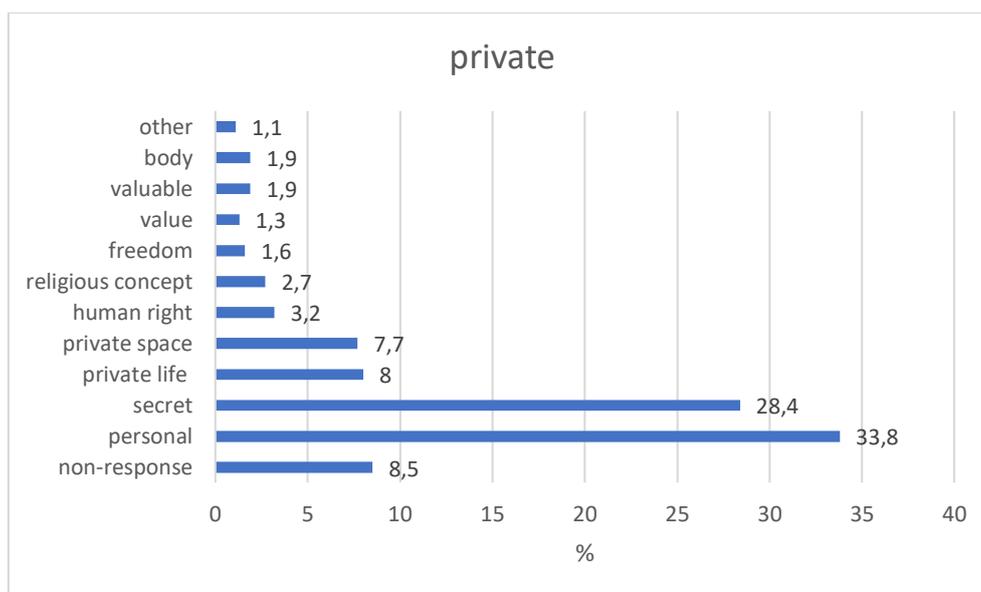


Figure 1. Responses given to the question of “what does private mean to you?”

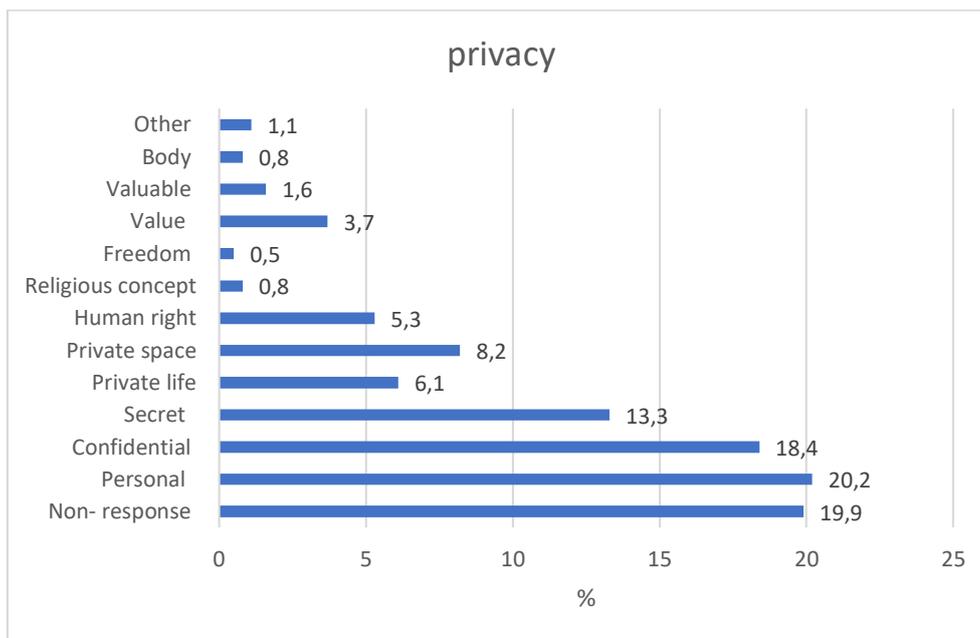


Figure 2. Responses given to the question of “what does privacy mean to you?”

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The term “privacy” derives from the Latin word “privatus” (Curtin, 1981, as cited in Leino-Kilpi et al., 2001) and “privo”, meaning “to deprive” (Rawnsley, 1980, as cited in Leino-Kilpi et al., 2001). Its original usage was the military term private, which literally meant “to be deprived of status or rank”. In English language dictionaries, privacy is defined as “withdrawal from public view or company” and “one’s private life” (Webster’s New World Dictionary, 1986, as cited in Leino-Kilpi et al., 2001).

In Turkish language the words “mahrem” and “mahremiyet”, used in the same meaning with private and privacy, etymologically have Arabic origins. The word of “mahrem” (private) means “one who is ineligible to be married because he/she is one of close relatives; something wanted to be kept secret, confidential; confidant”; and “mahremiyet” (privacy) means “confidential” in the dictionary of Turkish Language Association (TDK) (Big Turkish Dictionary, 2011).

In this study, participants were also gave similar answers for both words, however rankings and rates changed a little. They defined the concepts mostly as personal (33.7%; 20.2%), secret (28.6%; 13.3%), confidential (18.4%), private life (8%; 6.1%) and private space (7.7%; 8.2%). As is seen, the dictionary meanings of the words were given in the responses.

The emphasis of “religious concept” and “body” in the definitions were not mentioned at the expected rates. However, “body” and “family” were expressed as the most private among the concepts which were considered to be private, while “knowledge” was in the least private position. Contrary to expectations “belief” did not come to the forefront. “Personal, bodily and religious” were positioned as the most important -in top three- in terms of privacy among the privacy-related concepts, but “judicial” was positioned as the least important. So that, the first hypothesis, H1: “Privacy is most perceived as religious, personal and bodily concepts by university students”, verified by the results.

When the definitions and approaches about privacy are considered within the process, it can be seen that the privacy concept is discussed as a process that regulates relations with social world rather than the relationship with the physical world of human. Privacy as a process that regulates human’s social relationships is in the bridge position between personal space and territoriality (Göregenli, 2011).

The concept of privacy can be defined by words and word pairs such as “seclusion, solitude, own place, border, private space” in the human-space relationship. Personal space is a place where the privacy degree is in the minimum, in other words a place where the individual feels him/herself most free, safe and comfortable. When the privacy and human relations are evaluated in the context of space, it is possible to say that the space is a unit that is changeable and expresses more than four

walls. The borders of the space and degree of privacy change according to the subject who is perceiver. Each space has its own closure/opacity and openness/transparency measures; private, semi-private and public space definitions emerge when the said measure changes. However, this study aimed to research awareness of spatial dimension of privacy rather than to analyze it deeply.

In this respect, when the previous studies are examined, emphasis of space draws attention among the definitions of privacy. In a study of Demirbaş and Demirkan (2000) which aimed to determine the privacy requirements and regulations in a design studio, a survey was conducted to the participants (44 males, 38 females) that included the question of “what privacy means to you”. According to the study; 25% of respondents described privacy as a human right, 31.66% related directly to the concept of one’s freedom, 23.34% defined with the terms and concepts related to space and 20% identified as defensive attitudes.

In 2007, a master thesis which aimed to investigate the transformation of privacy was written in the field of religious sociology. Researcher interviewed with 37 university students (23 females, 14 males) and they asked what private and privacy words mean to them. 43% of the respondents defined as a personal space that wanted to be alone in and not shared with others. 22% of respondents identified the concepts with something that was personal and should be avoided from someone else; 24% identified with holy and 3% identified with sexuality (Çelikoğlu, 2007).

In present study, when the results were examined in the context of spatial size of privacy; in answers that given as responses to open-ended questions, the definition of "private space" took part as a spatial expression of privacy. In the closed-ended ranking questions, "living space" stated in fifth rank as a "spatial" dimension among the concepts which considered to be private, while “spatial” concept came to the fore in any ranks among the privacy-related concepts. The data showed results in different rates and rankings in the context of gender and degree program variables. Nevertheless, it was an interesting result of the study that “living space” and “spatial” concepts stated at last ranks or came to the fore in any ranks. This result expressed that respondents perceived privacy as a spatial concept when defining the concept, but they did not prefer spatial dimension in the first ranks. So it was not considered as important as the other concepts such as personal and bodily. In this context the second hypothesis of the study, H2: “Privacy is also perceived as a spatial concept by university students”, confirmed.

As a result the concepts of private and privacy were more perceived personal and bodily descriptions and dimensions than the others by university students. They also identified private and privacy as spatial concepts after emphasizing the personal and bodily definitions.

Since the focal point of this study was a general outlook of privacy perception of university students, other variables such as sex, degree program, socio-economic status or faculty were not focused on. Therefore, in further studies, these other variables can be analysed to evaluate if there are perceptual differences among them or not.

5. References

- Brandeis, L. & Warren, S. D., (1890). The right to privacy. *Harvard Law Review*, 4, 193-220.
- Çelikoğlu, N. (2007). *Türkiye’de Üniversite Gençliğinde Mahremiyetin Dönüşümü (The transformation of privacy in Turkish university youth)*. (Published master dissertation). Marmara University, Turkey
- Demirbaş, O. O. & Demirkan, H. (2000). Privacy dimensions: a case study in the interior architecture design studio. *The Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 20, 53-64
doi: 10.2307/1321160
- Göregenli, M. (2010). *Çevre Psikolojisi: İnsan Mekan İlişkileri (Psychology of Environment: Human Space Relations)*. İstanbul: Bilgi University Press
- Leino-Kilpi, H., Valimaki, M., Dassen, T., Gasull, M., Lemonidou, C., Scott, A. & Arndt, M. (2001). Privacy: a review of the literature. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 38, 663-671
- Newell, P.B. (1995). Perspectives on privacy. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 15, 87-104
- Turkish Language Association (2011). *Büyük Türkçe Sözlük (Big Turkish Dictionary)*. Ankara: Turkish Language Association Press

Appendix

Questionnaire

Age:

Sex: female male

Nationality: TC other

Degree Program: undergraduate

graduate

Department/ Faculty:

The place where you lived in long period of your life:

village small town city metropolitan abroad

Socio-economic status:

lower-income low-income middle-income high-income higher-income

...

1. What does “mahrem” (private) mean to you? Please answer briefly.

2. What does “mahremiyet” (privacy) mean to you? Please answer briefly.

3. Please rank in order of privacy of the concepts given below, from most private to least (1:most private; 6:least private)

your thought & emotions your belief your knowledge

your body your living space your family

4. Please rank in order of importance of the judgements given below which you agree from most important to least (1:most important; 6:least important)

I think privacy is a judicial concept.

I think privacy is a personal concept.

I think privacy is a bodily/ sensual concept.

I think privacy is a spatial concept.

I think privacy is a religious concept.

I think privacy is a cultural concept.

University Students' Attitude toward Informatics Technologies in Informatics Education

Turgut Fatih Kasalak

1. Introduction

In the societies of technology and science, different forms of intelligence “problem-solving skills, in-depth thinking, effective relationships among people, and active lifelong learning” will become increasingly important (Güneysu & Tahta, 1996; Eren-Yavuz, 2005). Technology education is to take technology literacy of societies to certain levels. Technology education involves technology-oriented education which has an everyday use in all our lives (Boh, 1994; Alkan, 1998; Şimşek, 1999).

The demanded workforce in the future society will require people to use information and information technologies most effectively in their professions. Computers have a very important function in accessing and using information. Computers, which are also teaching tools in educational institutions, are no longer an option but an obligation to learn. With the education system adopted in Turkey, it is expected that the students will be trained "to be independent and knowledgeable people thinking creatively and critically, having confidence, understanding and applying the changes in technology, solving the problems they encounter with scientific methods, using information technologies (Aydede, 2006). These expectations naturally affect the teaching-learning process. The technology of designing, implementing and evaluating teaching environments is increasingly becoming an indispensable element of education systems.

The aim of this research is to determine the opinions of the university students regarding the technological education.

2. Method

2.1. Participants and Procedure

Relational survey research is used in this study. The target population is university students in Turkish universities. The accessible population consisted of 215 university students within four faculties in Akdeniz University in 2016-2017 academic years. The sample of the study was identified through the simple random sampling method. Of the university students included in the research 55.8% (n=120) were female and 44.2% (n =95) were male. Of the university students 49.2% (n=103) were in age below 21 and 50.8% (n=106) were in 21 age and above. Also, of the university students 18.6% (n=40) were from the Faculty of Economics Administrative Sciences, 14.8% (n=32) were from Faculty of Agriculture, 22.3% (n=48) were from the Faculty of Tourism and 44.3% (n=95) were from the Faculty of Literature (Table 1).

Table 1. The sample about university students

		n	%
Gender	Female	120	55.8
	Male	95	44.2
	Total	215	100.0
Age	Age below 21	106	49.3
	21 age and above	109	50.7
	Total	215	100.0
Faculty	Economics Administrative Sciences	40	18.6
	Agriculture	32	14.8
	Tourism	48	22.3
	Literature	95	44.3
	Total	215	100.0

2.2. Instrument

The instrument consisted of two parts: (1) Questions on demographic characteristics of participants (gender, age, faculty); (2) Attitudes towards Information Technology Scale (ATITS) developed by Wong and Hanafi (2007). ATITS is a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from “strongly agree” (1) to “strongly disagree” (5), and consisting of 24 items within four subscales called “The opinions of students on classical education method”, “The opinion of students about constant visual materials”, “The opinions of students on computer assisted education” and “The ideas of students on motion picture”. Coefficient for Cronbach Alpha Internal Consistency for total is 0.87 (Wong & Hanafi, 2007).

2.3. Data Analysis

Data were collected in April, 2017 from university students within four faculties in Akdeniz University. The instrument was delivered during the class hours. All instruments took proximately 15 minutes to complete. SPSS 13.0 statistical package programs are used for data analyses. Descriptive analysis and parametric hypothesis tests (independent sample t-test and Anova test) are applied based on homogeneity of variances between and among groups. The significance level was accepted as 0.05; 0.01 and 0.001 in the analyses.

3. Findings

3.1. Attitudes towards Information Technology Scale Score of Participants

The university students have the highest point in the item “*I definitely have to repeat myself after the subject is told in so as to understand the system*” (M= 4.28; SD= 0.76) while the lowest in the item “*If I understand the structure of the subject thoroughly in lesson, I become successful in workshop applications.*” (M= 1.74; SD= 0.88) in “The opinions of students on classical education method” sub-scale (Table 2).

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics about “The opinions of students on classical education method” sub-scale

Item	The opinions of students on classical education method	University students (N=215)		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
		\bar{X}	SS					
1	The classical plain explanation method in technology lessons is enough for me to understand the subject and system	3.70	1.18	28.4	39.1	12.1	15.3	5.1
2	Reading a text by looking at the picture in the book to understand the system is not boring and difficult.	3.60	1.17	25.4	36.2	15.5	18.8	4.2
3	I can easily animate the subject in my mind by looking at the picture in the book and reading a text.	4.09	0.88	37.6	39.9	17.8	3.8	0.9
4	I definitely have to repeat myself after the subject is told in so as to understand the system.	4.28	0.76	43.5	44.4	10.3	0.9	0.9
5	It is absolutely necessary for me to comprehend the subject that	4.26	0.87	46.7	39.6	8.5	3.8	1.4

	the teachers first explain it.							
6	If I understand the structure of the subject thoroughly in lesson, I become successful in workshop applications.	1.74	0.88	2.3	2.3	8.4	41.1	45.8

The university students have the highest point in the item “*I can grasp the subject with one picture displayed by a projector.*” (M= 3.95; SD= 0.87) while the lowest in the item “*It would be better if more than one picture instead of one was shown in order to grasp the system.*” (M= 1.74; SD= 0.69) in “The opinion of students about constant visual materials” sub-scale (Table 3).

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics about “The opinion of students about constant visual materials” sub-scale

Item	The opinion of students about constant visual materials	University students (N=215)		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
		\bar{X}	SS					
				%	%	%	%	%
1	Besides the picture in the book, I can fathom the book completely by the still pictures shown by a projector.	2.15	0.97	1.4	7.4	25.1	37.2	28.8
2	I can grasp the subject with one picture displayed by a projector.	3.95	0.87	26.5	49.8	16.7	6	0.9
3	I can understand complex systems easily with a still picture.	3.58	1.15	26.5	28.4	26	14.9	4.2
4	It would be better if more than one picture instead of one was shown in order to grasp the system.	1.74	0.69	0.5	1.4	7	54	37.1
5	I need extra course materials so as to understand the subjects.	2.14	1.08	2.3	11.6	18.1	34	34
6	I can keep my focus on the subject without getting bored in course environment.	3.60	1.21	28.3	30.2	22.2	12.3	7.1

The university students have the highest point in the item “*Classical system is sufficient for technology education*” (M= 3.48; SD= 1.26) while the lowest in the item “*There is absolutely a need for computer assisted education-teaching in education.*” (M= 1.58; SD= 0.83) in “The opinions of Students on Computer Assisted Education” sub-scale (Table 4).

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics about “The opinions of students on computer assisted education” sub-scale

Item	The opinions of Students on Computer Assisted Education	University students (N=215)		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
		\bar{X}	SS					
1	There is absolutely a need for computer assisted education-teaching in education	1.58	0.83	1.9	1.9	5.6	34	56.7
2	Computer is ideal equipment for education.	1.72	0.83	0.9	3.3	9.3	40.7	45.8
3	Classical system is sufficient for technology education.	3.48	1.26	29.1	22.1	23	19.7	6.1
4	There is no difference between computer assisted- education and that of classical one.	3.12	1.44	24.5	21.2	12.7	25	16.5
5	Computer assisted- education can be used as a method to supplement classical system.	1.76	0.78	0.9	3.3	6.5	50.2	39.1
6	I can learn a subject by myself with the help of computer assisted-education, without a teacher’s lecture.	2.21	1.09	4.2	9.3	20	36.7	29.8

And also, the university students have the highest point in the item “*I can understand complex systems easily with a still picture.*” (M= 3.49; SD= 1.32) while the lowest in the item “*Besides the picture in the book, I can fathom the book completely by the still pictures shown by a projector.*” (M= 1.66; SD= 0.68) in “The ideas of students on motion picture” sub-scale (Table 5).

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics about “The ideas of students on motion picture” sub-scale

Item	The ideas of students on motion picture	University students (N=215)		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
		\bar{X}	SS					
1	Besides the picture in the book, I can fathom the book completely by the still pictures shown by a projector.	1.66	0.68	0.5	0.9	6	48.8	43.7
2	I can grasp the subject with one picture displayed by a projector.	1.80	0.73	0.5	1.9	10.2	51.6	35.8
3	I can understand complex systems easily with a still picture.	3.49	1.32	28.8	27.9	14.9	20	8.4
4	It would be better if more than one picture instead of one was shown in	1.80	0.79	0.5	3.3	10.7	46.5	39.1

	order to grasp the system.							
5	I need extra course materials so as to understand the subjects.	1.72	0.75	1.4	0.9	6.6	50.2	40.8
6	I can keep my focus on the subject without getting bored in course environment.	1.91	0.89	1.9	2.8	15.8	43.7	35.8

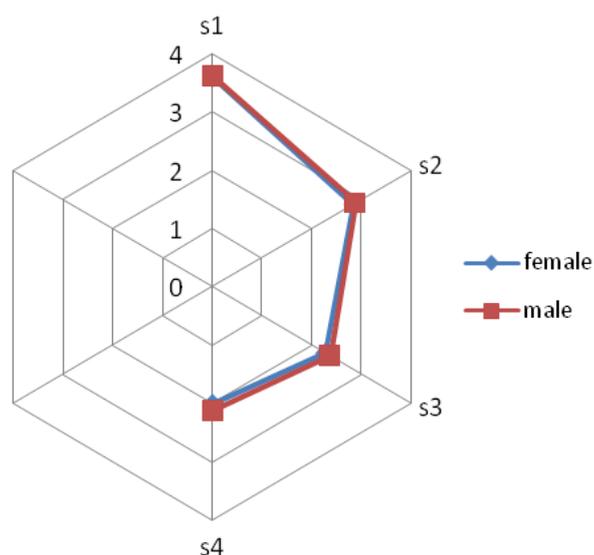
3.2 Attitudes towards Information Technology Terms of Demographic Characteristics

In this sub-title, some comparisons are made on three following variables gender, age and faculty. Table 6 (Graphic 1) and Table 7 (Graphic 2) show independent sample t-tests results for two independent variables (gender and age) that have two levels. Although means of the male university students were the highest in the all sub-scales, no significant differences are found in all four subscales of "Attitudes towards Information Technology" in the variables gender at the alpha level 0.05. And also, no significant differences are found in all four subscales of "Attitudes towards Information Technology" in the variables gender at the alpha level 0.05

Table 6. Mean comparisons in terms of the sub-scales in the variables gender

	Gender	M	SD	t	p
Sub-scale A	Female (n=120)	3.61	0,54	-.119	,905
	Male (n=95)	3.62	0,49		
Sub-scale B	Female (n=120)	2.84	0,38	-.924	,356
	Male (n=95)	2.88	0,26		
Sub-scale C	Female (n=120)	2.27	0,47	-1.593	,113
	Male (n=95)	2.37	0,48		
Sub-scale D	Female (n=120)	2.01	0,51	-1.713	,088
	Male (n=95)	2.13	0,45		

*P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001



Graphic 1. Distribution of the university students by gender according to attitudes towards information technology

Table 7. Mean comparisons in terms of the sub-scales in the variables gender and age

Age	M	SD	t	p
Age below 21 (n=106)	3.62	0,49	-,973	,332
21 age and above (n=109)	3.60	0,55		
Age below 21 (n=106)	2.85	0,34	-,666	,506
21 age and above (n=109)	2.87	0,32		
Age below 21 (n=106)	2.26	0,46	-,118	,906
21 age and above (n=109)	2.36	0,47		
Age below 21 (n=106)	2.07	0,43	-,683	,495
21 age and above (n=109)	2.06	0,53		

*P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

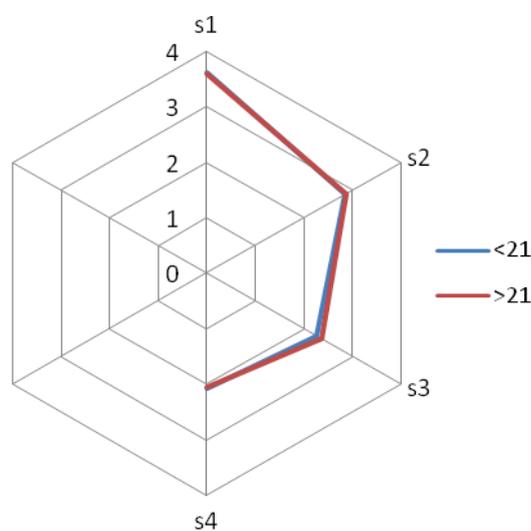
**Graphic 2.** Distribution of the university students by age according to attitudes towards information technology

Table 8 shows the ANOVA results in terms of the sub-scales in the variable faculty. According to the related data, there is a significant difference in the sub-scales “The opinions of students on classical education method” at the alpha level 0.01. Scheffe test for the sub-scales “The opinions of students on classical education method” is used in order to find out which levels of variables differ statistically. The participants who are in the faculty of agriculture have higher means than the participants who are in the faculty of economics administrative sciences, the faculty of Tourism and the faculty of Literature in the sub-scales.

Table 8. ANOVA results in terms of the sub-scales in the variable faculty

	Faculty	N	M	SD	F	p	Statistical Difference
Sub-scale A	A. Economics Administrative Sciences	40	3,54	,46	4,251	0,006**	B-A, B-C, B-D
	B. Agriculture	32	3,91	,36			
	C. Tourism	48	3,50	,50			
	D. Literature	95	3,60	,56			
Sub-scale B	A. Economics Administrative Sciences	40	2,81	,31	0,944	0,420	-
	B. Agriculture	32	2,88	,25			
	C. Tourism	48	2,92	,28			
	D. Literature	95	2,85	,38			
Sub-scale C	A. Economics Administrative Sciences	40	2,18	,39	2,318	0,077	-
	B. Agriculture	32	2,47	,37			
	C. Tourism	48	2,27	,49			
	D. Literature	95	2,34	,51			
Sub-scale D	A. Economics Administrative Sciences	40	2,16	,41	0,710	0,547	-
	B. Agriculture	32	2,06	,39			
	C. Tourism	48	2,04	,56			
	D. Literature	95	2,03	,50			

*P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

4. Discussion

This study indicates that gender and age is not found a significant variable in attitudes towards information technology of university students. With the equal opportunities in education by means of social change, female students can take the advantage of all the opportunities of male students. This may be due to the formation of a group of students who follow technological changes. Nowadays, both female and male students have equal use of technological devices. From this result, it can be concluded that when the same environment is shared, female students are at least as technologically adept as male students. It is observed that most of the university students are between 18-24 age ranges. Because this age group is predominant, students' proximity of pre-university learning environment may not have caused a significant difference according to age group. From here it can be concluded that this age group of students are very close to meet the technology.

This study indicates that faculty is found a significant variable in attitudes towards information technology of university students. The participants who are in the faculty of agriculture have higher means than the participants who are in the faculty of economics administrative sciences, the faculty of tourism and the faculty of literature in the sub-scales. Since the numerical intelligences of students studying in science are more developed than the verbal intelligences, we can say that the level of vulnerability to technology is higher than the students who study verbal section.

5. Conclusion

This study reveals the opinions of university students about the technological education. According to the results, it is seen that the students studying in the science departments of Akdeniz University have more aptitude for technology. It has become clear that prior computer education has affected their attitudes towards technological education positively.

As a result, the basic computer courses offered at universities should rely on practice as much as possible and the student should be provided with hands-on knowledge of computers.

- The studies on teaching have also shown that learning by doing is more effective than learning by listening or just watching.
- The contents of the computer lessons should involve the latest versions of software as much as possible.

- Students who take computer courses should be able to use both licensed and open-source software.
- Regardless of the professional group of the student who takes the computer lesson, he/she must be taught on subjects such as web page design, statistical programs and database (at least on a theoretical level) in addition to basic computer skills.
- In addition, basic computer teaching should be seen as a permanent activity on campus by university administration, and all employees should be encouraged to acquire this knowledge.
- Undoubtedly, the limitation of this study is that it is based on university students in a state university. Because this study was conducted in only one university where researcher was employed, further researches can be made with larger population therefore the findings can be more generalized.
- Comparative studies and usage of some qualitative techniques may be applied by future researchers or more subjective data can be obtained by using different data collection methods (like qualitative or triangulation) and with a larger sample.

6. References

- Alkan, C. (1998). *Eğitim teknolojisi [Educational technology]*. Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Aydede, M.N. (2006). *İlköğretim altıncı sınıf fen bilgisi dersinde aktif öğrenme yaklaşımını kullanmanın akademik başarı, tutum ve kalıcılık üzerine etkisi [The effect of using active learning approach in primary school sixth grade science course on academic achievement, attitude and retention of learning]* (Unpublished master thesis), Çukurova University, Adana, Turkey.
- Boh, B. (1994). *Interactive educational technologies in higher education*. ESP Discussion Paper Series. Washington DC: The World Bank Advisory Service.
- Eren-Yavuz, K. (2005). *Aktif öğrenme yöntemleri [Active learning methods]*. Ankara: Ceceli Yayınları.
- Hansen, E. (1990). The role of interactive video technology in higher education: Case study and proposed framework, *Journal Education Technology*, 30(9), 13-21.
- Orhun, E. (2000). *Türkiye’de eğitimde bilişim teknolojileri yeniliği [Innovation in information technologies in education in Turkey]*, İzmir: Türkiye Bilişim Derneği Yayınları.
- Şimşek, N. (1999). *Öğretim yazılımları [Teaching software]*. Ankara: Siyasal Kitabevi.
- Wong, S. L., & Hanafi, A. (2007). Gender differences in attitudes towards information technology among Malaysian student teachers: A case study at Universiti Putra Malaysia. *Educational Technology & Society*, 10 (2), 158-169.

Sensory Order And Market Order By Hayek's Philosophy

Merve Yolal

1. Introduction

Friedrich Hayek, one of the great intellectuals of the 20th century, is widely known for his contributions to economics and to the social sciences in general, such as sensory order, tacit knowledge, spontaneous order, cultural evolution etc. Hayek was talking about two types of rules and social order. Hayek has evaluated the concepts of order and rules in parallel to each other. Examining these issues, he particularly mentioned that cultural evolution and limited human knowledge. According to him, the rules have been transferred by natural selection. Order is a result of human activities. Because of the people have limited knowledge, they will not be able to create a complete system. Therefore, Hayek stressed that spontaneous order is the most perfect order of. Besides, the market is a kind of spontaneous order. Hayek explains this ideas based on the sensory order.

Sensory order constitutes a cognitive framework for individual preferences. Physical events on the ground meet with the human organism starts the function of the sensory order. This physical phenomenon is classified by means of the sensory order. Perceptions of individuals will be filtered by a movement of the classification. Because of that sensory order is made with pre-sensory experiences, its not include all aspects of an event occurring. At the beginning of human evolution, certain aspects that are important to an individual's life can be captured and can be classified. Therefore, it occurs in an abstract sense. According to Hayek, this pattern recognition provide just the perception of certain aspects of physical events. According to Hayek, for they do not know everything that individuals, not the event itself but can only predict such events (Gick & Gick, 2000). Thus, all thoughts of Hayek are based on the sensory system, such as sense of the social order, the rules of this order and market order.

The main purpose of this study is to analyze views of liberal philosopher F.A. Hayek, who is member of Austrian Economics School, and has important contributions for the social order and market order. In this context, firstly spontaneous order that called "Cosmos", and then constructed order that called "Taxis" in Hayek philosophy have been studied, and have been explained formation types of these orders. After examining the orders of the typological, it will focus on the differences between the cosmos and taxis.

When the second part, nomos and thesis called informal and formal rules will be examined. These rules led to the emergence of the cosmos and get taxis and indicate how to behave around where they live individuals. Nomos is referred to the rules applied to spontaneous order (informal rules) while the thesis is referred to the applicable rules for constructed order (formel rules). It will be explained the main features and differences of these rules. When the last part, catallxy called market order will be described. According to Hayek, catallxy is a special kind of spontaneous order. Consequently, the market order is accepted as a spontaneous order by Hayek, the role of the government will be discussed.

2. Hayek's Conception of Order

According to Hayek everything is an order, and every each order has a content. This content can be abstractly expressed in terms of elements and relationships. Elements of an order can be phsical, numeric, symbolic, verbal or even a human being. It's relationships can be temporal, spatial, logical, mathematical, assessor, hierarchical, and functional (Heath, 2005). The basic element of the Hayek's theory is that human knowledge has boundaries. The reason is that peoples have limited knowledge about where they live in, and they play role in small part of the market system and social system (Rubin & Gick, 2004). Namely, orders have various elements, and there is a relationship between these elements.

One of his most important contributions to social theory is the idea of spontaneous order. Hayek has made differentiate between order types that were created deliberately by individuals to meet some limited economic and social needs. For example, business firm which he calls a “constructed” or “arranged” order or an organization while other more complex types of orders which he terms “spontaneous” or “polycentric” orders (Hayek, 1964).

Hayek mentions two types of social order; constructed order and growing order. First of them is known as organization or taxis in Greek. This order have been created by external forces, so it is “constructed order”. Second is growing order that is known as spontaneous order or cosmos. This order is created by itself, and it is an internal order. Contrary to the constructed order, spontaneous order has a complex structure that human brain can not cope with it. The presence of spontaneous is imperceptible as concrete, but it is based on abstract relationships mentally. While constructed order serves a specific purpose, spontaneous order does not serve any purpose (Sarangi, 1995).

According to Hayek two conclusions emerge from samples of human activity. First is that social institutions consciously is designed to serve peoples’ purposes. The presence of an institution is evidence that it is created for a purpose. It is necessary to redesign society and institutions for actions guided by specific purposes. Hayek have been called this as constitutive rationalism. Second is thought that where evolutionary views is dominate, and social order largely occurs thanks to experiment, observation, and habits (Sarangi, 1995).

2.1. Spontaneous Order (Cosmos)

In his all articles, Hayek has been emphasized the spontaneous order at the center of the intellectual angle view. In fact, his every each article take the issue under light of the relationship “liberal” and “conservative” (Horwitz, 2015). Hayek defines spontaneous order as not created consciously but occurred as result of human activities. He gives religion, moral, law, and writing as examples of this spontaneous order. In other words, this order does not consist of only biological organisms, and everything is self-created. Because of this reason it is called as spontaneous order (Hayek, 1964).

Spontaneous order is an self-generating or internal order. It has not created consciously, and does not have specific objective. It had been emerged with the adoption of specific rules instinctively. This unplanned order idea is not only exemplified by the development of human language but also by the animal life; such as bees, ants, and insects group. No individual can predict what is successful or unsuccessful, because the relationship between the individual rules and general order is very complex (Ogus, 1989).

Spontaneous order or cosmos is evolving order. This order has been taking place in an equilibrium, or self-generating order, or naturally occurring order. Contrary to the constructed order, spontaneous order has a complex structure that human brain can not cope with it. The presence of spontaneous is imperceptible as concrete, but it is based on abstract relationships mentally. While constructed order serves a specific purpose, spontaneous order does not serve any purpose. Hayek feels that there should be organizations to ensure compliance of rules of spontaneous order (Sarangi, 1995).

Spontaneous order concept is the basis of his liberal political theory and the foundations of this theory is individual freedom. Hayek was also used to explain the concept of spontaneous order of the market economy and cultural evolution. According to him, Spontaneously organize social are useful because they provide for more information to be used than than consciously constructed order (Boykin, 2010). Hayek argues that spontaneous orders had developed in process of cultural evolution through the natural selection. Order are shaped by the rules what followed by the members of group. Group order operates in an efficient manner through natural selection. In addition, natural selection has direct effect about individuals following certain rules (Angner, 2002). In other words, there are similarities in terms of characteristics between the rules and the process of natural selection.

2.2. Constructed Order (Taxis)

Word of organization was used to mean “systematic arrangement for a specific purpose”, in 1790. The idea of organization had used in this sense had been come up as result of human intelligence and

constitutive rationalism (Hayek, 1996). According to view of constitutive rationalism social regulations are established by the human mind. Hayek does not think this due to limited human knowledge. According to him, individuals in society have only a certain part of knowledge because of scattered and fragmented human knowledge, and for his reason it is impossible to disappear the illiteracy (Hayek, 1996).

Taxis is concrete because it is perceived as intuitive and this order serves a specific purpose. According to Hayek, conception of order for constitutive rationalists has been described as artificial order. Hayek describes taxis as a "constructed order" or an "organization". Because this order was created consciously by an external determinant. Taxis, has emerged for certain purposes and therefore command is mainly applied in taxis. The purpose and knowledge of the creator determines taxis. Therefore, the knowledge in a designed organization is more limited than the knowledge on the spontaneous order.

According to Hayek taxis is a simple order and the creator can be complicated enough to check. Therefore, taxis can be easily perceived and can be routed (Aktaş, 2001). Taxis may apply small-scale or primitive societies. Such societies are members of the community know each other and are community oriented towards a common goal. In small-scale societies, information can be gathered in one place. In this case, it makes it possible to design a social life (Aktaş, 2001).

2.3. The Differences Between the Cosmos and Taxis

Hayek has presented two models of society. Cosmos; had emerged as reciprocal action of result of individuals, groups, and organizations. Cosmos are largely abstract or there is non-personal relationships in the cosmos. Everyone complies with the rules of justice is another feature of cosmos. The taxis is designed order or an organization. Taxis is an organization that works together towards a common goal, including command and obedience, distribution of awards because of requirement and contribution, special obligation for certain persons, very lack of freedom in society etc. (Allen, 1998). Cosmos is self-regulating order or spontaneous order. Taxis is created by an external factor (Khalil, 1997).

One of the main issues what Hayek wants to emphasize between spontaneous order and organization is the rules. According to him, even spontaneous order and organization are always together, they have their own different rules. Rules what set by administrators in an organization are need to be followed by every each individual who works there. Philosopher has stated that rules of spontaneous order should be independent of particular purposes. These rules are enforceable to many unknown and unidentified persons and cases. Hayek while expressed rules of the spontaneous order (he also call them as universal rules) as forming the basis of the community, expressed rules of the organization as rules what government designed to achieve his particular purposes (Sarangi, 1995).

When Hayek compared cosmos and taxis he said that taxis is a simple order, and it can be inspected by creator. Therefore taxis is concrete order that can be perceived, and serve purpose of creator. But cosmos orders has a very complex structure that can not be detected by human mind (Hayek, 1996). According to Hayek, creatures in organization and constructed order are free to act, but others' characteristic (e.g. organisms, crystals, various components) what include in spontaneous order should be stable. What Hayek gives examples of organizations are families, farms, plants, corporations, associations, and public institutions. And examples of spontaneous order are law, language, morality, market, money and information. Hayek emphasized strongly spontaneous order and organization can not be alternative to each other. For this reason, it is impossible an object takes place in both simultaneously (Jacobs, 2000).

Regularity behavior of elements located in the spontaneous order can determine the overall quality of the existing order, but can not determine special features, and details. In other words, the integrity of the spontaneous order can not be fully understood by anyone. While it is limited to have knowledge about spontaneous order, knowledge about details of constructed order will be much more. So, control power over the cosmos will be less than control power over the taxis (Hayek, 1996).

Hayek studied the evolution of humans and rule on three levels. The first level is biological evolution. Biological evolution process involves the beginning of human and primitive time. At this

stage, specific social behavior occurring during a genetic selection process are fixed. As a result, human instincts is fixed. At this stage of human evolution, it is not possible to survive without the individual instincts. The second level, intelligence, knowledge and the rationality of evolution. The realization of this evolution, does not mean that civilization occurred. Hayek emphasized that the process of cultural evolution occur before the evolution of the human mind. The third level is located between the development of human intellect and instinct. In other words, this stage is the evolution of civilization. That is, at this level appeared civilizations. At this level, cultural and socio-economic evolution of society together, conduct and emerged markets (Witt, 1994).

Table 1: Social Order by Hayek: Cosmos and Taxis

		The Intentionality Question	
		Natural	Artificial
The Reductionism Question	Social level of determination	Cultural institutions, Conventions, and Spontaneous order (<i>Cosmos</i>)	Artificial commands, Designs, and Organizational order (<i>Taxis</i>)
	Genetic & biological levels of determination	Innate behavior and Instincts	—

Source: Khalil, 1997.

3. The Rules of Social Order

Hayek has improved his views about rules as he has done about order. Hayek has been divided into two; nomos and thesis, as divided orders into cosmos and taxis. First of two is spontaneous order (cosmos), its enformal rules, and second rule is for constructed order (taxis) or formal rules.

3.1. Formel (Thesis) and Enformel (Nomos) Rules

According to Hayek rules are developing in spontaneous order, and they have regulatory measures, and include legal egalitarianism, and improve predictability (Ogus, 1989). Hayek says that in order to ensure compliance with the rules of the spontaneous order they need a organized mechaism. According to him, this is the government what will fulfill this special function, and he has likened it to a plant's maintenance team. Duty of the governmen is to make work mechanism that ensure continuation of working order that enabling the production of goods and service consumed by individual more than product these goods and service. In addition, a government should produce goods what spontaneous order can not produce. However, two different functions of the government clearly are not separated. there is distinction between compelling functions of a government which enforce rule of conduct, and only managing of obtained resources or serve functions that provide to use them have importance (Sarangi, 1995).

Nomos was formed spontaneously, and developed with law, morality, and tradition (Meijer, 2012). According to Hayek, nomos is rules that they are universal and they will be enforced equally to many unknown cases and persons in future. These rules has abstract qualifications, and free of individuals. Whereat, nomos supports the formation of the equation. But thesis only serves specific individuals or rule makers. Thesis, what is rules of organization, does assign duties, objectives, and functions which determined by the command to individuals, and these rules enforces to persons who charged with certain responsibilities (Khalil, 1997). According to Hayek, rules of conduct are informal

rules. Rules that followed and developed by the individuals had contributed to formation of the order (Hayek, 1996).

According to Hayek, real laws is nomos what is rule of conduct, and he named it as "the law of freedom". Contrary to command, laws are abstract and can be applied to many unknown cases and people in future. These rules are separated from the commands because they are not arbitrary. Applicable to future cases shows that these rules are completely independent. Nomos was defined for implementation of justice, and accepted as rule of the law. Rules of the rule of law includes; nomos, power-conferring rules, rules requiring support for liberty-preserving institutions, public law, rules of taxation, regulations for the prevention of non-coercive harms, etc. (Westmoreland, 1998).

The first point to emphasize the structure of rule of conduct is largely being implicit. According to that the word of rule has been using to regulate behavior of individuals. Rules determine or restrict the range of possibilities of choices made consciously. For Hayek, rules rather show what individuals can not do than show what individuals can do. Therefore, rules of conduct have abstract qualities. The philosopher had explained the reason what these rules emerged; all individuals follow the rules to show their thoughts through similar behaviors. Later, these rules are maintained by becoming a part of the cultural tradition of people (Ioannides, 2003). Hayek, unlike the rules that used to depending on constructed orders, accepts rules as rules of just conduct that serve to make this order independently from purposes in spontaneous order (Hayek, 1996).

Formal rules are rules created by people while informal rules occurred as a spontaneously over time. Examples of informal rules of customs, traditions, customs and traditions may show while laws are examples of formal rules (Aktan, 2008). According to Hayek, the social order has been there for people to comply with the formal and informal rules. Formal rules are abstract rules applied by the government's repressive force. Informal rules are implemented through social approval or disapproval, are the habits and customs of the social group. Different from each other of these two rules has two important functions. These rules increase the predictability of social events and offers comprehensive information on individuals (Vaughn, 1999).

One of Hayek's basic argument is that there are also significant differences between the rules of spontaneous order and organization. Rules in organizations are to fulfill the tasks assigned. These rules are used by certain authorities and employees must comply with these rules. Thus, the rules regulate only the actions of officials or government agencies. On the other hand, even if the individuals do not need to know the purpose of the rules governing the spontaneous order must be independent. These rules should be applied to people and events in a large number of unknown and unidentified (Sarangi, 1995).

According to Hayek, on the basis of spontaneous social order are fair conduct while organizational rules are designed for the government to reach a specific goal. The first rule is referred to as freedom nomos or law. The latter is referred to as the laws or regulations thesis by Hayek. Because nomos contain universal rules and apply to everyone, these rules aim to ensure the formation of an abstract order. Nomos applied to unknown samples and the people, including the borders of the area are the rules necessary for the protection of other individuals of every person. Thesis is an organization rules which designed to achieve specific objectives. These rules are designed for government activities through the establishment of various institutions. During the implementation of this rule will be the difference between the two of them. Called as rules of just conduct nomos drawing the boundaries of the action instead of specifying actions. So nomos which limits the range of permissible action for any individual in society. The government called the thesis, is only applied to people in the organization (Sarangi, 1995).

4. Market Organisation (Catalaxy)

Market where offering individuals the information they need through price is a spontaneous order. Through the market various information occurs without having to collect the information. The market is a system that enable the transmission of the information contained scattered. In other words, market related to a specific goods is a instrument for communicating to individuals the information in abridged and condensed form. Therefore, because the market system is an instrument

and a means to get additional information on the transfer of subjective information, there should be no intervention to disrupt the pricing mechanism in this system (Rubin & Gick, 2004).

According to Hayek, if the resources are used efficiently and effectively in a free market economy it can operate only through the price mechanism. He says that price mechanism serves to share personal information. Catallaxy is a self-regulatory and voluntary cooperation system (Hayek, 1945). Competition in the market creates a kind of order as a result of human action but not of human design products. This spontaneous order is a system that occurs through the independent actions of many people and general often produce unexpected benefits (Hayek, 1968).

Prices in markets transmits information about the supply and demand of goods and services includes rules on the rational behavior. The price mechanism makes communication more efficient and provides better use of resources. Individuals who do not have complete and accurate information, act according to the information on the market. Because nobody knows all the factors that determine prices or no one knows all the factors that determine the evolved rules. No one even can not have more information from the information transmitted by cultural evolution and market competition. That is, the spontaneous order of the market provides "the division of knowledge" in a society (Boykin, 2010).

According to Hayek, catallxy is a special kind of spontaneous order where, property, tort and contract in the framework of the rules that have emerged through people moving. Hayek refers to catallaxy the game as wealth creation. Because people decide to contribute to the needs according to the signals. The competition will emerge in the market process, he defines as an experiential learning process. Competition is to try to science and even the most important one is a discovery. According to him, competition should be considered as a process where the data communication (Marmefelt, 2009). Hayek civil society defines as an independent sector of the commercial and government sectors. He stressed the importance of civil society which creating wealth game in the market as special forces and non-compulsory voluntary associations.

The concept of spontaneous order is developed according to the market. Market is an unplanned process in which individuals benefit distributed and fragmented information. Individuals who compete with others to advance their own interests, have limited information about prices and costs. Factors underlying the competitive market order is contact information system. In this system, individuals act in accordance with the signal in the market. The prices reflect the need for people's products. Thus, according to Hayek, the planned economic systems fail. Because no individual does not have all the information which producers and consumers is necessary to coordinate the activities of (Ogus, 1989). Therefore, Hayek said it should not interfere with the spontaneous functioning of the market mechanism and he was against the socialist economy is s remarks on,

"Whoever controls all economic activity controls the means for all our ends and must therefore decide which are to be satisfied and which not. This is really the crux of the matter. Economic control is not merely control of a sector of human life which can be separated from the rest; it is the control of the means for all our ends. And whoever has sole control of the means must also determine which ends are to be served, which values are to be rated higher and lower-in short, what men should believe and strive for" (Hayek, 1944).

Hayek believes that the provision of services should be the elimination of the government monopoly. This idea encompasses all services that the government has a legal monopoly. But, he said the provision of some of the services by the government because these services to be provided by the private sector it is not possible. These services are to be provided by the government; education, transport and communication, public utilities like posts, telegraph, telephone, broadcasting, various social insurance services, etc. Hayek claims to work better with natural selection when there is no government intervention in social and economic institutions. The existence of a market order attributed to the presence of a particular set of political arrangements. According to him, for the efficient functioning of the market required court, police, contracts such as political institutions. Because all of these institutions are not able to be created by the market (Sarangi, 1995).

Hayek said that the market is always in perfect working order. Thus, according to Hayek, the government should provide a legal framework and the market mechanism is protected. The rules of

the game is determined by the legal framework. These rules apply to every member of society and they are intended to apply for a long time. Frame containing the rules of the game also includes the rule of law and the principles are predetermined. Individuals make plans attention to the rules of the game (Rubin & Gick, 2004). As a result, according to Hayek, the market order should be governed by the legal framework but should not interfere the functioning of the market.

5. Conclusion

In this study, Hayek's perspective about the formation of social order and market order was evaluated. According to Hayek, order occurred in two different ways. First, cosmos is a spontaneous order with cultural evolution and natural selection process. Cosmos occurred as a result of human activities, are not created intentionally by people. So, in this order, but not limited to biological organisms, and everything is made to itself. Hayek has called spontaneous order as "self-generating systems", or "constructed order", or "extended order" and thus Hayek has noted that the process of evolution and natural selection is effective on the emerging of this order. Another order was created by the people to accomplish specific purposes, named taxis. However, according to Hayek, because human mind has always incomplete knowledge, order will be created by man can not be perfect and this order will be destroyed. Therefore, Hayek says that spontaneous order is the most perfect and excellent.

Hayek developed his thoughts about rules which similar thoughts on order. So, Hayek has classified rules in nomos and thesis, as he has classified order in cosmos and taxis. first of them is nomos (informal rules) which provide formation of spontaneous order, and second is thesis (formal rules) which is rules of constructed order. Because nomos has abstract quality and it is independent of individuals, it is called as rules of just conduct. But thesis is rules that serves specific individuals and rulers. Thanks to this rules order has been occurring and operating properly.

According to Hayek, markets is spontaneous order because it is occurred as result of human activity. Therefore, irregularities would take place in this system's functions when any interventions come true to markets. In other words, harmony of between elements of this order would destroy. For Hayek, government just should protect order with laws of property, tort and contract. consequently, liberal thinker Hayek says that because of spontaneous order idea which underlying of social order and market order, any external factors should not intervene function of this orders.

6. References

- Aktan, C. C. (2008). *Yeni İktisat Okulları [New Economics Schools]*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayinlari.
- Aktas, S. (2001). *Hayek'in Hukuk ve Adalet Teorisi [Hayek's Theory of Law and Justice]*. Ankara: Liberte Yayinlari.
- Allen, R. T. (1998). *Beyond Liberalism. A Study of the Political Thought of L. von Mises, K. Popper, F. A. Hayek and M. Polanyi, with an Appendix on A. Kolnai*. NJ: Transactions Publishers.
- Angner, E. (2002). The history of Hayek's theory of cultural evolution. *Studies in History and Philosophy of Science Part C: Studies in history and philosophy of biological and biomedical sciences*, 33(4), 695-718.
- Boykin, S. A. (2010). Hayek on Spontaneous Order and Constitutional Design. *The Independent Review*, 15(1), 19-34.
- Gick, E., & Gick, W. (2000). *Hayek's Theory of Cultural Evolution Revisited: Rules, Morality, and the Sensory Order*. Univ., Wirtschaftswissenschaftliche Fakultät.
- Hayek, F. A. (1944). *The Road to Serfdom*. London: George Routledge & Sons.
- Hayek, F. A. (1945). The Use of Knowledge in Society. *American Economic Review*, 35(4), 519-530.
- Hayek, F. A. (1964). *Kinds of Order in Society*. Indianapolis: Liberty Fund.
- Hayek, F. A. (1968). *The Confusion of Language in Political Thought: With Some Suggestions for Remediating it*. Institute of Economic Affairs.
- Hayek, F.A. (1996). *Hukuk Yasama ve Özgürlük: Kurallar ve Düzen [Law Legaslation and Liberty]*. A. Yayla (Translator). İstanbul: Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayinlari.

- Heath, E. (2005). Spontaneous Social Order and Liberalism. *NYU Journal of Law and Liberty*, (1): 65-78.
- Horwitz, S. (2015). Liberalism, Conservatism, and Hayek's Idea of Spontaneous Order Spontaneous order and the limits of reason and tradition. *Mcnamara's. A Research Annual*. Retrieved at May 26, 2016, from [http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/S0743-4154\(2010\)000028A016](http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/S0743-4154(2010)000028A016).
- Ioannides, S. (2003). Orders and Organizations: Hayekian Insights for a Theory of Economic Organization. *The American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 62(3), 533-566.
- Jacobs, S. (2000). Spontaneous order: Michael Polanyi and Friedrich Hayek. *Critical Review of International Social and Political Philosophy*, 3(4), 49-67.
- Khalil, E. L. (1997). Friedrich Hayek's Theory of Spontaneous Order: Two Problems. *Constitutional Political Economy*, 8(4), 301-317.
- Marmefelt, T. (2009). Human knowledge, rules, and the spontaneous evolution of society in the social thought of Darwin, Hayek, and Boulding. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 71(1), 62-74.
- Meijer, G. (2012). Friedrich August Hayek (1899-1992). In *Handbook of the History of Economic Thought* (pp. 689-711). Springer New York.
- Ogus, A. I. (1989). Law and Spontaneous Order: Hayek's Contribution to Legal Theory. *Journal of Law and Society*, 16(4), 393-409.
- Rubin, P. H., & Gick, E. (2015). Hayek And Modern Evolutionary Theory. *Evolutionary Psychology and Economic Theory*. Retrieved at May 26, 2016, from [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1529-2134\(04\)07005-X](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1529-2134(04)07005-X).
- Sarangi, P. (1995). State As Spontaneous Order: An Analysis Of Hayek's Thought. *The Indian Journal of Political Science*, 56(1), 45-57.
- Vaughn, K. I. (1999). Hayek's Implicit Economics: Rules and the Problem of Order. *The Review of Austrian Economics*, 11(1), 129-144.
- Westmoreland, R. (1998). Hayek: The Rule Of Law Or The Law Of Rules?. *Law and Philosophy*, 17(1), 77-109.
- Witt, U. (1994). The theory of societal evolution: Hayek's unfinished legacy. In *Hayek, Coordination and Evolution: His legacy in philosophy, politics, economics and the history of ideas* (pp. 178-189). J. Birner and R. Van Zijp (eds). London: Routledge.

University Life Adaptation of Rural Vocational School Students: Manisa Köprübaşı Case

İsmet Koç, Ahmet Delil, Okay Işlak, Ali Murat Ateş

1. Introduction

Finishing high school and starting university is a very important stage, and it could be both exciting or challenging experience for some university students. Keeping in mind that they are used to the close family support, students have to adapt in a new environment. Among all years the first year of the university life seems to be the main indicative of the university adaptation (Bülbül & Acar-Güvendir, 2014).

The review of the literature reveals many relevant constructs linked with university adjustment like anxiety, depression, anger, mood, mental illness that are indicative for negative adaptation. On the other hand, good psychological adjustment, domain satisfaction, ability to develop new coping strategies, a better sense of ego functioning (self-efficacy, self-esteem), and well-being, are indicative for positive adaptation (Cliniciu, 2013).

Considerable research has been done on university life adaptation in the literature. Among them, Aladağ Bayrak&Bülbül (2013) examined academic and social integration levels of vocational school students, and found that students' academic and social integration levels did not significantly differ based on gender, but differed significantly based on family income level and on school type they come.

Erdoğan, Şanlı&Şimşek Bekir (2005) studied on adaptation status of students at Gazi University, and they found that neither university nor faculties fulfill the expectations of students and please them since they couldn't participate in social and cultural activities. Students have adaptation problems in friendship and in community due to different social perspectives, attitudes of people about them, and the cultural behavior of friends.

Özkan&Yılmaz (2010) also studied on adaptation of students to university life. They found that university adaptation status of students differs in terms of mother and father education levels, father job, the reason of department preference, like university life status, feeling lonely at university, facing problems with opposite sex, having trouble with participating in social and cultural activities.

Aktaş (1997) compared the first and last grade university students' adjustment levels through a longitudinal research, and adjustment levels (personality, social and general) of fourth grades were found to be significantly higher than at the first grade. Gender factor was not effective on the adjustment levels of the students.

Öztemel (2010) examined whether there were differences in student's adjustment levels in terms of some demographic variables. The results indicated that students' adjustment levels differed significantly in terms of gender and age, but didn't differ significantly in terms of grade levels, day/night status and place of residence.

Mercan&Yıldız (2011) studied the main problems students face in their freshman year at the university. They found a positive correlation between grade point average (GPA) and adaptation to university, and academic adaptation and social adaptation levels. In terms of socio-economic conditions, upper class students' university life scale points were significantly higher than lower class students' points.

Bülbül&Acar-Güvendir (2014) examined freshmen students' higher education integration by considering different variables. Their results reveal that during the first year of education, students are more likely to have integration problems if they have low level of commitment to higher education, if they consider they have poor education at university, if they postpone university entrance, if they are not satisfied with their continuing education, if they do not stay with their family, if they are single child in their family, if they graduated from Anatolian high schools, or if they are male.

Aypay, Aypay&Demirhan (2009) investigated the social integration levels of students based on a variety of variables at a university. Their findings indicated that students' social integration levels differed based on gender, field of study, and departments they enrolled.

Al-Qaisy (2010) studied the effect of gender and place of residence on the adjustment of freshmen in the university. Her findings showed that while male students were more inclined to adjustment than females, place of residence and place of the university of study had no effect on adjustment.

Wintre&Yaffe (2000) investigated the contributions that perceived parenting style, current relationships with parents, and psychological well-being variables make toward perceived overall adjustment to university, from both socio/emotional adaptations perspectives and actual academic achievement. Results indicated that mutual reciprocity and discussion with parents, as well as the psychological well-being variables, have direct links to adjustment to university. There was an indirect, positive relationship between authoritative parenting and adaptation variables. Furthermore, the predictor variables differed by both gender and outcome measures.

Abdullah, Elias, Uli&Mahyuddin (2010) investigated the relationship between coping efforts amongst first year undergraduates and their university adjustment and academic achievement. Findings showed that there was a significant and positive relationship between students' coping and their overall university adjustment. Results also indicated that students' overall adjustment and academic achievement was found to be significantly dependent on their coping strategies.

In (Sevinç & Gizir, 2014), academic, social, personal-emotional, and institutional adjustment of first-year university students were examined, and they focused on negative effects of each adjustment theme. Tuna (2003) examined cross-cultural differences in coping strategies as predictors of university adjustment of Turkish and U.S. students for the same adjustment themes.

There are many scales developed for university life adaptation of students. Among them, Aslan (2015) developed Adjustment to University Life Scale that is consisted of 60 items and 3 factors, namely, personal, social and academic. Kulaksızoğlu, Dilmaç, Ekşi&Otrar (2003) adapted College Adjustment Scale (CAS) into Turkish which is consisted of 9 factors developed originally by Anton&Reed (1991). Also Aladağ, Kağnıcı, Tuna&Tezer (2003) developed University Life Scale (ULS) that had 6 factors. There are also scales developed by (Pinkney, 1992), (Baker & Siryk, 1986) and (Akbalık, 1997) that motivated many researchers.

In this study, we examine how "university life adaptation" scores differ in terms of some demographic variables of students of the rural vocational school in Köprübaşı. This town is of 4200 populations that is located 135 km away from Manisa city in Turkey. The main motivation of this study is that there are disadvantages of Köprübaşı such as geographic location, relatively small size of the population, and lack of social facilities like cinema, theatre, leisure center, and cafe.

The problem is stated as "Is there a significant difference between university life adaptation scores of students depending on class, gender, home place population, awareness of the school location, willingness of choosing the school, and accommodation type?"

The results of this study may be used by the managers of Köprübaşı Vocational School in order to see a deeper profile of their students. Also, since there is not much study done with rural vocational schools similar to Köprübaşı Vocational School, the results may contribute to the literature which is another significance of the study.

2. Method

Since this study aims to examine the university life adaptation levels of university students with respect to some demographic variables, it is a descriptive study of survey model. Survey models are non-experimental, and are suitable for describing a situation as it is (Karasar, 2006).

Study Group

The study is conducted on 360 students from Köprübaşı Vocational School of Manisa Celal Bayar University within 2016/2017 education calendar. Table 1 presents the frequencies and percent values of the demographic variables below.

Table 1 Frequencies and percent values of the demographic variables

Variable	Category	n	%	Total
Class	1	184	51.5	357
	2	173	48.5	
Gender	Female	155	43.3	358
	Male	203	56.7	
Home place population	≤100.000	90	25.4	355
	>100.000	265	74.6	
Awareness of the school location	Aware	89	25	356
	Un-aware	267	75	
Willingness of choosing the school	Willing	216	60.2	359
	Un-willing	143	39.8	
Accommodation type	Dormitory	146	41	356
	House	210	59	

Data collection tool

“*University Life Scale (ULS)*” developed originally by Aladağ *et al.* (2003) is used for data collection. ULS is a seven point scale that is made of 48 items and 6 sub-dimensions that are called “adjustment to university climate”, “emotional adjustment”, “personal adjustment”, “relations with the opposite sex”, “academic adjustment” and “social adjustment”. Total scores of individuals are considered instead of scores from sub-dimensions. While high scores interpreted as adjustment, low scores are interpreted as inadjustment to university life. The reliability coefficient of the whole scale was found to be 0.91 and of the sub-dimensions were found to be within 0.70-0.80 range except “social adjustment” sub-dimension which is 0.63. Also, the total variance explained by the 6 factors was found to be 40.6% (Aladağ *et al.*, 2003).

Data analysis

Independent samples t-test is conducted besides frequency and percent statistics for the analysis of the data. Shapiro-Wilk statistics is evaluated for the normality check and found to be not normal ($p < .05$). But since the skewness and kurtosis are .642 and .470 respectively, which are within -1.5 to +1.5 range, the parametric tests were conducted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

3. Findings

Independent-samples t-test results for difference between university life adaptation scores depending on class, gender, home place population, awareness of the school location, willingness of choosing the school, and accommodation type are presented in this section.

Table 2 Independent-samples t-test results for difference between adjustment scores of class 1 and class 2

Class Level	n	\bar{X}	S	df	t	p
Class 1	184	219.55	29.119	341.207	-1.140	.255
Class 2	173	223.35	33.522			

Table 2 indicates that there is no statistical difference between university life adaptation scores of class 1 and class 2 students ($p > .05$). This is interpreted as the university life adaptation levels of students remain the same in class 1 and class 2.

Table 3 Independent-samples t-test results for difference between adjustment scores of female and male

Gender	n	\bar{X}	S	df	t	p
Female	155	219.85	31.292	356	-,752	.452
Male	203	222.36	31.334			

According to Table 3 there is no statistical difference between university life adaptation scores of female and male students ($p>.05$). This is interpreted as the university life adaptation levels of female and male students are the same.

Table 4 Independent-samples t-test results for difference between adjustment scores of students that are from home place population that is less than 100.000 and more than 100.000

Home place population	n	\bar{X}	S	df	t	p
Less than 100.000	90	219.71	31.722	353	-,505	.614
More than 100.000	265	221.63	31.067			

In Table 4 it is seen that there is no statistical difference between university life adaptation scores of students from different home place populations ($p>.05$). This is interpreted as there is no difference between the university life adaptation scores of students from the population of less than 100.000 and more than 100.000.

Table 5 Independent-samples t-test results for difference between adjustment scores of students that are aware of and un-aware of the school location

Awareness of the school location	n	\bar{X}	S	df	t	p
Aware	89	228.57	32.544	354	2.572	.011
Un-aware	267	218.79	30.594			

Table 5 indicates that there is a meaningful difference between university life adaptation scores of students that are aware and un-aware of the school location ($t(354)=2.572$, $p=.011$). This is interpreted as the university life adaptation levels of students that are aware of the school location (228.57) is higher than those that are un-aware (218.79).

Table 6 Independent-samples t-test results for difference between adjustment scores of students that are willingly and un-willingly choose the school

Willingness of choosing the school	n	\bar{X}	S	df	t	p
Willingly	216	220.43	31.267	357	-.526	.599
Un-willingly	143	222.20	31.118			

According to Table 6 there is no statistical difference between university life adaptation scores of students that willingly and un-willingly choose the school ($p>.05$). This is interpreted as there is no difference between the university life adaptation scores of students that willingly and un-willingly choose the school.

Table 7 Independent-samples t-test results for difference between adjustment scores of students depending on accommodation type

Accommodation type	n	\bar{X}	S	df	t	p
Dormitory	146	220.71	29.198	354	-,227	.820
House	210	221.48	32.802			

In Table 7 it is seen that there is no statistical difference between university life adaptation scores of students that live in dormitory and houses ($p>.05$). This means that the university life adaptation scores of students that live in dormitory and houses are the same.

Table 8 demonstrates the mean, the maximum and the weighted mean scores of the whole scale and sub-scales.

Table 8 Weighted mean scores of sub-dimensions

Sub-dimension	Mean	Maximum score	Weighted Mean
Adjustment to university climate	49.72	84	59.19
Personal adjustment	32.23	49	65.78
Mean of the whole scale	221.27	336	65.86
Emotional adjustment	42.12	63	66.86
Academic adjustment	33.22	49	67.81
Relations with the opposite sex	33.86	49	69.10
Social adjustment	30.12	42	71.71

According to Table 8, while weighted means of the sub-dimensions “adjustment to university climate” and “personal adjustment” are below the weighted mean of the whole scale, weighted means of the rest are above that of the whole scale. The weighted mean scores are evaluated as mean scores divided by the maximum scores and multiplied by 100.

4. Conclusion

There is no significant difference found between university life adaptation scores depending on class, gender, home place population, willingness of choosing the school, and accommodation type. But a significant difference found between university life adaptation scores depending on awareness of the school location. This result may imply that there are not enough promotional activities done about Köprübaşı Vocational School for student candidates to know prior their enrolment.

The weighted mean adjustment scores of sub-dimensions “adjustment to university climate” and “personal adjustment” were found to be relatively low comparing to the other sub dimensions. The relatively low scores related with “adjustment to university climate” may be due to disadvantages of Köprübaşı like lack of social facilities and social activities, and transportation problems. Also, low scores related with “personal adjustment” may indicate that there could be some students in need of support about self-confidence, self-acceptance and decision making skills.

The following preventive suggestions can be made related with these results: promotional activities like preparing leaflets-brochures, an informative web-page about school prior enrolment, and student orientation programs after enrolment are suggested. Besides, students may be encouraged by the school management to involve in or establish student clubs according to their interests. Also, considering the disadvantages of Köprübaşı, cooperative solutions may be handled with the local authorities.

Additionally, it can be suggested that students who have personal adjustment problems can be referred to counseling center by school management in order to facilitate their adaptation as an interventional action.

Finally, in order to determine detailed psychological needs and problems of the students related with adjustment problems in Köprübaşı a new research may be conducted.

5. References

- Abdullah, M. C., Elias, H., Uli, J., & Mahyuddin, R. (2010). Relationship between Coping and University Adjustment and Academic Achievement amongst First Year Undergraduates in a Malaysian Public University. *International Journal of Arts and Sciences*, 3(11), 379-392.
- Akbalık, F. G. (1997). *Bilgilendirme ve Grupla Psikolojik Danışmanm Üniversite Birinci Sınıf Öğrencilerinin Üniversite Uyumları Üzerine Etkisi. Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi*. Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi.
- Aktaş, Y. (1997). Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Uyum Düzeylerinin İncelenmesi: Uzunlamasına Bir Çalışma. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 13, 107-110.

- Aladağ Bayrak, Ö., & Bülbül, T. (2013). The Examination of Vocational High School Students' Integration Levels to Higher Education According to Various Variables. *Sakarya University Journal of Education*, 3(2), 6-20.
- Aladağ, M., Kağnıcı, D. Y., Tuna, M. E., & Tezer, E. (2003). University Life Scale (ULS): A Study on Scale Construction and Construct Validity. *Turkish Psychological Counseling and Guidance Journal*, 2(20), 41-47.
- Al-Qaisy, L. M. (2010). Adjustment of College Freshmen: the Importance of Gender and the Place of Residence. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(1), 142-150.
- Anton, W. D., & Reed, J. R. (1991). *College Adjustment Scales, professional manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Aslan, S. (2015). Development of Adjustment to University Life Scale. *H. U. Journal of Education*, 30(4), 132-145.
- Aypay, A., Aypay, A., & Demirhan, G. (2009). University Students' Social Integration: Example of a University. *Usak Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 2(1), 46-64.
- Baker, R. W., & Siryk, B. (1986). Exploratory Intervention with a Scale Measuring Adjustment to College. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 33(1), 31-38.
- Bülbül, T., & Acar-Güvendir, M. (2014). A Research Study on Freshman Students' Higher Education Integration Levels. *Journal of Educational Sciences Research*, 4(1), 397-418.
- Cliniciu, A. I. (2013). Adaptation and Stress for the First Year University Students. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 78, 718 – 722.
- Erdoğan, S., Şanlı, H. S., & Şimşek Bekir, H. (2005). Adaptation Status of Gazi University Faculty of Education Students to University Life. *Kastamonu Education Journal*, 13(2), 479-496.
- Karasar, N. (2006). *Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemi*. Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık.
- Kulaksızoğlu, A., Dilmaç, B., Ekşi, H., & Otrar, M. (2003). Turkish Bilingual Equivalence, Reliability and Validity Studies of "College Adjustment Scales". *Eğitim Bilimleri ve Uygulama*, 2(3), 49-64.
- Mercan, Ç. S., & Yıldız, S. A. (2011). Eğitim Fakültesi Birinci Sınıf Öğrencilerinin Üniversiteye Uyum Düzeylerinin Farklı Değişkenler Açısından İncelenmesi. *Hasan Ali Yücel Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 16(2), 135-154.
- Özkan, S., & Yılmaz, E. (2010). Adaptation Status of University Students to University Life (Bandırma Example). *Fırat Sağlık Hizmetleri Dergisi*, 5(13), 153-171.
- Öztemel, K. (2010). Investigation of Adjustment Levels of Technical Education Faculty Students. *Journal of Polytechnic*, 13(4), 319-325.
- Pinkney, J. W. (1992). Inventory of College Adjustment Scales. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 25, 42-45.
- Sevinç, S., & Gizir, C. A. (2014). Factors Negatively Affecting University Adjustment from The Views of First-Year University Students: The Case of Mersin University. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 14(4), 1301-1308. doi:10.12738/estp.2014.4.2081
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using Multivariate Statistics (sixth ed.)*. Boston: Pearson.
- Tuna, M. E. (2003). *Cross-Cultural Differences in Coping Strategies as Predictors of University Adjustment of Turkish and U.S. Students (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis)*. Ankara, Turkey: Middle East Technical University.
- Wintre, M. G., & Yaffe, M. (2000). First-Year Students' Adjustment to University Life as a Function of Relationships with Parents. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 15(1), 9-37.

Schliemann's Smuggling Treasures Of Troy According To Ottoman Sources

Ali Sönmez*

All human societies have been interested in the past and the relics of the past. But the *study* of the relics of the past is a relatively a new field going back to the age of the renaissance. Henceforth, the Europeans began to collect antiquities and found museums. And since most of the remains of the ancient civilizations (i.a. Mesopotamian, Egyptian, Greek, Roman, Anatolian) lay within the Ottoman Empire, it was inevitable that the Europeans visited the Ottoman Empire and plundered the antiquities with or without the permission of the sultans (Bahrani & Çelik & Eldem, 2011). Following the declaration of the Tanzimat (“Reforms”) in 1839, the Ottoman Empire underwent an intense modernization in many aspects of state and society. Inevitably Ottomans began to appreciate the antiquities of the ancient civilizations. In 1846 Fethi Ahmet Paşa founded the first Museum; in 1869, 1874, 1884 and 1906, the Ottomans enacted antiquities laws at first to regularize and then to halt export of antiquities (Arık; 1953, 1; Shaw 2004). Despite the legal measures the Ottomans could not stop plundering of the antiquities (Sönmez; 2014). One of the most sensational looting of antiquities was without doubt Schliemann’s plundering of Troy. It is a well-known story mostly based on his diaries, reports, letters and other contemporary western sources. Needless to say, the story is biased and one dimensional as the Ottoman sources are neglected in constructing the story of Schliemann’s looting of the treasures of Troy. This study aims to overcome this deficit by using Ottoman archival sources concerning “the theft of Schliemann”.

Schliemann in Troy: 1868

Schliemann visited the Troad in August 1868 for the first time and influenced by Hahn, Ziller and several others, he thought he could locate Troy at Ballıdağ near the village of Pınarbaşı. But he failed to find Troy there. (Schliemann;1881, 19). In disappointment, he returned to Çanakkale to take a ferry to Athens. He missed the ferry and had to stay in Çanakkale two more days. It was then he met Frank Calvert on August 15, 1868 (Allen; 1999, 8; Traill; 1985, 14-15). Calvert who hoped to obtain finance to dig at Hisarlık, persuaded Schliemann that Homer’s Troy was there (Allen; 1995, 393; Allen; 1996, 151).

In a letter written to his sister on August 22, 1868, Schliemann shared his enthusiasm about his project “...Next April I intend to lay bare the entire hill of Hisarlık, for I consider it certain that I will find there Pergamos, the citadel of Troy...” (Allen; 1999, 116). Although Schliemann intended to begin excavations in 1869, due to domestic problems he arrived in Çanakkale on April 8, 1870. (Traill; 1985, 16; Traill; 1995, 72-75). Despite Calvert’s efforts, Schliemann still did not have the excavation permit. Nonetheless, Schliemann began the excavations in the north-west section of Hisarlık on April 9, 1870 without government permit and without the permission of two Turkish owners of the site of Hisarlık. When the Turkish owners did not sell the land, Schliemann had to stop excavations. (Schliemann; 1875, 58-59; Esin; 1993, 182).

Schliemann’s gets excavation Permission: June 29, 1871

To add insult to injury, Schliemann published the report of his illegal excavation on May 24, 1870 in *Augsburger Allgemeine Zeitung*, declaring that he found Priam’s Troy. The Ottoman authorities were justifiably furious for Schliemann flouted the rules of the Antiquities Edict of 1869 which stipulated that all individuals who wished to excavate had to obtain permit from the ministry of education (İ.Ş.D, 11/547).

* Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Department of History, asonmezz@gmail.com.

Schliemann high-handedly and shamelessly returned to Çanakkale in December 1870 to purchase the site of Hisarlık to exploit the third clause of the Antiquities Edict of 1869 which allowed for private ownership of antiquities unearthed on private property. That is to say, he planned to keep all the antiquities he would find in Hisarlık. But he was outsmarted by the Minister of Education Safvet Paşa, who had ordered the purchase of the site of Hisarlık and made it public land. (İ.HR; 14863). In 1876, Safvet Paşa explained why and how he stilled Schliemann's intentions:

“Doctor Schliemann, an American citizen, stated that he wished to discover the ruins of famous Troy located on the site of Hisarlık near Kale-i Sultâniye and that he would purchase the land where the ruins are located for 5000 kuruş. Thereupon without informing Schliemann I immediately wired the governor of Cezâyir-i Bahr-i Sefîd and ordered him to purchase the land on behalf of the Imperial Museum swiftly ... the land was purchased for 3000 kuruş.” (MF.MKT; 34/30).

Schliemann, even if permitted to return to Troy, would excavate a site that belonged to the Ottoman state, and thus had to give a share of the antiquities he would find on the site to the Imperial Museum. Schliemann wrote a letter to Safvet Paşa on June 18, 1871 assuring him that his work would be restricted to archaeological verifications based on the epics of Homer. He also proposed to share with the Ottoman State half the antiquities unearthed in his excavations. (Traill; 1995, 86; Allen; 1999, 137; Esin; 1991, 182). The U.S. Minister to Turkey Wayne Mac Veagh and John P. Brown supported Schliemann and wrote to the Ottoman authorities a letter of support for him. (Schliemann; 1875, 59).

On June 19 1871, the Ministry of Education prepared a letter containing the conditions Schliemann must meet. Finally on June 29, 1871 Schliemann was granted permit to excavate at Hisarlık on three conditions that he must hand over half of all his finds to the Ottoman government, that he must pay all expenses, including those of the Ottoman representatives appointed to oversee the excavations, that he must leave ruins he uncovered in the condition in which they were found (İ.DH; 14863).

Schliemann Begins the Excavations: October 11, 1871

After his preliminary illegal excavation in April 1870, Schliemann began his first campaign in Troy, working three seasons: the first season on October 11-November 24, 1871; the second season on April 1-August 14, 1872; and the third and final season on February 2- June 14, 1873. (Easton; 2002, 28-72; Sazcı; 2007). The most sensational finds, including the so-called “Priam's Treasure” were unearthed during the third season. But Schliemann had difficulties as he was excavating a very large area with hundreds of workers not to mention Emin Efendi, the Ottoman representative. In such circumstances, Schliemann did not have total control over the project despite the efforts of his henchman Yannikis. In December 1873 Ottoman authorities seized golden ornaments – a pair of golden bracelets, a pair of golden earrings, a golden necklace - in Kumkale near Troy. They had been unearthed at Hisarlık in March by two workers (Ayniyat Maarif; Defter No: 1070, 166). One of the workers had his share melted and remade into ornaments in Turkish fashion at Erenköy. These too were seized and together with the genuine ornaments were taken to the Imperial Museum in İstanbul (Schliemann; 1881, 43). Today they are still in display in İstanbul Archaeology Museum as “İşçi Hazineleri” (Treasures of Workmen).

Nevertheless, Schliemann was able to hide and secretly took away large numbers of antiquities from Turkey. His first large scale smuggling occurred in April 1873. Schliemann with the help of his father-in-law, George Kastromeno, smuggled 22 baskets, 3 bags, and 5 chests of Trojan antiquities out of Turkey into Athens via the island of Syros. (Traill; 1988, 275). Unfortunately, the contents of the cargo are not known. Schliemann was so content of his discoveries in the first campaign (1870-1873) that in a report he published in *Ausburger Allgemeine Zeitung* in May 24, 1873 he wrote that he would end his excavations at Hisarlık on July 15, 1873 “forever”. But about a week later he was to make his greatest discovery, Priam's Treasure, at Hisarlık and he would go on working there three more campaigns (1878-79, 1882, and 1890) (Brandau; 2007, 32).

The Discovery of Priam's Treasure: May 31, 1873

On May 31, 1873, Schliemann unearthed what he called "Priam's Treasure", today known as Treasure A. Schliemann reported his discovery with a flair for dramatization and sensation: "*In excavating this wall further and directly by the side of the palace of King Priam, I came upon a large copper article of the most remarkable form, which attracted my attention all the more as I thought I saw gold behind it. ... In order to withdraw the Treasure from the greed of my workmen, and to save it for archaeology, I had to be most expeditious, and although it was not yet time for breakfast, I immediately had "paidos" called ... or time for rest. While the men were eating and resting, I cut out the Treasure with a large knife, which it was impossible to do without the very greatest exertion and the most fearful risk of my life, for the great fortification-wall, beneath which I had to dig, threatened every moment to fall down upon me. But the sight of so many objects, every one of which is of inestimable value to archaeology, made me foolhardy, and I never thought of any danger. It would, however, have been impossible for me to have removed the Treasure without the help of my dear wife, who stood by me ready to pack the things which I cut out in her shawl and to carry them away*" (Schliemann; 1875, 323-324).

Schliemann claims to have found "Priam's Treasure" at the second oldest layer, i.e. Troy II, near what he called Scaean Gate. Priam's Treasure was a cache of 8831 artifacts of gold, silver, copper, bronze and electrum (Korfmann; 2002, 380-382).⁷ On the same day Schliemann sent the treasure secretly to Calvert's farm at Akçaköy, about six kilometers south of Hisarlık (Traill; 1988, 274; Traill; 1995, 118).⁸ With Frederick Calvert's assistance, he took the treasures to the Greek boat Taxiarches anchored at Karanlık Port and smuggled it out of Turkey into Greece on June 6. (Traill 1984, 96-115; Traill; 1988, 277; Easton; 1994, 225; Traill; 1995, 121).

After sending the treasure to Greece surreptitiously, Schliemann stayed in Çanakkale about twenty days. During his stay in Çanakkale he wrote his report about the treasure and dispatched a copy to the German publisher Brockhaus (Traill; 1995, 121). Leaving Çanakkale probably on June 18-19 Schliemann could examine the treasure in detail only after he reached Athens at the end of June. He wrote a new report which was quite different from the first report that he had sent to Brockhaus. For this reason, he wired his publisher Brockhaus on June 27, asking not to publish the old report and to wait for the new report which was in preparation. (Traill; 1988, 277). Finally, he finished the new report on July 5, but adding a misleading note "Troy, June 17, 1873" to indicate where and when he penned his report. As is clear he was lying again.

The Enquiry Launched by the Ottoman Authorities after Schliemann Smuggled "Priam's Treasure"

When his report was printed in *Ausgbruger Allgemeine Zeitung* on August 5 1873, Schlieman gained fame and respect in the West, but aroused fury in the Ottoman State. As soon as the Ottoman authorities realized what happened, they appointed İzzeddin Efendi, a bureaucrat in the province of Cezâyir-i Bahr-i Sefid (the Mediterranean islands) on September 21, 1873 to investigate the matter.⁹ According to the enquiry report by İzzeddin Efendi on July 24, 1874 (MF.MKT; 18/147; Sönmez; 2014, 136-145; Sönmez; 2011, 221-222; Aslan & Sönmez; 2012, 139) Schliemann smuggled the antiquities of Troy on three separate occasions. The first two smuggling incidents occurred in the middle of the April and at the end of May respectively. In both instances the treasures were taken aboard Captain Andrea's ship anchored at Karanlık Port to load timber. The third smuggling took place when Schliemann left Troy. Sailing on the boat of Abdullah Reis from Kumkale Port to the customs office in Çanakkale, Schliemann smuggled gold jewelry in a box and small finds in his and his family's

⁷ Manfred Korfmann's excavations in Troy showed that Schlieman had found the treasure in a layer dated to 2500-2300 BCE. Korfmann also unearthed earrings in the same layer similar to the ones found by Schliemann: See (Sazcı; 2007, 122).

⁸ Schliemann reports that Sophia was present during his discovery of the treasure. But Sophia was not there for upon her father's death she left Turkey for Athens on May 7, 1873 (Ludvig; 1932, 144).

⁹ The Ministry of Education proposed to award İzzeddin Efendi *Rütbe-i Sâlise* (a form of civil decoration) for his successful conduct of the investigation. (MF.MKT; 17/188, March 29, 1874). The Office of the Prime Minister (*Sadaret*) approved the proposal on April 17, 1874 (Ayniyat Maarif, Defter No: 1071, 224).

pockets. The enquiry report of İzzeddin Efendi states that the officers in Çanakkale customs either took bribes or neglected their duties.

The enquiry of İzzeddin Efendi clearly shows that Schliemann did not find the so-called Priam's Treasure as one cache as he himself claims. This is a much debated subject and it has been shown that Schliemann twisted the facts to create sensation to gain fame and respect (Aslan & Sönmez; 2012, 137). As is noted above some valuable artifacts were found in the middle april and sumuggled into Greece. Schliemann is known to have concocted ar altered the reports of the discovery of antiquites on a smaller scale. To illustrate, in a report he wrote on August 4, 1872 Schliemann states that he found jewelery next to a skeleton (Schliemann; 1875, 209-210; Traill; 1986, 94). Two days after penning his report, in a letter written to John Wood on August 6, 1872, Schliemann claimed that he did not inform Turkish authorities of "*some Trojan jewels found with the skeleton of a lady in abt 15 metres depth.*" (Dyck; 1990, 333). However, Schliemann did not unearth the skeleton and jewels at the same time. He himself wrote in his diary that he dug out the jewels on May 17, and the skeleton on July 16 (Traill; 1986, 93-94).

An interesting note in İzzeddin Efendi's report raises some questions. İzzeddin effendi tantalizingly mentions in passing a legal dispute between Schliemann's henchman Yannikis and two villagers from Kalkanlı, Kostand and Alexander, regarding four kilograms of gold (MF.MKT; 18/147). We do not know the origins and the result of the dispute, whether the two villagers were workers in the excavation of Troy or were petty treasure hunters in the region or simply going around collecting archaeological finds unearthed by others on behalf of Schliemann whose stay in Çanakkale after he dispatched the treasure on June 6, 1873 may have got do with the bargain with these villagers.

We may reconstruct Schliemann's smuggling under the light of the Ottoman and other sources as follows: From 1872 onwards, Schliemann unearthed small items in layers of the Troy II. As Schliemann himself confessed, "*owing to the great extent of my excavations, the hurry in which they were carried on*" (1875, 41), he could not control his 120 workers some of whom hid valuable finds from him. Schliemann's henchman Yannikis purchased the finds, which workers found and hid, on behalf of his master. Schliemann's first large-scale smuggling occurred in April 1873: He smuggled artifacts hid in twentytwo baskets, three bags and five chests out of Karanlık Port. Shortly afterwards, on May 31, 1873 with the assistance of Yannikis, Schliemann dug out what he called Priam's Treasure. As he was anxious about the inspection of Emin Efendi, the Ottoman representative overseeing the excavation, he sent these objects, stacked in six baskets and a bag, to Frank Calvert's farm near Troy. From there they were smuggled to Greece via Karanlık Port on June 6 1873, again under the supervision of Yannikis and Spiridon Demetrios. At this time, Yannikis probably bought back some gold objects from the workers for Schliemann. However, after a payment problem occurred, the incident was submitted to court. Schliemann then smuggled the last of the part of the treasure past the Çanakkale customs office to Athens by hiding the objects in his clothes. On August 5 1873, Schliemann presented his finds in the *Ausbruger Allgemeine Zeitung* as a single coherent set of finds; as a great treasure -as Priam's treasure (Aslan & Sönmez; 2012, 140-141).

After Schliemann smuggled the treasures to Athens, the Ottoman government forbade excavations in the region (MF.MKT; 18/94). The enquiry (dated March 29, 1875) by İzzeddin Efendi ruled that the director [müdür] of Kumkale Rüstem Aga should be sentenced to three months' imprisonment in pursuance of article 9 of the penal law, since he ignored the excavation inspector Emin Efendi's warnings that Schliemann was hiding his findings in Troy (Ayniyat; Defter No: 859, 278; Ayniyat Maarif; Defter No: 1069, 53).

Conclusion

The Ottoman State initiated legal proceedings against Schliemann to get back half of the treasures he smuggled to Grece. The director of the Imperial Museum Anton Dethier was invested with full power to litigate the Ottoman claims in Greece (MF.MKT; 17/98).¹⁰

¹⁰ İzzeddin Efendi, who made the enquiry about Schliemann's illegal activities in Turkey, was surprised at the appointment of Dethier as he was himself expecting to go to Greece to represent the Ottoman State in the court. (BOA, Y.PRK.UM., 6/125, 3 Mayıs 1884.)

Schliemann's Smuggling Treasures Of Troy According To Ottoman Sources

Once he arrived in Athens, Dethier tried to persuade Schliemann to give back half of the treasure to Turkey but to no avail (ŞD; 207/19). Schliemann, in a letter he sent to Wood dated April 7, 1874 describes his meeting with Dethier:

“Mr. Dethier the director of the Constant museum is now here as plenipotentiary of the Turk. govt to come to an arrangement with me for the excavations of the remaining 1/3 of Troy. But since he is not satisfied with my doing that job gratuitously for the sole benefit of his museum, for 4 mths with 150 workmen, and since he demands besides part of the treasure I fear I shall not come to terms with him, for I do not give up any thing of my collection. (Dyck; 1990, 335).”

Since Ottoman representative failed to settle the claims out of court, Dethier hired a lawyer and brought a lawsuit against Schliemann on 6 April 1874 in Athens (Meyer; 1962, 86; Easton; 1994, 228). At the beginning of the proceedings Dethier was hopeful that the Ottoman side would win the legal battle and he sent dispatches to Constantinople to that effect (MF.MKT; 18/73). But on May 15, 1874, the court of first instance gave judgement in favor of Schliemann declaring itself incompetent to decide on disputes between the foreigners. (Traill; 1995, 130).

After the Greek court gave its decision, on May 25, 1874, the Council of Education held a meeting to discuss what to do next. The members of the council offered three options to the government: first, to bring the lawsuit again against Schliemann; second, to issue a note of protest; and third, to place the responsibility for the smuggling on the American embassy (MF.MKT; 18/81). The government decided to initiate the legal battle again and filed an appeal to the Royal Court which to the surprise of everyone reversed the earlier decision and ordered the return of the half of the treasure to the Ottoman state. But getting wind of the decision of the Royal Court, Schliemann hid the treasures and refused to surrender the rightful share of the Ottoman State.

Following this development, the Ministry of Education took the following decision on June 9, 1874 (MF.MKT; 18/97):

“The Ottoman Embassy in Athens informed the Ministry of Foreign Affairs that the Royal Court reversed the earlier decision of the court of first instance and ordered the search and seizure of the mentioned objects. The situation has changed and there is no need for settlement out of court. However, Schliemann learned the decision of the court beforehand and moved the objects someplace else, and it is possible that he would sell the objects wholesale or piece by piece. To prevent this as far as possible, a note of protest has been written to be printed in newspapers here [in İstanbul] as well as in Vienna, Berlin, Paris and London.

Below is the note of protest to be printed in newspapers:

The Ottoman State declares that the man called Schliemann smuggled gold, silver, copper, stone and marble objects that he excavated in Hisarlık, Çanakkale, and failing to fulfill the agreement between the Museum and himself that the finds shall be shared in half, the transactions of the objects mentioned whether by donation or sale is null and void. And wherever they may surface, litigation shall be brought [against those involved].”

The Ottoman State brought yet another lawsuit against Schliemann in Athens to force him to return half of the treasure (MF.MKT; 18/101) and asked 1.000.000 franc as compensation (MF.MKT; 26/153). The court placed a sequestration on Schliemann's house, furniture and the bonds he had at the National Bank. The court also appointed three experts to determine the value of the treasure based on the pictures published in Atlas (Traill; 1995, 130).

Schliemann too took legal action and appealed to Court of Cessation (the Areopagus) against the decision of the Royal Court. In the end the Greek court ruled that Schliemann pay 10,000 francs as compensation, much lower than the Ottoman representatives asked.¹¹ Schliemann offered to pay 50,000 francs, instead of 10,000 francs, in the hope that he would get the right to excavate at Hisarlık again. The Ministry of Education, Safvet Paşa, believed that the eagerness of the Ottoman representatives, the Ottoman ambassador in Athens Fotyadi Bey and Anton Dethier, to settle in return for compensation and soaring legal fees forced the Ottomans to terminate the lawsuit.

¹¹ For the lawsuit in Athens see: (Sönmez; 2011, 222-225; Sönmez; 2014, 145-156).

(MF.MKT; 36/30).¹² The matter was discussed in the Council of Education on April 3, 1875 and took the following decisions (MF.MKT; 26/153):

“The court in Greece set the compensation for the Ottoman share of the treasure 10,000 francs. However, Schliemann offered to pay in total 50,000 francs; 20,000 francs as compensation and court fees, 30,000 francs, 15,000 of which for the wages of the workers, to continue excavations in Hisarlık. The Embassy in Athens informed us that if permitted he wanted to be present at the excavations. Although the state share of the treasure was estimated as 1,000,000 francs, it seems that a favorable outcome is very unlikely and instead of paying court fees, lawyer fees, other expenses it is advisable to effect an amicable settlement. However, since Schliemann’s thefts damaged the state museum, henceforth he shall not be permitted to excavate and do survey. He may only be permitted to acquire the pictures of the unearthed objects from the museum. Therefore, it is decided to inform Schliemann that he should pay 50,000 francs in full to the Ministry of Education and to settle the lawsuit amicably.”

In accordance with the decision taken by the Ministry of Education, the Ottoman State renounced its claims to Priam’s treasure in return for compensation in April 1875. Although the Ottoman State lost the treasure, the legislation of antiquities was regularized and made more rigorous, partially in response to what the Ottoman bureaucrats justly called “the thefts of Schliemann”.

Bibliography

Ottoman Archives

Ayniyat Defterleri
 İrade Dahihiliye (İ.DH)
 İrade Hariciye (İ.HR)
 İrade Şura-yı Devlet (İ.ŞD)
 Maarif Mektubi (MF.MKT)
 Yıldız Perakende Evrakı Umumi (Y.PRK.UM)

References

- Arık, R. O. (1953). *Türk Müzeciliğine Bir Bakış*, Ankara: Milli Eğitim Yayınları.
- Allen, S. H. (1995). Finding the Walls of Troy: Frank Calvert, Excavator. *American Journal of Archaeology*. 99. 379-407.
- Allen, S. H. (1996). Principally for Vases, Etc.”: The Formation and Dispersal of the Calvert Collection. *Anatolian Studies*. 46. Ankara: British Institute at Ankara. 145-165.
- Allen, S. H. (1999). *Finding the Walls of Troy: Frank Calvert and Heinrich Schliemann at Hisarlık*. University of California Press.
- Aslan, R. & Sönmez, A. (2012). Priamos Hazinesinin Keşfi ve Kaçırılması. *Troya Kent Homeros Türkiye*, Amsterdam: W Books Yayınları. 137-141.
- Bahrani, Z. & Çelik Z. & Eldem E. (eds). (2011). *Scramble for the Past: A Story of Archeology in the Ottoman Empire, 1753-1914*, İstanbul: Salt Yayınevi.
- Brandau, B. (2007). *Troya; Bir Kent ve Mitleri Yeni Keşifler*, Ankara: Arkadaş Yayınları.
- Dyck, A. R. (1990). Schliemann on the Excavation of Troy: Three Unpublished Letters. *Greek Roman and Byzantine Studies*. 31(3). 323-337.
- Easton, D. F. (2002). *Schliemann’s Excavations at Troia 1870-1873*. Mainz am Rhein; Von Zabern.
- Esin, U. (1991). *Heinrich Schliemann, Kazı Raporları ve Mektuplarından Seçme Parçalarla*, İstanbul: Sandoz Kültür Yayınları.
- Esin, U. (1993). 19. Yüzyılın Sonlarında Heinrich Schliemann’ın Troya Kazıları ve Osmanlılar’la İlişkileri. Zeynep Rona. (eds). *Osman Hamdi Bey Dönemi ve Sempozyumu 17-18 Aralık 1992* (pp. 179-191). İstanbul: Tarih Vakfı Yurt Yayınları.

¹² Cf. Easton; 1994, 229.

Schliemann's Smuggling Treasures Of Troy According To Ottoman Sources

- Kundakçı. G. (2002). 19. Yüzyılda Anadolu Arkeolojisine ve Eskiçağ Tarihine Genel Yaklaşım, *XIII. Türk Tarih Kongresi 4-8 Ekim 1999*, 3(2) Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu. 1083-1094.
- Ludvig. E. (1932). *Schliemann The Story of a Gold-Seeker*. Boston.
- Madran, E. (1985). Osmanlı Devletinde Eski Eser ve Onarım Üzerine Gözlemler, *Belleten*, 49(195). Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu. 503-546.
- Meyer, E. (1962). Schliemann's Letters to Max Müller in Oxford. *The Journal of Hellenic Studies*. 82. 75-105.
- Schliemann, H. (1875). *Troy and Its Remains, A Narrative of Researches and Discoveries Made on the Site of Ilium and in the Trojan Plain*, London.
- Schliemann, H. (1881). *Ilios the City and Country of the Trojans*, New York.
- Shaw, Wendy M.K. (2004). *Osmanlı Müzeciliği Müzeler, Arkeoloji ve Osmanlı Tarihinin Görselleştirilmesi*. İstanbul: İletişim Yayınları.
- Sönmez, A. (2011). Truva Hazinelelerinin Peşinde Bir Hukuk Mücadelesi: Osmanlı Devleti ve Schliemann Davası. *OTAM*, 29. Ankara: 215-228.
- Sönmez, A. (2014), *Osmanlı Devleti'nde Eski Eser Kaçakçılığı Truva Örneği*. İstanbul: Kriter Yayınları.
- Traill, D. A. (1985). Schliemann's discovery of 'Priam's treasure': a re-examination of the evidence. *JHS*, 104, 96-115.
- Traill, D. A. (1985). Schliemann's Dream of Troy: The Making of a Legend. *The Classical Journal*, 81, 13-24.
- Traill, D. A. (1986). Schliemann's Mendacity: A Question of Methodology. *Anatolian Studies*, 36, British Institute at Ankara. 91-98.
- Traill, D. A. (1988). How Schliemann Smuggled Priam's Treasure from the Troad to Athens. *Hesperia*, 57, 273-277.

The Visits of the Female Members of the Ottoman Dynasty to Turkey During the Presidency of İsmet İnönü

Cahide Sınmaz Sönmez*

Introduction

At the end of the World War I, the Ottoman Empire to all intents and purposes was dead. Though the empire was occupied by the Allied Powers, the Nationalists led by Mustafa Kemal Pasha successfully resisted the occupation and the Greek Invasion, and carved out a nation state in Anatolia. On November 1, 1922, the nationalist government in Ankara separated the office of the sultanate from that of caliphate and abolished the sultanate, thereby ending the Ottoman Empire. On November 18, 1922, Abdülmecid Efendi, a member of the Ottoman dynasty was elected as the new caliph. But the existence of the caliph and several members of the Ottoman dynasty within the new republic was untenable. On March 3, 1924, the caliphate was abolished by the enactment of Law no. 431 (“*Hilafetin İlgasına ve Hanedan-ı Osmanî'nin Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Memâliki Haricine Çıkarılmasına Dair Kanun*” [The Law Concerning the Abolishment of the Caliphate and the Expulsion of the members of the Ottoman Dynasty from Turkey]).

With the exception of the daughter in laws of the dynasty, all members of the Ottoman family, including the children of the female members, were exiled and were stripped of their citizenship. According to the law, the members of the dynasty had to sell all the immovable properties in Turkey within a year with the government’s approval. If they fail to liquidate their assets, the government would do so and pay the amount to them. As for the immovable properties of the sultans within Turkey, they were nationalized (Düstur, s.323).

The exile lasted 28 years for the women and 50 years for the men. However, there were some exceptions thanks to the minor amendments introduced into the law no. 431. The first to return was the granddaughter of Mehmed Ziyaeddin Efendi, who was the son of Sultan Mehmet Reşat, Emel Nurcihan Hodo who entered Turkey illegally as an infant; the children of Enver Paşa (Mahpeyker, Türkan, Ali), Rana [Eldem], the daughter of his brother Kâmil Killigil and Suade Hümeýra, the daughter of İsmail Hakkı Okday, who had joined the Nationalists during the War of Independence were allowed to return to Turkey and became Turkish citizen by a special law dated July 5, 1939 (See Sınmaz Sönmez, 2016, s.28-45.) Such amendments softened the severity of the Law no. 431 and the ban on the dynasty was slowly eased.

There were also two issues that needed to be addressed. First, some Ottoman princesses who were married to foreign dignitaries visited Turkey with their husbands. Strictly speaking, the princesses were breaking the law no. 431 (out of political necessity, the government ignored the legal implications). Second, there were some exiled in-laws who either divorced or lost their spouses and therefore severed their legal links to the dynasty. They wanted to return but they were exiled and there was no stipulation in Law no. 431 about such a situation. Therefore, diplomatic and legal necessities forced an urgent solution about these issues.

Following the World War II, important steps were towards democratization including the formation of the Multi-Party System in Turkey. The regime relaxed its control and İsmet İnönü continued the policy of reconciliation with the opponents of the Atatürk era. The democratization movement in Turkey softened the harsh attitudes against the Ottoman dynasty.

The policy of the government influenced the press and thus the visits of the Ottoman princesses have received wide press coverage with front page headlines and photographs.

* Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Arts and Sciences, History Department, cahides@yahoo.com

1. The Visits of the Female Members of the Ottoman Dynasty to Turkey and the Public Reaction

After the exile of the Ottoman House, the ban was strictly enforced on the male members of the family. However, despite the ban, some of the female members of the Ottoman family started to visit Turkey as they were married to prominent Muslim families that were from friendly countries and Turkish authorities regarded the princesses as members of their father-in-law's court.

The first visit of a member of Ottoman dynasty occurred some twenty years after the exile. Dürrüşehvar Sultan, the daughter of the last caliph Abdülmecid Efendi and a member of the Nizam Family of Hyderabad through her marriage to Prince Azam Jah (1907–1970) on November 16, 1931, came to Turkey on November 21, 1945. The main reason of her visit was to get permission for the burial of her father, who had died in Paris on 23 August 1944, in his fatherland (Nigar, 1964, p.36.).

The newspapers gave Dürrüşehvar Sultan's visit a respectful reception: the daily *Cumhuriyet* announced her arrival with a headline that "Princess Dürrüşehvar came to Istanbul yesterday". (*Cumhuriyet*, Nov. 21, 1945, p.1). Against possible reactions, the newspaper informed the readers that Dürrüşehvar Sultan was married to Prince Azam Jah and thus she came to Turkey not as a member of Ottoman dynasty but as a member of the Nizam Family of Hyderabad. *Cumhuriyet* mostly describes her beauty, elegance, dress, jewelry and adds that her sons speak Turkish well (*Cumhuriyet*, November 22, 1945, p.3). The daily *Akşam* had a headline saying "Princess of Berar". Without mentioning her name and ignoring her Ottoman lineage, *Akşam* like *Cumhuriyet* described her as a member of Nizam family (*Akşam*, November 21, 1945, p.1). Though describing Dürrüşehvar Sultan as the daughter of the last Caliph, the daily *Ulus*, did not mention her name and reserved a small space on page 2. (*Ulus*, November 21, 1945, p.2).

As noted, Dürrüşehvar Sultan tried to get permission to bury her father Abdülmecid Efendi in Turkey. But Turkish authorities refused to grant her request and Abdülmecid Efendi was interred about ten years after his death, on March 30, 1954, in Medina (Nigar, 1964, p.76.) Dürrüşehvar Sultan died on February 7, 2006 at the age of 92 in London, since she was resentful about the Turkish authorities' refusal of her father's burial in Turkey, she willed to be buried not in Turkey but in Brookwood Muslim cemetery next to her mother Mehisti Hanım (*Türkiye*, February 9, 2006; *Milliyet*, February 10, 2006, p. 3; *Hürriyet*, February 10, 2006.)

Another member of the Ottoman dynasty who visited Turkey at this time was Fatma Neslişah Sultan.¹³ Fatma Neslişah married Prince Muhammad Abdel Moneim, son of Egypt's last khedive Abbas Hilmi II. She thus also became Princess consort of Egypt. She could enter Turkey as Princess of Egypt. She arrived in İzmir aboard *Aksu* on May 31, 1947. *Cumhuriyet* described Neslişah Sultan as the most beautiful woman in Egypt and reported her visit to prominent sites in İzmir (Kadifekale and Kültürpark) and her departure for İstanbul (*Cumhuriyet*, May 31, 1947, p.1,3.) Two days later, her arrival in İstanbul was in the headline with a photograph with her husband Prince Muhammad Abdel Moneim "*Princess Neslişah has arrived in İstanbul*". *Cumhuriyet* said that since the Princess was of Turkish descent and the daughter of Ömer Faruk Efendi, the son of the last Caliph Abdülmecid Efendi, she received special attention. The newspapers described her appearance and dress in detail; they described her as a tall lady with aquiline nose and beautiful eyes like her ancestor Mehmet II as he is portrayed in Bellini's famous portrait. Princess Neslişah, who left İstanbul when she was 3.5 years old, said that she had always the city in her memories but found the city much more beautiful than she remembered. Newspapers noted that Neslişah and Dürrüşehvar spoke fluent Turkish in meetings and interviews. (*Cumhuriyet*, June 2, 1947, p.1, 3.)

Akşam as well bore a headline of the visit of Princess Neslişah and was particularly interested in her dress. "*Princess Neslişah wore an ivory-colored coat, a dark blue robe, and a dark blue hat adorned with a large flower on one side. She had a wedding ring and a ring with large stone. She was wearing*

¹³Fatma Neslişah Sultan was the daughter of Sabiha Sultan, the daughter of the last sultan Vahideddin, and Şehzâde Ömer Faruk Efendi, the son of the last caliph Abdülmecid Efendi. Sabiha Sultan returned to Turkey on August 26, 1952, only after the enactment of the law that ended the exile of the female members of the Ottoman dynasty. (Bardakçı. (2011). p. 253.)

double stringed pearl necklace and pearl earrings. Her shoes and bag were the same color as her robe. The princess, known as the most elegant and beautiful woman of Egypt, surprised everyone present in the passenger lounge with her modest attire". The reaction of the passengers, the reporter notes, indicates that the public expected Ottoman princesses to be more flamboyant. Princess' remarks that her children speak Turkish and at home they always speak Turkish were emphasized in the press (Akşam, June 2, 1947, p.1,2.) The Daily Ulus announced Princess arrival with a headline on the third page "*Princess Neslişah in İstanbul*" and after a short report of her visit, the newspaper noted princess' remarks that; "...I missed my country and I am really thrilled to be back after 23 years" (Ulus, June 2, 1947, p.3.). Princess left İstanbul for France on June 17. (Akşam, June 17, 1947, p. 2; Ulus, June 17, 1947, p.3.)

Princess Nilüfer, daughter of Adile Sultan and granddaughter of Sultan V. Murad, also visited Turkey at this time. She was married to Moazzam Jah, second son of the last ruling Nizam of Hyderabad came to İstanbul on September 22 1947 (Akşam, September 22, 1947, p. 2; Cumhuriyet, September 23, 1947, p. 1.). During her stay in İstanbul she visited the museums and the palaces in the city. While she was visiting the Dolmabahçe Palace she wanted to see the room where Atatürk had died. But when she saw the room empty, she was surprised. And when she was told the furnishings were moved temporarily, the princess remarked that Atatürk "*was a great man. An unparalleled soldier, commander and revolutionary...*" and that when Atatürk died she gave a speech about him in India, which was printed in some newspapers in Britain. Nilüfer Sultan expressed her feelings about her visit to Turkey: "*I am Turkish and from Istanbul. It is excruciating not to visit Turkey and to be away from this beautiful city for 24 years.*" (Akşam, October 1, 1947, p.5,6.) She said that she left İstanbul when she was six years old and she could not forget the city and that "*İstanbul is unforgettable. The city has always been in my dreams. I have always yearned to come here for the last 24 years. ... It will be difficult to leave*". (Cumhuriyet, September 24, 1947, p.1.). Thus, when the female members of the Ottoman dynasty were allowed to return to Turkey on June 16, 1952, Nilüfer Sultan was among the first to return to the fatherland.

The visits of the Ottoman princesses attracted so much attention that even Princess Dürrüşehvar's meeting with her relatives at İstanbul Airport during her flight from Karachi to London via İstanbul appeared in newspapers. (Akşam, September 21, 1947, p.2; Ulus, September 21, 1947, p.3.)

2. Amendments Introduced into the Passport and Citizenship Laws on April 18, 1949.

The visits of the Ottoman princesses and the attention they received in newspapers struck a nerve with some circles. On July 16, 1947, Remzi Yüreğir, deputy from Seyhan, (Cumhuriyet Halk Partisi [Republican People's Party]), submitted a motion of question as to why Dürrüşehvar and Neslişah were allowed to visit Turkey thereby violating the Law on the Abolishment of the Caliphate and the Exile of the Ottoman Dynasty (Law No: 431/1924) (Cumhuriyet, June 17, 1947, p. 1, 3; Akşam, June 17, 1947, p.2.). In response to Yüreğir's motion, the government drafted two bills to alter the Passport Law and submitted them to the Office of the Speaker on July 27, 1947 so that any son-in-law and daughter-in-law of the Ottoman house who is widowed or divorced from their spouses, provided that they have no children, thus no longer a member of the Ottoman dynasty, could return to Turkey (TBMMTD, 1949a, p.1.). The bills and Yüreğir's question of motion were debated in the Committee on Internal Affairs. The Committee rejected Yüreğir's question of motion on the ground that it would be unwise and inappropriate to deny entry to the female members of the Ottoman dynasty who were married to the dynasties of the friendly nations (TBMMTD, 1949a, p.8,10.). The bills that were drafted on June 27, 1947 were finally sent to the Plenary where deliberations started on April 18, 1949.

After Abdurrahman Melek, deputy from Gaziantep and the spokesman of the Foreign Affairs Committee, delivered a speech on the bill, Hüseyin Ulusoy, deputy from Niğde (the Republican People's Party) gave a speech about the general outline of the bill and stated that he did not understand why the laws that brought about the republican revolution and the laws that removed or exiled the people affiliated with the old regime were weakened (TBMMTD, 1949b, p. 461). The exiles may endure hardship but this "should not lead us to show clemency that would weaken the

constitution of the Great Revolution...” (TBMMTD, 1949b, p. 461). Ulusoy added that he is not against the visit of the dynasty members who are married with a leader of a foreign country, but in principle, he is opposed anyone who are directly or indirectly affiliated with the dynasty to enter Turkey or claim property ownership in Turkey. He was supported by shouts of agreement and support, “Bravo,” by Kütahya Deputy Ahmet Tahtakılıç and Sinop Deputy Yusuf Kemal Tengirsenk (Millet Partisi [Nation Party]). (TBMMTD, 1949b, pp. 461-462.)

One of the deputies who opposed the bill was Hazım Bozca, deputy from Afyonkarahisar (independent). Bozca supported the first article of the bill that allowed the dynasty members free transit passage through Turkey but he vehemently opposed granting son in-laws and daughter in-laws the right to return to Turkey. Bozca was furious because the minister of internal affairs did not answer his questions as to why the members of the dynasty would visit Turkey and how many of them would return. According to Bozca, the laws of the revolution cannot be changed for the members of the dynasty. The members of the Ottoman House were in exile for more than 25 years and they can endure it for the next 25 years too. They were few in numbers anyway. Bozca also said that the government could not explain why the exiles would be allowed to visit Turkey. (TBMMTD, 1949b, p.462.)

Ahmet Tahtakılıç, deputy from Kütahya (Millet Partisi [Nation Party]) was against the bill: “... yes states may have mercy and those whose links to the dynasty have ended may return to Turkey. Some may think the end of the Ottomans as a thing of past and after 25 years they may even consider the return of the exiles as an apolitical affair. But we do not accept this. There are of course laws that protect individual rights but there are also laws that protect the community, which are not open to discussion. If there are some three or five individuals who want to return to the fatherland, we should solve the problem not by showing mercy but by some other means...” (TBMMTD, 1949b, p.471.) When Tahtakılıç asked how many exiles would return to Turkey after the bill becomes law, deputy from Kocaeli and State Minister, and Deputy Prime Minister Nihat Erim replied that there are eighteen exiles who would return to Turkey and that they are not members of the Ottoman dynasty and since they are married foreign leaders or bureaucrats, the government is bound to permit their entry to Turkey. Furthermore, according to Erim, Turkey was strong and the new republican regime took root and there was no reason to worry about the Ancien Régime or its members. (TBMMTD, 1949b, p.476.)

Granting some members of the Ottoman family entry into the country caused grave concern among some members of the Parliament for other reasons as well. For the properties of the sultans were confiscated and nationalized under the Law no. 431/1924 and the return of the Ottoman family members to Turkey had the potential to unleash legal battles of restoring the confiscated property of the Ottoman Sultans. The crux of the matter was whether the Law no. 431/1924 referred to the last Sultan or the last Sultan *and* all his predecessors. Deputy from Gaziantep Abdurrahman Melek Bey and many others stated that Law no. 431/1924 referred to all sultans (TBMMTD, 1949b, p.459.). So the descendants of Abdulhamid II or any other sultan could not claim the estate of their ancestors. Vehbi Sarıdal, deputy from Niğde (CHP) said that Law no. 431/1924 nationalized *all* the properties the sultans. However, some Turkish courts held that Law no. 431/1924 article 8 referred to the Sultans who were alive at the time of its enactment and that the estate of the sultans who were dead before the law was passed to their heirs. The decision of the courts inevitably created confusion and concern among the law makers. Before sending the bill to the Plenary, the Committee of Justice and the Committee of Foreign Affairs amended it to prevent any possibility of property claims of the Ottoman dynasty members even if they were allowed to return to Turkey. [“Those who return to the country under this law shall not lay claim to these properties on the basis of consanguinity, affinity or on any basis whatsoever] (TBMMTD, 1949b, p.469.). For Sarıdal the amendment was clear: “out of necessity, the Commission of Justice sends a message to the daughter-in-laws and son-in-laws of the dynasty: If you come to the fatherland don’t you ever sue the state for the properties [of the sultans]. The Law no. 431 is in force. If you attempt to claim the properties you shall not enter the country...” (TBMMTD, 1949b, p.469.) Necati Erdem, an independent democrat deputy from Muğla, opposed the article of the bill since it was open to interpretation (TBMMTD, 1949b, p.463-466.)

Ahmet Oğuz, deputy from Eskişehir (Millet Partisi) was more concerned about the consequences of the amendments: the properties of the dynasty had been classified as *emvali hassa* and been nationalized in accordance with the Treaty of Lausanne. According to Oğuz, a strict ban on the dynasty members' claim on the properties of the former sultans would adversely affect Turkey's claims on the oil fields in Mosul or on properties of the sultans in successor states of the Ottoman Empire. Therefore, Oğuz insisted, the lawmakers must consider the unintended consequences of the amendments and carefully draft them in view of Turkey's claims (TBMMTD, 1949b, p.467.)

In response to the criticisms, State minister and deputy prime minister Nihat Erim replied that there was no reason to worry about the return of some exiles, that Law no. 431 was no ordinary law but a revolution law. Erim dwelled not on the legal aspect of the bill but on its political and economic ramifications. He calculated that the total worth of the estate of the sultans that were in Turkey was about one billion liras and it all comes down to whether they were going to give all the properties to former Chief Dentist of Palace and Republic, Sami Günzberg and his sister Lily who bought these properties from the members of the dynasty well below of their worth (TBMMTD, 1949b, p.475.).¹⁴ He added that such a situation was unacceptable. As for the legal proceedings about the estate of the Ottoman sultans in Iraq and Palestine, they were not of concern to Turkey. Besides, Erim thought, the laws enacted in Turkey would not affect the legal proceedings in other countries (TBMMTD, 1949b, p.481-483.).

Hulki Karagülle, deputy from Konya (CHP), delivered a speech endorsing Erim's views. Thereafter several motions were rejected and the Parliament voted the first article of the bill 229-7 (1 abstainer): "*Those who are not a member of the Ottoman dynasty by birth but are related to it through marriage may return to Turkey by the decree of the Council of Ministers if they are divorced or lost their spouses and are childless. As to the properties Ottoman Sultans who whether deceased or alive at the time of the abolition of the Caliphate, any property that the sultans owned and did not transfer to their heirs and the properties mentioned by the decrees dated to September 1, 1324 and April 21, 1325 were nationalized under the articles of 8 and 10 of the Law 431. Accordingly those who return to the country under this law shall not lay claim to these properties on the basis of consanguinity, affinity or on any basis whatsoever*" (TBMMTD, 1949c, p.31-33; Resmi Gazete, May 7, 1949) In accordance with the second amendment of the bill "*by the decree of the council of ministers, those women who are the members of the Ottoman dynasty by birth may enter Turkey as transit passengers or may reside in Turkey up to three months provided that they are married to members of foreign dynasties or to those who work in embassies*". The clauses in the second article of the Law no 431 that are in clash with the second article of the bill were rescinded. The parliament also passed the law of citizenship rights of these women: "*Pasaport Kanununa Bazı Maddeler Eklenmesine Dair Kanun* (TBMMTD, 1949b, p.486.). Both laws became effective on April 25, 1949 (Resmi Gazete, April 25, 1949)

Thus, the return of the aforementioned female members of the dynasty was legalized. On the other hand, although some courts held that the heirs were entitled to receive the property of the sultans, the law dashed the hope of the heirs by confirming that the estate of Ottoman sultans was state property and that the heirs cannot lay claim to it.

3. The Return of the Female Exiles after the Amendment of Passport and Citizenship Law.

The legislation concerning the return of the female members of the Ottoman dynasty had a repercussion in press, and as in the parliamentary discussions the estate of the Ottoman sultans was the center of public attention. The daily Yeni Sabah carried the headline on the discussions of the bill, "*Heated debates in the Parliament about property of the deposed dynasty*", reporting that those who return to Turkey after the new Passport legislation or those who purchased the rights of the estate of the sultans cannot get the imperial properties worth about one billion Turkish liras. (Yeni Sabah, April 19, 1949, p.1.). Cumhuriyet run the headline: "*Discussions on the members of the deposed*

¹⁴ Since Sami Günzberg was the Chief dentist of Palace of Abdülhamid II, he knew several members of the Ottoman dynasty well. He had no difficulty in persuading the exiled members of the dynasty to purchase the rights of their property. For Günzberg and his schemes to persuade the dynasty members see: (Bali, 2007.)

dynasty” informing its readers that “the bills that allow female members of the dynasty who are married to the foreign dignitaries and ambassadors to pass in transit through Turkey, and permit the former in-laws of the dynasty to return Turkey passed and became law.” In addition, Cumhuriyet reported that the issue of the nationalized properties of the dynasty received much attention during the parliamentary discussions. (Cumhuriyet, April, 19, 1949, p.1.)

The Daily Akşam had the headline: “*the Properties of the deposed dynasty*” (Akşam, 19 April 1949, s.2.). The Daily Ulus reported that the deputies of Millet Partisi demanded that the estate of Abdülhamid be returned to his heirs. The minister of state and deputy prime minister Nihat Erim eloquently objected to this demand and described the law of the abolishment of the caliphate as inviolable and pivotal for the survival of the Turkish nation. (Ulus, April 19, 1949, p.1.)

After the enactment by the Parliament, the first person to return to Turkey was the wife of the last sultan Vahideddin, Şadiye Müveddet Çiftçi who became Turkish citizen on July 1, 1949. (BCA. 30.18.01.02/119.50.10, 13 June 1949; Resmi Gazete, July 11, 1949.). In 1926 after the death of Vahideddin in San Remo, Şadiye Müveddet Çiftçi moved to Alexandria with her son Ertuğrul. She married to Şakir Bey Eminpaşazade at Alexandria but soon she was divorced in 1936. In 1944 after the death of her son in 1944, She was allowed to return to Turkey in accordance with the Amendment of Passport and Citizenship Law in 1949. She died in 1950 at Çengelköy, İstanbul and was buried in Çengelköy cemetery. (Uluçay, 2001, p.185; Sakaoğlu, 2009, p.517.)

Cumhuriyet Gazetesi announced her return with a headline “*The wife of former sultan Vahideddin returns to the country*” (Cumhuriyet, July 12, 1949, p.3.). Akşam mentions her return rather casually with a headline on page 2: “*The Wife of Vahideddin*”, reporting that Şadiye Müveddet Çiftçi was granted Turkish citizenship by the decree of the Council of Ministers. (Akşam, July 12, 1949, p.2.) Yeni Sabah carried the front-page headline “*Female members of the dynasty, the wife of Vahideddin were granted Turkish Citizenship*” and referring to Şadiye Müveddet Çiftçi disparagingly as “that woman” stated that upon enactment of the bill by the parliament she was the first member of the dynasty to return to Turkey. (Yeni Sabah, July 12, 1949, p.1.)

Another former member of the dynasty who returned to Turkey was Mehmet Kâmil Killigil. After his marriage to Naciye Sultan ended in divorce, Kâmil Bey returned to Turkey and on September 22, 1949 was granted Turkish citizenship by the decree of the Council of Ministers. (BCA, 30.18.01.02/120.71.9, 22 September 1949; Resmi Gazete, October 19, 1949.)

The passport and citizenship law created a legal loophole and Kamil Bey most likely used it. For his brother Nuri Killigil who was overseeing the works of Naciye sultan and her family was killed by an explosion in his gun factory in İstanbul on March 2, 1949. Kamil Bey had to return to Turkey to manage the works of his wife and her family.¹⁵ To do that, he had to cut his ties to the dynasty in accordance with the law, i.e., he had to divorce his wife. Kamil Bey did divorce his wife Naciye Sultan and returned to Turkey.¹⁶ But it is highly likely that the divorce was on paper. There is some circumstantial evidence to support this view: first, Naciye Sultan never mentions her divorce in her memoirs and interviews. Second, Vahideddin’s daughter Sabiha Sultan who returned to Turkey after the enactment of the passport law, writes in her diary that Naciye Sultan and Kamil Bey paid her a visit in İstanbul on September 1, 1952. (Bardakçı, 2011, p.254.)

Having acquired Turkish citizenship on September 22, 1949, Kâmil Bey died in 1962. On August 8, Cumhuriyet and Milliyet announced his death with a headline “A Sad Loss” and his obituary reads: “*the son of the late Hacı Ahmet Paşa, the husband of the late Naciye Sultan, the father of Rana Eldem, the father in law of the ambassador Sadi Eldem, the uncle of Mahpeyker Ürgüp, Türkan Mayatepek and Ali Enver, the brother of Hasene Killigil and Mediha Orbay, the brother in law of Kazım Orbay, electrical and mechanical engineer Mehmet Kâmil Killigil passed away*” (Cumhuriyet, August 8, 1962, p.2; Milliyet, August 8, 1962, p.2.)

¹⁵ Prof.Dr. Edhem Eldem. Personal communication. I would like to thank Prof. Eldem, who is a grandchild of Naciye Sultan and Kamil Paşa. He gracefully shared his family history with me.

¹⁶ His daughter Rana Eldem had already returned to Turkey in accordance of a special law enacted on July 5, 1939.

After Killigil, Mahmut Behçet, the second husband of Fehime Sultan, who was the daughter of Sultan Murat V., acquired Turkish citizenship by the decree of the Council of Ministers on October 24 1949. (BCA, 30.18.01.02/120.77.1, October 24, 1949; Resmi Gazete, November 29, 1949.). After the abolition of the Ottoman Caliphate in 1924, Fehime Sultan and her husband Mahmut Behçet went into exile first to Vienna and then to Nice. Here Mahmut Bey took his wife's money on the pretext of setting up in business and disappeared. Thereafter Fehime Sultan had hard times and died in poverty on September 15, 1929. (Örik, 1951, p.938; Örik, 2002, p.107; Uluçay, 2001, p.170; Sakaoglu, 2009, p.485.)

After the death of Fehime Sultan, Mahmut Behçet's ties to the Ottoman dynasty ended and thus he had no difficulty returning to Turkey following the enactment of the Passport and Citizenship Law on April 18, 1949. Mahmut Behçet died on May 28, 1962. His obituary in the newspapers reads: "The father of Piraye Galip, the husband of Viktorya Altunhan, the brother of Cemile Altunkalp and Bahaeddin Altunhan, the uncle of Rezan Batur, Zinnur Özdeniz, Samih Tiryakioğlu, Bülent Tiryakioğlu and Saip Batuf, the husband of the late Fehime Sultan who was the daughter Sultan Murat V., Mahmut Altunhan passed away on May 28,1962" (Akşam, May 29,1962, p.2; Cumhuriyet, May 29 1962, p.3; Milliyet, May 29 1962, p.2.).

Conclusion

Although banned from Turkey, Ottoman princesses married to foreign dignitaries visited their fatherland and as the press coverage and interviews show they were received with enthusiasm by the Turkish public who still loved and respected the Ottoman family. The amendment of the passport law and citizenship law that ended the exile for the certain female members of the dynasty was a diplomatic necessity that softened the young republic's attitude toward the Ottoman Family. A major amendment to the law no. 431 on June, 1952 allowed the female members of the Ottoman dynasty and their children to return to Turkey and obtain Turkish citizenship. On May 15 1974 the male members of the dynasty received the same rights by a general amnesty, which ended the fifty-year-long exile of the Ottoman dynasty.

Bibliography

Akşam Gazetesi

Bali, Rifat N. (2007). *Sarayın ve Cumhuriyetin Dişçibaşısı: Sami Günzberg*, İstanbul: Kitabevi.

Bardakçı, Murat, (2011). *Neslişah, Cumhuriyet Devrinde Bir Osmanlı Prensesi*, İstanbul: Everest Yayınları.

Başbakanlık Cumhuriyet Arşivi (BCA). 30.18.01.02/119.50.10, 13 Haziran 1949.

Başbakanlık Cumhuriyet Arşivi, 30.18.01.02/120.71.9, 22 Eylül 1949.

Başbakanlık Cumhuriyet Arşivi, 30.18.01.02/120.77.1, 24 Ekim 1949.

Cumhuriyet

Düstur, 3. Tertip, Cilt 5.

Hürriyet Gazetesi

Milliyet Gazetesi

Nigar, Salih Keramet. (1964). *Halife İkinci Abdülmecid*, İstanbul: İnkılap ve Aka Kitabevleri.

Örik, Nahid Sırrı. (1 Nisan 1951). *Tarih Dünyası*, Cilt 3, Sayı 22, V. *Murad'ın Kızları*.

Örik, Nahid Sırrı. (2002). *Bilinmeyen Yaşamlarıyla Saraylılar*, Yayına Hazırlayan: Alpay Kabacalı, İstanbul: İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları.

Resmi Gazete

Sakaoglu, Necdet. (2009). *Bu Mülkün Kadın Sultanları*, 2. Baskı, İstanbul: Oğlak Bilimsel Kitaplar.

Sınmaz Sönmez, Cahide. (2016). *Sürgünden Vatana Osmanlı Hanedanı'nın Geri Dönüş Süreci*, İstanbul: Paradigma Akademi Yayınları.

Türkiye Gazetesi

Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi Tutanak Dergisi(TBMMTD). (18 Nisan 1949a). Devre 8, Cilt 18, Sıra Sayısı: 157.

TBMMTD. (18 Nisan 1949b). D. 8, C. 18.

TBMMTD, (2 Mayıs 1949c). D. 8, C. 19.

Uluçay, M. Çaçatay. (2001). *Padişahların Kadınları ve Kızları*, 4. Baskı, Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu Yayını.

Ulus Gazetesi

Yeni Sabah Gazetesi