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Full Length Research Paper

Changes in convictions and attitudes to the teaching profession and classroom management due to practical teaching experience

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The aim of this study is to analyze changes in beliefs and attitudes to the teaching profession and to classroom management as a result of teaching experience. The structure of this study is based partly on the COACTIV - model of professional competence of teachers. The COACTIV – model is divided into motivational orientations, convictions and basic attitudes, self-regulatory skills and professional knowledge (comprising general pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, organisational knowledge and consulting knowledge). There are many studies that investigate the development of professional knowledge from novice to expert teachers. However, there are very few studies that analyze the impact of teaching practice on the convictions and attitudes of teacher trainees. Blömeke et al. analyzed the epistemological beliefs (beliefs regarding the structure of mathematics and those regarding the “genesis of mathematical competence“) of mathematics teacher trainees at the end of their training period. Brunner et al. have demonstrated that teacher's beliefs have an impact on the teaching practice, Sosu and Gray observed a positive relation between constructivist conviction and the learning process. Teachers who are convinced of the constructivist approach allow more self-directed and student-centered learning within their lessons. These teachers reject transmission conviction, suggesting that they should also reject teacher-centered lessons. Krauss et al. demonstrate that teachers with a good pedagogical content knowledge and a good content knowledge prefer a constructivist approach. It is the subject of this research to analyze whether teacher trainees, who favor a constructivist approach change their convictions as a result of the practical experience leading to a possibly more teacher-centered lesson style.

Keyword: Teaching practice, changes in beliefs, teacher trainee

INTRODUCTION

Teaching style and classroom management

The teacher-centered or student-centered teaching style varies from country to country. Maulana et al. (2012) show

that Dutch classes are taught with a more student-centered lesson style whereas that in Indonesia is more teacher-centered. They have also shown that “changes in lesson structure is not a function of time“ (Maulana et al.,

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2012, p. 835). The teaching style and the attribution of failure or good performance to the taught students affect their learning success. Important and central for all teaching approaches are concepts of learning and beliefs about the transfer of subject matter (Darling-Hammond and Bransford, 2005), which are often subconscious, but nevertheless influence learning success. Furthermore, learning success depends on classroom management. Numerous papers and studies have shown (Darling-Hammond and Bransford, 2005; Skiba and Rausch, 2006) that effective classroom management, an aspect of pedagogical knowledge, is an important precondition for successful teaching and learning. Classroom management not only means "efficient classroom management—that is, preventing disruption and using classroom time effectively" (Baumert et al., 2010, p.146). When nevertheless there is disorder in the classroom, the teacher has to respond and to discipline. For this reason, the frequency of disciplining could be a measure of the efficiency of the classroom management. Voss and Kunter, (2011) showed that teacher trainees improve their knowledge of classroom management during their training period. There are very few studies that compare the basic beliefs and the self- assessment of the classroom management of teacher trainees before they begin teaching with those after these teachers' first practical experience in teaching. There may be a change in some of the beliefs and in classroom management due to this first teaching experience.

Changes in self-assessment as a result of the first practical experience

Teaching may also have an impact on self-assessment of the benefits of the teaching profession such as cooperation with other colleagues, the variety and challenge of teaching and the satisfaction derived from working as a teacher. Benefits derived from the teaching profession have been listed as utility aspects of the teaching profession (Klusmann et al., 2011). These utility aspects could be proved to be ultimate career motives, playing an important role in selection of a university course and having a life-long effect (Keller-Schneider, 2011). Teaching requires the practical implementation of content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge acquired through the course of studies. Teachers do not consider themselves well prepared in pedagogy and pedagogical content knowledge (Terhart, 2000; Voss and Kunter, 2011). Scientification and courses which are not geared to teaching practice are often cited as a weakness in the German teacher training at university (Kotthoff and Terhart, 2013). On the other hand, teachers are well prepared with respect to content knowledge acquired at German universities. Terhart's theory regarding the insufficient training of pedagogical content knowledge could be reinforced by the personal assessment of teacher

trainees (Gawlitza and Perels, 2013). Content knowledge, that is profound knowledge of teaching materials, forms the basis on which didactic flexibility can develop (Baumert and Kunter, 2013). Pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) is the knowledge of how students learn, their preconceptions and also their misconceptions, influencing student learning success. Strategies to facilitate students' understanding of their teaching materials are also part of the pedagogical content knowledge. The pedagogical content knowledge and content knowledge acquired at university are to be transferred to school level. This process may be accompanied by personal assessment of the benefits of this knowledge. Therefore, it is possible that the personal assessment of knowledge acquired at university may change as a result of practical experience. This has not previously been investigated. Voss and Kunter (2011) have found that knowledge regarding lesson styles and students' learning processes grows during teacher trainee time. Teacher trainees in this study were convinced of the constructivist theory and rejected a transmission approach when they started the second-phase training for high school and comprehensive school teachers (Gawlitza and Perels, 2013). The potential effect of practical teaching experience on these convictions is to be proven as well as the effects on teachers' beliefs regarding attribution of failure or good performance. Effects on lesson style such as teacher-centered versus student-centered lessons and effects on teachers' assessment of their discipline problem-solving also need to be analyzed. The potential change in personal assessment of content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge due to practical teaching experience will be analyzed. Do the beliefs and attitudes to the teaching profession change, when teacher trainees undergo their own practical experience with teaching for the first time?

Aim of the study

The first aim of the study is to analyze changes in convictions and attitudes to the teaching profession and classroom management due to the practical teaching experience of teacher trainees for mathematics, biology and German at high-school (in Germany: Gymnasium) and comprehensive school levels. It has been assumed that the attribution of students' performance, the assessment of classroom management, the assessment of teacher- or student-centered teaching styles and also the assessment of the benefit of the teaching profession to a teacher could be influenced as a result of practical teaching experience. Conversely, it has been suggested that constructivist and transmission convictions would not change due to practical teaching experience because they are basic beliefs.

The second aim is to verify the potential change in personal assessment of the usefulness of content knowledge

and pedagogical content knowledge for the teaching practice.

METHODS

Participants of the study

This investigation is part of a research project involving 94 teacher trainees tested over two years both with longitudinal and cross-sectional study design. This study reports a repeated measurement (at first time of measurement and second time of measurement) of 23 teacher trainees (10 male, 13 female) at Saarland's high-school and comprehensive school levels of mathematics, German and biology.

Procedure and statistics

When this investigation was conducted the second-phase training for teacher trainees had a duration of two years. The teacher trainees were questioned at each time point by means of an instrument of 53 items. The survey was anonymous, voluntary and took place at Saarland's central study seminar for high-school and comprehensive school teachers. This paper reports on the investigation at the beginning of second-phase training (first time of measurement) and further investigation after eleven months (second time of measurement). At first time of measurement the teacher trainees had not taught at all; half a year later they started with teaching practice with ten lessons a week. So they had five months of practical experience in teaching before they were tested a second time. The differences between the first and the second measurement were examined using ANOVA with repeated measures. Bortz (2005) recommends an alpha error level at least 20% to confirm the null hypothesis and to avoid a beta error. According to the research questions the alpha significance level used is 25% if it is assumed that it will be no change. To confirm the alternative hypothesis (Bortz, 2005) an alpha error level of 5% should be selected. For this reason, an alpha significance level of 5% should be used if a change between the two measurements is supposed.

Instruments

The data were collected using a questionnaire containing 53 items of a closed answer format (Table 1). The items relate to convictions such as those regarding attribution of failure, transmission teaching approach, classroom management and benefits of the teaching profession (based on the COACTIV model). Preferred lesson styles are also explored with two questions, "What percentage of your lesson is dominated by teacher - centered / pupil - centered or group lesson teaching?" (1 = 0 – 25 %; 2 = 26 – 50 %; 3 = 51 – 75 %; 4 = 76 – 100 %). In addition to these questions teacher trainees were asked for their assessment of the usefulness of pedagogical content knowledge and content knowledge acquired by studying at university for the current teaching practice. Both issues also have a closed answer format (1 = does not apply at all, 2 = does rather not apply, 3 = is rather correct, 4 = is fully correct).

RESULTS

Conviction and attribution

The first aim of the study is to analyze the potential

change in attribution of student's performance and convictions of the teacher trainees. The attribution of poor or good performance (Table 2) does not change as a result of the practical experience.

At the first measurement on item-level, the results show that the attribution of poor students' performance is especially explained by insufficient concentration ($M = 3.32$; $SD = .57$) and insufficient motivation ($M = 3.0$; $SD = .80$).

Good performance of the students is attributed by good concentration ($M = 3.26$; $SD = .62$) and high motivation ($M = 3.17$; $SD = .78$). These attributions do not change significantly between the two measurements. Transmission conviction does not change due to the practice (Table 2), but constructivist conviction decreases significantly from the first ($M = 3.59$; $SD = .38$) to the second measurement ($M = 3.34$; $SD = .38$).

Classroom management and teaching methods

It is also part of the first aim of this study to find out if teaching practice influences the self-assessment of classroom management and also if it has an effect on the frequency of disciplining. The results of the study show that there is no change in the assessment of classroom management due to practical experience (Table 3). The scale of frequency of disciplining - a measure of the efficient classroom management - does not increase between the two measurements (Figure 1).

On item level, no significant differences could be found in oral reprimand, entering in class list, conversation with parents, individual conversation with pupils and class council, class conference (Table 2).

Only the exclusion from lessons shows a significant change; it increases from $M = 1.23$ ($SD = .43$) to $M = 1.55$ ($SD = .60$). Teaching practice results in an insignificant decrease in the frequency of student-centered teaching style such as group lessons, study circles and teamwork, whereas the teacher-centered lessons increase considerably.

Benefits of the teaching profession and personal assessment of the usefulness of content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge acquired at university

The second aim of the study is to verify the potential change of personal assessment of the usefulness of content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge for the teaching practice. There are no significant changes in the assessment of the benefit of teacher profession due to teaching experience. No significant differences could be found in the assessment of cooperation with colleagues, of variety and challenge and assessment of the satisfaction from the teaching work (Table 4).

Table 1. Scales used.

Scale / author	Example of an item/ number of items/ answer format	Cronbach's alpha
Convictions		
Attribution of failure / 1	If you look at the worse-performing pupils, what do you think about their failure? / 6 / a	.60 .76
Attribution of good performance / 2	If you look at the well-performing students, who can solve all tasks easily., how do you attribute their good performance? High diligence. / 5 / a	.55 .75
Transmission conviction / 3	Pupils are usually not able to discover connections themselves. / 10	.79 .74
Constructivist conviction / 3	Pupils learn best by solving problems themselves. / 6	.80 .73
Classroom management		
Classroom management / 1	I notice immediately if one or more pupils are unattentive and I integrate them into the lesson. / 2 / a	.54 .60
Use of disciplinary measures / 2	Which of the following disciplinary measures do you use? Oral reprimand. / 7	.59 .54**
Benefits of teacher profession		
Cooperation with colleagues / 1	Pedagogical cooperation with colleagues. / 4/ a	.78 .79 .75
Variety and challenge	Variety and challenge of the work. / 3 / a	.75 .70
Satisfaction from the teaching work	The possibility to pass on my knowledge in my lesson. / 6 / a	.70 .82

Note. a: 1= does not apply at all, 2= does rather not apply, 3= is rather correct, 4= is fully correct. b: 1= never used, 2= used rarely, 3= often used. 1 = Baumert et al. (2009); 2 = designed by the authors themselves; 3 = Leuchter et al. (2006); Klieme et al. (2005). *First and second measurement; **Due to the decline of the internal consistency of the scale between the first and the second measurement the evaluation is conducted on item level additionally.

Table 2. Attribution of pupils' performance, convictions and classroom management.

Scales	n*	M(SD)*	M(SD)**	(df1;df2)	F	Significance p	Partial η^2	Effect size d
Attribution of failure / a	23	2.98 (.38)	2.97(.42)	(1; 22)	.002	.963	.000	.03
Attribution of good performance /a	23	3.06 (.36)	3.19 (.44)	(1;22)	2.59	.122	.105	.32
Transmission conviction /b	23	2.18 (.50)	2.28 (.30)	(1;22)	1.33	.260	.057	.24
Constructivist conviction /b	23	3.59 (.38)	3.34 (.41)	(1;22)	9.55	.005	.303	.63

Note. * = first measure; ** = second measure. a = used alpha error level 5%; b = used alpha error level 25%. Significant values in bold type.

The results indicate that the personal assessment of the usefulness of content knowledge acquired by studying at university was positively impacted by teaching practice; it increases from $M = 1.96$ ($SD = .83$) to $M = 2.39$ ($SD = .99$). This compares with an insignificant decrease in the assessment of pedagogical content knowledge due to the practical experience.

DISCUSSION

The sample size of this investigation is small, but

according to Cohen (1988) the results are significant due to the good effect size and the f value. According to the structure of the COACTIV-model (Baumert and Kunter, 2013), the first aim of the study is to analyze changes in convictions, attitudes to the teaching profession and to classroom management due to practical teaching experience. The results of this study show that attribution of students' performance, transmission conviction and classroom management do not change as a result of practical teaching. This compares to a decrease in constructivist convictions and the increase of the discipline

Table 3. Classroom management, disciplining methods and lesson style.

Scales	n*	M(SD)*	M(SD)**	(df1;df2)	F	Significance p	Partial η ²	Effect size d
Classroom management /a	23	2.94 (.38)	3.07 (.46)	(1;22)	1.17	.291	.050	.31
Scale: Disciplining methods /a	23	1.75 (.38)	1.76 (.29)	(1;22)	.005	.942	.000	.03
Items 1 disciplining methods:								
Oral reprimand	22	2.77 (.53)	2.91 (.29)	(1;21)	1.00	.329	.045	.33
Entering in the class list	23	1.65 (.49)	1.65 (.65)	(1;22)	.00	1.000	.000	.00
Exclusion from lesson	22	1.23 (.43)	1.55 (.60)	(1;21)	4.34	.050	.171	.61
Conversation with the parents	22	1.64 (.49)	1.68 (.65)	(1;21)	.137	.715	.006	.07
Individual conversation with the pupil	22	2.36 (.58)	2.41 (.50)	(1;21)	.137	.715	.006	.09
Class council	22	1.23 (.53)	1.09 (.43)	(1;21)	1.30	.266	.058	.29
Class conference	22	1.32 (.48)	1.18 (.40)	(1;21)	1.87	.186	.082	.32
Group lessons, study circles, Teamwork / a	23	2.26 (.86)	2.00 (.90)	(1;22)	4.08	.056	.157	.30
Teacher centred lesson/ a	22	2.46 (.96)	2.81 (.91)	(1;21)	5.51	.029	.208	.37

Note * = first measurement. ** = second measurement. a = used alpha error level 5%. b = used alpha error level 25 %. due to the decline of the internal consistency of the scale between the first and the second measurement the evaluation is conducted on item level additionally. 1 = 0 – 25 %; 2 = 26 – 50 %; 3 = 51 – 75 %; 4 = 76 – 100 %. Significant values in bold type.

Table 4. Benefits of the teaching profession and personal assessment of usefulness of content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge acquired by studying at university

Scales	n*	M(SD)*	M(SD)**	(df 1;df 2)	F	Significance p	Partial η ²	Effect size d
Cooperation with colleagues / a	23	2.76 (.56)	2.71 (.58)	(1;22)	.129	.723	.006	.09
Variety and challenge / a	23	3.64 (.44)	3.77 (.35)	(1;22)	2.07	.165	.086	.33
Satisfaction from the teaching work / a	23	3.53 (.50)	3.65 (.33)	(1;22)	1.80	.194	.076	.28
Assessment of the content knowledge acquired by studying / a	23	1.96 (.83)	2.39 (.99)	(1;22)	6.11	.022	.217	.47
Assessment of the pedagogical knowledge acquired by studying / a	23	1.70 (.64)	1.57 (.84)	(1;22)	.683	.418	.030	.17

Note * = first measurement. ** = second measurement. a = used alpha error level 5%. Significant values in bold type.

method “exclusion from lesson“. The results show that the teaching style, either student- or teacher-centered, is affected by teaching practice. The teacher-centered style is used significantly more often whereas the student-centered style and teamwork among pupils tend to decrease, though not significantly. There is no effect on the assessment of the benefit of teacher profession when teacher trainees assume teaching responsibility.

The second aim of this study is to verify the potential change in personal assessment of the usefulness of content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge for the teaching practice. It could be proven that the assessment of the usefulness of content knowledge increases significantly as a result of teaching experience, while the assessment of the usefulness of pedagogical content knowledge tends towards lower values, but not to

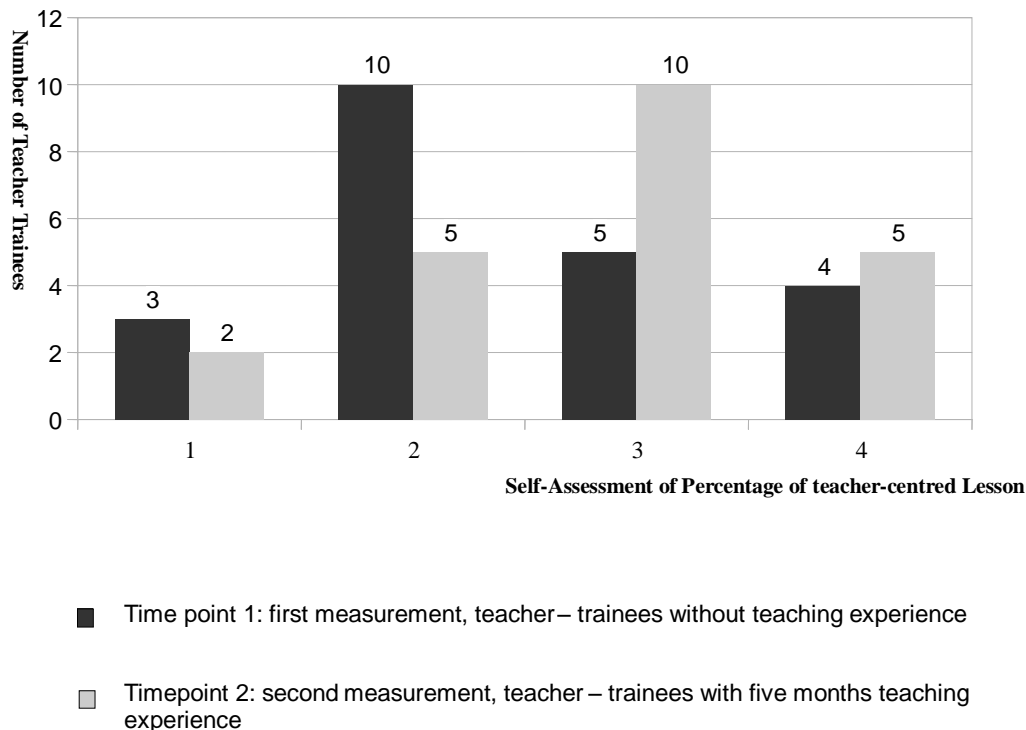


Figure 1. Self-assessment of teacher-centred lesson style at time point 1 and time point 2. 1 = 0 – 25%; 2 = 26 – 50%; 3 = 51 – 75%; 4 = 76 – 100%

a statistically significant degree.

The assumption that the attribution of poor or good performance will probably alter as a consequence of exposure to students' efforts could not be verified. This attribution could be a profound belief which is not influenced by practical teaching. This may have negative effects on students' learning success, because teachers' beliefs regarding learning influence students' learning outcomes (Darling-Hammond and Bransford, 2005). In each measurement of this study, poor performance is attributed to insufficient concentration and motivation. Students' motivation could be increased by teaching and as a result successful learning. To achieve this aim it is necessary to support teacher trainees with special training in students' motivations. The learning process could also be positively affected by constructivist convictions (Sosu and Gray, 2012). In this study at the point of first measurement, all trainees favored a constructivist approach. The significant change in the constructivist conviction was not expected, because this conviction is a basic belief. The cause for this change could be found in the lack of experience of time management of the teacher trainees. Maulana et al. (2012) proved that time management is an important part of lesson style, which teacher trainees have to learn in order to teach effectively including the scheduling of the subject matter they want to teach. Group lessons or other student-centered lesson styles require more time than a teacher-centered style.

This could be the reason for the increase in the constructivist conviction. Learning to teach and classroom management are competences which are acquired with practical teaching (Darling-Hammond and Bransford, 2005). In this study, there could be found no effect on the self-assessment of classroom management: Teacher trainees are convinced of their skills with or without practice. This personal belief in their own skills seems to be stable over time. The results of Voss and Kunter (2011) regarding the increase of the knowledge in classroom management during the teacher training period could not be found in trainees' assessment of classroom management. Contrary to expectations, teaching practice does not affect the assessment of perceived benefits of the teaching profession. The utility aspects of the teaching profession could be shown (Klusmann et al., 2011) as ultimate career motives, playing an important role in selection of a university course and these career motives continue to persist throughout the professional career (Keller-Schneider, 2011). This also seems to be applicable during the training period, because the career motives are stable over time and are not influenced by the practical experience. As suspected, the personal assessment of utility of content knowledge acquired by studying at university is not stable over time. This assessment changes positively with practical experience, meaning that the teacher trainees reflect on their knowledge and recognize the utility of the content knowledge with

respect to their current teaching practice. In contrast to the assessment of the content knowledge, the assessment of pedagogical content knowledge does not change due to the practical experience. It remains at a low level. This reinforces Terhart's (2000) theory regarding the insufficient training of pedagogical content knowledge at university. In this competence teacher trainees are not well prepared for their profession.

Limitations

The deficiency of this study is the small number of participants and the low internal consistency of the scales of classroom management and of disciplining methods. A strength of this study is the diversity of the investigated areas.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The scales of COACTIV (convictions, classroom management, benefits of the teaching profession) have proven themselves in reviewing the changes in professional competence. Practical experience influences constructivist convictions, the discipline method "exclusion from lesson", the teaching style and the assessment of the utility of content knowledge acquired by studying at university. Teacher trainees believe that they are not well prepared for their profession as regards pedagogical content knowledge. This important part of teaching competence should be improved by more practice-oriented courses at university. Teacher trainees need more support in time management to facilitate the constructivist approach and training in motivation strategies to improve students' learning outcomes.

Future directions

A further investigation will be conducted at a timepoint of six months and at a first time of measurement 2 months from second time of measurement in order to confirm the findings to date and to investigate what effect the variables measured at the initial timepoint have longitudinally.

Conflict of Interests

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Perceptions about instructional leadership: The perspectives of a principal and teachers of Birakat Primary School in focus

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Educational change and reform initiatives currently prevailing at global, national, and local levels seem to require school systems and school leaders to be instructionally focused. A focus on instructional leadership seems to entail, among other things, restructuring of the schools' instructional leadership system in a way that can actively respond to the call for promoting quality teaching and learning, and thereby enhancing the efforts in addressing quality education for all. Accordingly, the purpose of this study was to explain and describe the differences between principal's and teachers' perceptions and understandings of instructional leadership at Birakat Primary School. Questionnaires and interviews were used with the principal, along with two teachers from the 1st cycle grades and two teachers from the 2nd cycle grades. The collected data were analyzed qualitatively and aggregated to examine the respondents' perceptions on instructional leadership. The findings revealed a few differences between the principal's and teachers' perceptions. There was no consensus on the time frame a principal should spend on instructional leadership; none of the teachers chose the same time frame as the principal did. Another difference was with the definition of instructional leadership. Teachers focused on personal characteristics to define an instructional leader, whereas the principal defined instructional leadership focusing on the activities he has to accomplish in enhancing instruction. A third difference was observed on the impact of the instructional leader on a school. In this regard, the principal focused on establishing school culture where by the school community develops shared belief that students' learning is the first priority of the school, whereas the teachers emphasized the professional or supervisory support teachers must get from the principal. The implications of these findings seemed to indicate the need for school educators to engage in clear communication and continuous professional dialogue about the responsibilities of the principal. Also, the policies and procedures need to be put in place to provide the necessary professional development for enhancing both principals' and teachers' orientations of how to effectively and efficiently lead the teaching-learning at schools so that the targets for providing quality education for all would likely be reachable.

Key words: Culture, instruction, leadership, perception.

INTRODUCTION

With the Ethiopian governance structure that has been assumed to pave the way for responsive decentralization of the education system, the Ministry of Education (MOE)

is given powers and duties to initiate policies and laws; the Regional Education Bureaus (REBs) are expected to devise respective regional policies including granting

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autonomy and accountability to the respective localities; and the Woreda (district) Education Offices (WEOs) are assumed to support and enhance the autonomous operations of schools. In strengthening the focus given to leading educational institutions or schools, Article 3.8 of the 1994 Ethiopian Education and Training Policy specifically promised that educational management will be professional, and educational institutions will be autonomous in their internal administration. Moreover, it has been indicated in the policy that institutional autonomy should include designing and implementing of education and training programs with the necessary involvement of concerned stakeholders who are expected to take part at the different levels of the decentralized educational management system. One rationale stated for decentralization was to bring about accountability and decision-making close to the schools (MOE, 2006). This has paved the way to formally recognize the professionalism, expertise and competence of those who work in individual schools, particularly principals, to make decisions in improving the quality of teaching and learning. In general, all the assertions specified in the respective subsection of article 3.8 seem to demonstrate the commitment of the Ethiopian government in that educational institutions should be led by professionals who have the necessary orientations in how to deal with issues of quality teaching and learning.

Besides a directive that clearly delineates the management and organization of education, strategies for community participation, and financial management was produced in 2002 by the Ethiopian Government. The directive states the roles and responsibilities of the different parties from the Ministry down to the schools for each of the above functional areas. Included in the document were roles and responsibilities of the executive bodies such as the Ministry, Regional Education Bureaus, Zonal Education Offices, Woreda Education Offices, and schools. Also included in the same document were the roles and responsibilities of supervisors, principals, teachers and students in promoting the quality of teaching and learning in their respective schools (MOE, 2002).

Three Education Sector Development Programs (ESDPs) running from 1997 to 2010 (i.e., ESDP I, 1997-2001; ESDP II, 2002-2005; ESDP III, 2006-2010) were also set as strategies for facilitating the implementation of the education policy. All the three ESDPs have identified educational leadership/management as one strategy for implementing the policy. ESDP III, particularly, focuses on improving quality at all levels, and it seems to attach this call for quality to educational leadership effectiveness (MOE, 2007), which in fact has also been given due emphasis in the recently designed and introduced ESDP IV.

More importantly, with an informed interest in promoting the quality of general education, the Ethiopian Government also devised a General Education Quality

Improvement Program (GEQIP) in 2007 which was being effected in the years 2008/9 to 2012/13 (MOE, 2007). This effort of the Ethiopian Government is consistent with Kruger's (1996) concern that quality teaching and learning is a schools' primary task, and the excellence of a school should be measured against the quality of the teaching and learning that the students experience in the schools. The GEQIP document, hence, infuses a strong commitment that a school organization should be geared mainly to provide quality education possible.

As has already been emphasized in the literature on education and leadership (Elmore, 2000), the primary purpose of education is centered on students' learning and achievement. The principal has the pivotal role of providing leadership for the school and its wider community. In this regard, it has been consistently noted in the existing literature that the principal's role in the school is a complex one, a role that has many duties and responsibilities. One role is being an instructional leader, in charge of leading or supervising the teaching and learning process, to help the teachers improve their teaching. Improved teaching will result in higher students' achievement. The principal, as a leader, is a key in creating a school environment in which instructional leadership can thrive. Blasé and Blasé's (2004) research on instructional leadership emphasized that a primary element of successful instructional leadership was leading the instructional component of the school. In addition, Glanz (2006) mentioned that principals must pay attention to their role as instructional leader, which is paramount to positively affecting teaching and learning. That is, engaging teachers in instructional dialogue and meaningful supervision and striving to encourage sound teaching and learning is essential. According to Glanz, the ultimate goal of instructional leadership was to improve teaching, and meaningful supervision became the instrument to assist teachers in developing and growing in their professional knowledge, skills, and abilities.

The principal's unique role in the school is that they have an influence on students' achievement. Hallinger and Heck (1996) found the indirect effects of the principal's role resulted from internal school processes such as academic expectations, school mission, students' opportunity to learn, instructional organization, and academic learning time. All of the indirect effects had the greatest impact on students' achievements. Creating a collaborative working environment provides an opportunity for teachers' skills and abilities to grow and develop, which is enhanced through the direction of an effective leader. Thus, an effective leader, as defined by Kouzes and Posner (2003), is one who can challenge the process, inspire a vision, enable others to act, model the way, and encourage the heart.

Instructional leadership is one form of effective leadership (Hallinger, 2003). An instructional leader's role consists of communicating the school mission and goals,

providing supervision of the teachers in order to develop their skills and abilities, providing professional development opportunities, and creating school, which exudes collaboration, trust, and empowerment (Blasé and Blasé, 1999a). The result of principals incorporating instructional leadership principles into their role is that they create a school that works as a collaborative unit with a focus on enhancing students' achievement and creating active learners.

Blasé and Blasé (1999a) asked approximately 800 teachers about what principal's behaviors they believed improved teaching and learning, and created a model of effective instructional leadership behavior. Their research focused mainly on the principal's instructional leadership, especially in the area of supervision, and stressed that principals need to develop good communication skills and collaborative relationships, and to promote personal growth through staff development and reflection. That is, these authors seemed to understand and advocate the importance of instructional leadership in promoting students' achievement through teachers.

McEwan (1994) also provided a simplified perspective of the key qualities or behaviors needed to be a good instructional leader. The leader needs to have vision and a knowledge base, be willing to take risks and put in long hours, be willing to change and grow constantly, thrive on change and ambiguity, and empower others. These authors' explanation on instructional leadership can be summarized as "one who can challenge the process, inspire a vision, enable others to act, model the way, and encourage the heart" (Kouzes and Posner, 2003).

Evidently, if principals want to succeed as instructional leaders, they will have to put more effort into the following personal qualities and behaviors: incorporating reflective conversations; focusing on instructional improvement; supervision; development of curriculum; and developing relationships conducive to creating a positive climate. Leithwood (2005) synthesized the research from seven countries regarding their participants' understanding of successful principal leadership. Accordingly, five countries reported as the following qualities were necessary: skilled communication, cognitive flexibility, willingness to listen carefully, open-mindedness, and creative problem solving. According to Cross and Rice (2000), a principal who wants to be an instructional leader must have a vision and commitment to high students' achievement, high expectations, development of a trusting working environment, effective communication, and the courage to seek assistance.

Blasé and Blasé (2004) also found that the lack of instructional leadership frequently resulted in a loss of teachers' respect for the principal and poor performances by teachers, especially among those who had become exhausted. Therefore, the effects of a school leader who is an instructional leader will have a positive influence on the culture of the school, which, in turn, affects teachers' and students' outcomes. Principals' lack of time dedicated

to instructional leadership is due to the complexity of the principal's role that involves understanding the historical context, purpose, function, personal qualities, and behaviors of instructional leaders.

The purpose for this research was to gain insight into instructional leadership through describing one school principal's role and perception of instructional leadership, and the same school's teachers' perceptions and understandings of instructional leadership. The study helped to provide an explanation of the existing role of instructional leadership within the context of a school. The knowledge gained through describing the principal's and teachers' perceptions and understanding of instructional leaders may allow the principal to develop the role as instructional leader within the school. Hallinger et al. (1996) found that elementary school principals who are perceived by teachers as strong instructional leaders promote student achievement through their influence on the learning climate. Accordingly, the following were the research questions to be addressed.

- i. What is the principal's perception of the role of instructional leaders?
- ii. What are teachers' perceptions of the principal's role as an instructional leader?
- iii. What differences and similarities do exist between the perceptions of the principal and teachers on instructional leadership?

METHODOLOGY

Research design

The research questions developed on the topic of instructional leadership guided this study towards qualitative research in the form of a case study. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) stated that "qualitative" implies an emphasis on processes and meanings rather than focusing on quantity or frequency. Qualitative research emphasizes the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. Therefore, qualitative research can be defined as an inquiry process based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explores a social or human problem. The research builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting (Creswell, 1998).

For the purpose of this research, a case study was defined as an investigation into a principal's and teachers' perspectives on instructional leadership in a primary school. The fundamental reason for focusing the research on the perception of principals and teachers was because of the notion that perception matters on the actual practice of the task. The perception difference between principal and teachers is very likely to affect the practice of instructional leadership at schools. That is, if a desired instructional leadership culture or practice is to flourish in the school contexts, principals and teachers need to have a shared understanding on the respective instructional leadership roles of teachers and principals.

A case study was done in order to shed light on a phenomenon, which is a process, event, person, or other item of interest to the researcher (Creswell, 1998). That is, the purpose of using a case

study was to produce detailed description, to develop possible explanation, and to evaluate the phenomenon being studied. Accordingly, the case study provided an in-depth analysis of the phenomenon. Therefore, the case was to provide a detailed description and understanding of the different perceptions on the concepts of instructional leadership in a primary school.

Participants

The case study utilized purposeful sampling, which Patton (2002) defined as the rationale for selecting information rich for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the inquiry. Patton (2002) provided a variety of purposeful sampling strategies for selecting information-rich cases; however, the sampling strategy utilized in this case study was the convenience sampling. Convenience sampling approach means cases that are selected simply because they are available and easy to study (Gall et al., 2007). The sample was convenience because the school was located close to the researcher's families' residence, which allowed ease of contact with the participants.

Birakat Primary School was selected based on the principals' willingness to participate in the study. It is one of the primary schools found in Mecha Woreda and serves students of the rural areas. The school is located about 21 kms away to the East of Merawi town, and about 54 kms to the South-east of Bahirdar City, the capital city of Amhara regional State. The school is located in a very strategic place where rural students from the fourth directions of the Woreda get access for schooling, though the infrastructure and school facilities are still scanty.

At a staff meeting, all teachers from Birakat Primary School were invited to take part in the research. Each teacher was provided with the background, process, and procedure for the study. In addition, the teachers received a brief explanation of the purpose and significance of the research. Potential participants were told that: the school division, the school, and the participants would remain anonymous; and the data collected would be confidential. They were told that at any given point during the interview, for whatever reason, they can terminate the interview. They also signed a consent form to acknowledge their rights and the purpose of the research in writing.

The sampling strategy for selecting the teacher-participants for the study was a quota sampling. Quota sampling allowed the researcher to include parameter(s) for selecting the sample (Tuckman, 1994), and in this case study the parameter was the grade level being taught (1st cycle and 2nd cycle) by participants. Of the four participants selected, two taught in the 1st cycle grades and two taught in the 2nd cycle grades. Each selected participant received the survey and the set of interview questions that pertained to the topic of instructional leadership.

DATA COLLECTION

The data collection for this case study utilized multiple sources. According to Yin (2003), multiple source is defined as the opportunity to use different research strategies to gather data, such as experiments, surveys, observations, and interviews. Yin also noted that using multiple sources provides a broad range of data, which may be more accurate and convincing. In this case study, a questionnaire, and an interview were used.

Questionnaire method: Questionnaires can be defined as written forms that ask exact questions of all individuals in the sample group, and which respondents can answer at their own

convenience (Gall et al., 2007). The reason for using a questionnaire was to gather personal and professional information about the individuals involved in the sample. Tuckman (1994) noted that questionnaires provide self-reported data from the participant. As Gall et al. observed, a "questionnaire cannot probe deeply into respondents' beliefs, attitudes, and inner experience" (p. 228). Questionnaires allow for a quick and simple way to gather information, which does not need in-depth explanation.

The questionnaire consisted of mainly fill-in-the-blank responses, checklists, rankings, and open-ended questions. The fill-in-the-blanks and checklists provided nominal data that have the advantage of being less biased and allowing for greater flexibility; however, it is also difficult to score (Tuckman, 1994). The ranking-response items are difficult to complete and they force discrimination, but provide easy-to-score ordinal data (Tuckman, 1994). The open-ended questions were asked so participants could provide specific explanations of concepts, such as instructional leadership.

The questions developed for this survey were a combination of the researcher's own questions, and questions developed by Bedard (2005), who carried out a similar study on the concept of instructional leadership. Bedard's research focused on the instructional knowledge and skills of administrators, research that surveyed both administrators and teachers. The principal's questionnaire had 8 questions, 4 of which were adapted from Bedard's questions. The teachers' questionnaire consisted of 6 questions, 3 of which were questions adapted from Bedard's (2005) work. So, two different questionnaires were administered to the sample group on a one-to-one basis. Both the principal's and teachers' questionnaires took approximately 15 to 20 min to complete.

Interview method: An interview can be defined as the verbal questions asked by the interviewer and verbal responses provided by the interviewee (Gall et al., 2007). According to these authors, the strategy for data collection for the interview utilized the standardized open-ended interview, which involves a predetermined sequence and wording of questions of the same set of questions to be asked to each respondent. According to Patton (1990), the reason for asking the exact questions was to reduce the influence the interviewer may have had on the semi-structured interviewee.

Patton (1990) also stated that the purpose of qualitative interviewing in evaluation is to understand how program staff and participants view the program, to learn their terminology and judgments, and capture the complexities of their individual perceptions and experiences. Patton also noted the strength of the open-ended questions allowed for the interviewees to provide their own thoughts, words and insights. Therefore, the face-to-face interview process for this study provided a comprehensive explanation of each individual's perspective and understanding of the research question and the sub-questions.

Like that of the questionnaire items, the interview items were also partly developed by the researcher and partly adapted from Bedard's (2005). In this regard, careful attempts were made in adapting and refining the researcher's questions as well as the questions tailored from Bedard's (2005) study for both the principal and teachers interview questions. The principal's interview questions consisted of 11 questions; 9 questions had been developed from the research question, and 2 questions were adapted from pre-existing questions developed by Bedard's (2005) study of instructional leadership. The questions generated for the principal sought the principal's perceptions and understandings of the role as instructional leader, the barriers to the principal's job, and supports the principal needs to be an effective instructional leader. There were 11 open-ended questions for the teachers, 9 of which were developed from the research questions, and 2 questions developed

by Bedard (2005). Teachers' questions focused on their perceptions and understandings of the principal as instructional leader, the principal's strengths and weaknesses, and barriers to the development of teachers' skills and abilities.

Each of the five participants was interviewed from approximately 40 min to an hour. With the permission of the interviewee, an audio-recording was used in order to record the information collected as accurately as possible. As Lincoln and Guba (1985) noted, recorded data allow researchers to have complete records of the participants' answers to the questions. Following the initial interview, all participants were told that they might be contacted for further explanation, clarification, and additional questions if need be. The conversations were transcribed and each participant was given a copy of the transcript to review, revise, and delete any part if necessary. When participants received their transcripts, they were asked to go through each of the questions to determine whether the participants had more information to add to any of the previous responses. The purpose of going over their responses was to make sure that the participants had ample opportunity to review their initial responses. The process of going over the questions with them and giving time to review their transcripts was to ensure that the information they provided was as accurate and reliable as possible.

Data analysis

Patton (1990) noted that the purpose of classifying qualitative data for content analysis is to facilitate the search for patterns and themes within a particular setting or across cases. Themes were defined as an inference that a feature of a case is salient and characteristic of the case (Gall et al., 2007). Patton (2002) also noted that themes take a more categorical or topical form. The approach used to analyze the data was deductive analysis, which involves identifying themes and patterns prior to data collection and then searching through the data for instances of them (Gall et al., 2007). Deductive analysis was chosen to describe the important dimensions of the differences between a principal's and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership. The data collected from the questionnaires and interviews done by the principal and teachers were compared and contrasted with each other, and to the themes of instructional leadership as defined in the research questions.

The data collected from the principal were analyzed and coded into common patterns, themes, generalizations, and categories. The same process was applied to the teachers' responses, with an additional comparison among the teachers' responses to identify similarities and differences in perceptions. Finally, the principal's responses were compared to the teachers' responses to find the commonalities and differences in perceptions as related to the patterns, themes, and research questions. The process was to identify themes that are "salient, characteristic features in a case" (Gall et al., 2007: 452). This process was conducted manually and did not rely on a computer program to find the constructs, patterns and themes.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

As was summarized from the results collected using both instruments, teachers based their perceptions of instructional leadership on the principal's personal and professional characteristics. The principal had to model a love of learning and carrying out actions that made a positive learning environment. The teachers emphasized the importance of the principal establishing all professional

aspects of the school. This is in line with Elmore's (2000) notion that a principal must support teachers so that teachers could do their work well. Also, the teachers mentioned the importance of colleagues and central office supporting their principal so that the principal could function effectively. As to Elmore, the impact of instructional leadership on the school would result in all staff working collaboratively for the betterment of all students.

As the summary of principal's responses regarding his perception of instructional leadership confirmed, the focus was on having high expectations for all students to learn, which was accomplished through the principal demonstrating the idea that student learning was the most important thing going on in the school. Thus, personal characteristics such as compassion, empathy, and being able to support teachers personally and professionally, assisted the principal in developing relationships with teachers. According to the principal, instructional leadership set the culture of the school, which should yield an environment conducive to learning. In this regard, Kruger (1992) noted that the principal must organize all aspects of the school, but the teachers must also be part of the process through collaboration. Accordingly, the principal reflected that all teachers must be professional in that they must know what they are doing; and hence, the principal fostered the teachers' use of their professional knowledge. The principal also believed that all staff members must be informed of what was happening in the school to minimize clashes, which interfere with instruction and daily routines.

Thematic comparison between the teachers' and principal's data

In the final data-analysis process, the themes of instructional leadership were presented thematically. The thematic comparison, therefore, provided an aggregated summary of the principal's and teachers' responses.

Instructional leadership

The instructional leadership comparison began with the teachers' and principal's perspectives of the portion of time a principal should spend on the role of instructional leader, and then compared the participants' perceptions of what the most important responsibilities of a principal are. Hence, the sub-themes of instructional leadership were then compared.

Portion of time a principal should spend on instructional leadership

Instructional leadership is one of many roles and responsibilities a principal has in a school (Hallinger and Heck,

1996). All participants were asked to identify what portion of time a principal should spend on instructional leadership; however, it became apparent that none of the teachers' identified the same portion of time as the principal did. Also, it was necessary to note that teachers responses to how much time a principal should spend on instructional leadership was not affected or influenced by the grade level (1st cycle or 2nd cycle) taught by teachers.

According to the data, the principal's belief was that 10 to 30% of his time should be spent on instructional leadership, which differed from all teachers. Three of the four teachers believed that principals should spend at least 70% of their time on instructional leadership. These responses were congruent with the Elmore's (2000) concern that the first priority of principals' leadership is leading the instruction to which other activities become secondary. The fourth teacher was on the other end of the scale, rating the amount of time a principal should spend on instructional leadership at less than 10%. Perhaps, the fourth respondent may have some confusion with the role of principals in monitoring the teaching and learning process; otherwise, there is no doubt that the principal should spend the majority of his time on instructional matters.

Perceptions of most important responsibilities of a principal

In addition to the portion of time a principal should spend on instructional leadership, principals have many different responsibilities within a school. The principal and teachers were asked to rank which six responsibilities were the most important for a principal. Both the principal and teachers chose the four most important principal's responsibilities. These responsibilities are listed in the order of importance: visible presence, establishing school goals in collaboration with parents and staff, managerial duties, and discipline problems. Also, the principal and one of the teachers ranked these four responsibilities in the exact same order. Four of the five participants chose visible presence as the most important responsibility. Three of the five chose establishing school goals in collaboration with parents and staff as the next most important responsibility. An interesting point was that the two 1st cycle teachers chose exactly the same six responsibilities, but did not rank these responsibilities in the same order.

The difference between the principal's and the teachers' responses was that the principal believed that providing staff with new instructional ideas and strategies was part of the six most important responsibilities. From the teachers' responses, three of the four teachers mentioned the importance of the principal organizing staff meetings to allow instructional leadership to happen. Two (T1 & T4)

teachers noted the necessity of a principal providing coaching for teachers. The remaining responsibilities of providing collaboration time for teachers and explaining to parents what was happening in the school and classroom, only received one ranking each as the most important duty.

The final aspect of the ranking which needs to be addressed was almost all the responsibilities chosen by the principal and teachers dealt with instructional leadership, with the exception of discipline problems and managerial duties. These rankings suggest that teachers are not fully aware of which responsibilities fall under the realm of instructional leadership. In order to gain a better understanding of the principal's and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership, a comparison of the following sub-themes was undertaken: definition of instructional leadership, the characteristics of an instructional leader, the principal's function as instructional leader, and the impact of instructional leadership on the school.

Definition of instructional leadership: comparison of perceptions

Based on the similarities and differences between the principal's and the teachers' definitions of instructional leadership, the principal's and teachers' definitions were similar in the following areas: professional growth, resources, team building or, the philosophy of the principal towards education, and the leadership role of the principal. The differences between the principal's and teachers' definitions of instructional leadership had the principal focusing more on instruction, whereas the teachers noted the personal qualities of the principal and his plans for the school. The essential part of both definitions emphasized teachers' professional growth, which was a necessary element of instructional leadership. The principal focused on enhancing teachers' instructional abilities. However, the teachers focused on how the principal's personal characteristics guided teachers to their own professional growth.

One aspect that both the principal and teachers mentioned as important was that the principal had been an effective teacher prior to becoming a leader. The principal was a master or effective teacher, which meant he had the needed skills, abilities, and knowledge, which for teachers, was important for the principal's credibility. The principal also had a first degree in educational planning and management. Fortunately, this perspective of the respondents was quite congruent with Kruger's (1992) concern that to be a good instructional leader, the principal must first be a good teacher. The second aspect was the principal's ability to provide personal support, thus showing a concern for teachers' well-being. The characteristic that everyone agreed on was the importance of the principal's compassion and empathy.

Additional characteristics that teachers valued in a principal were the principal's ability to be consistent, to be personable, to be respectful, to be fair, and to have good communication skills. A third aspect was for the principal to provide professional support, all of which the principal saw as acknowledging and treating teachers as professionals, not inferiors. Teachers also found professional support was significant because it allowed them to share their strengths and knowledge, foster team work and collaboration, show trust in teachers' judgments, and allowed them to take risks, which ultimately contributed to their professional growth.

Another aspect of the principal's characteristics that both principal and teachers deemed important was the principal's ability to organize all aspects of the school. From the principal's perspective, he believed that leading the school was best accomplished through promoting a collaborative approach with teachers. Teachers concurred by emphasizing the importance of the principal fostering teamwork and collaboration. Also, the teachers mentioned that it was important for the principal to share their vision, establish high expectations, solve problems, make decisions, be flexible, and encourage hard work and success. Most importantly, these perspectives of the participants seemed to reflect McEwan's (1994) concern that creating a school climate conducive to quality teaching-learning is the principals' core instructional leadership activity without which meaningful learning would not take place.

According to participants', the effect of the principal's personal characteristics was to help create an environment conducive to learning by allowing teachers to focus on teaching. Everyone mentioned similar characteristics needed for an individual to be an effective instructional leader. The next section describes the sub-theme of the factors that affect the principal's ability to function effectively as an instructional leader.

Principal's function as instructional leader

This section identifies the barriers that interfere with a principal's function as instructional leader, and highlights the facilitators that effectively sustain a principal as instructional leader. The barriers that the principal and teachers identified as possibly hindering the function of the principal in the school were different. The barriers the principal identified concerned actual support from the local offices (the Kebele, and Woreda Education Offices) that he needed in order to provide quality resources for his teachers, to arrange conditions to provide professional development for his school, and to give his teachers more time to collaborate with each other. The teachers' perspectives on the barriers were mainly centered on the personal qualities of the principal and the role staff could play in their willingness to support the principal. However,

there was some agreement that the local government setup could be a barrier to the principal. From the principal's perspective, barriers focused on funding, whereas one teacher emphasized the possible lack of guidance from the local education offices in teambuilding and developing leadership skills. The only barrier on which the principal and two teachers agreed completely was the problem of time for teachers to work collaboratively. This finding was also similar to the one conducted by Hallinger (2003) that lack of support from the local district offices, and sometimes the presence of their untimely interventions on principals' tasks were among the top factors affecting principals' instructional leadership effectiveness.

The facilitators that the principal and teachers identified were more closely connected than were the barriers. Both the principal and teachers listed the importance of the personal and professional qualities of the principal, noting that the principal needed to support his teachers professionally with appropriate resources and, in turn, the teachers needed to support their principal by their willingness to cooperate. The main difference was that teachers also included other facilitators such as guidance from local education office, relationships with outside agencies, and adequate time.

Despite the barriers, and acknowledging the facilitators, the primary function on which both the principal and teachers agreed was the principal's need to support the teachers. Teachers' support was given by providing resources and guidance in order for teachers and students to achieve to the best of their abilities, or, as one of the teachers (T4) stated, "the principal assists teachers to become better teachers." The principal also mentioned the importance of his function regarding the community and the implementation of local government initiatives. However, the principal did point out that he must also ensure that the local education office is aware of the specific demands and needs of the school, so that teachers and students could be successful.

In general, the main perception of the principal's function, by both the principal and teachers, was the concept of supporting teachers, so that they could do their jobs effectively. The teachers' focus was on the personal and professional characteristics of the principal and the principal's ability to provide support to teachers, whereas the principal was more concerned with organizing programs and resources needed to provide support to his teachers. Also, the teachers did emphasize the importance of the principal being a compassionate and empathetic individual. Both sides underscored the support needed from the principal, so that teachers could do their job effectively. Obviously, different scholars, consistently noted that a successful school is a reflection of a successful principal, and a successful school, among other things is supposed to be characterized by motivated and committed teachers, and a committed and inspiring principal (Blase and Blase, 2004; Elmore, 2000;

Glanz, 2006).

Impact of instructional leadership on the school

Both the teachers and the principal identified the importance of personal and professional support that was necessary so that both could do their jobs effectively. Further data to be presented showed the impact that instructional leadership had on the school. The principal's viewpoint was that to be an effective principal, the priority as instructional leader must be to establish a positive school culture. According to the principal's view point, a principal affects school culture by having high expectations for all students' achievement; despite students' limitations, they must all achieve success based on their abilities. The principal also noted that if students were to be successful, teachers needed a positive school environment, which would allow teachers to function properly. Therefore, a positive culture created an environment conducive to learning, which was promoted by a principal providing support. The teachers also identified support as a crucial component for a principal to be an effective instructional leader, but also for teachers to do their job properly. In this regard, Kruger (1992) noted that building a sound instructional leadership culture is a foundation for ensuring instructional leadership responsiveness. Hence, it is quite fortunate that both the principal and teachers reflected the need for and the encouraging efforts exerted at the school in building a conducive school culture.

In general, the principal's and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership provided an understanding of the importance of the principal's leadership role in the school. The main focus for every participant was on receiving support needed for all school members to be effective, and on the importance of the personal characteristics of the principal. The principal's instructional leadership was exhibited by him modeling a love of learning and his focus on improving instruction, so all students could feel success, despite their personal limitations. The principal felt that the principal's major function as instructional leader was to establish school culture by working collaboratively and providing support for teachers, so they could teach effectively. The teachers themselves valued the principal who supported teachers personally and professionally, and who exhibited the necessary knowledge, skills, and abilities to be effective. In addition, teachers believed the principal must be compassionate, empathetic, and passionate about learning. Therefore, the principal's leadership provided the framework for the school to function positively. Further, both the principal and teachers emphasized the importance of creating a positive and supportive working environment, which focused on collaboration, collegiality, and professionalism, all of which were highly emphasized by Elmore (2000) and McEwan (1994) as desired inputs for quality

teaching to take place, and thereby, for enhanced students' achievement to be ensured.

REFLECTIONS ON FINDINGS, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The reason for the congruence between the principal's and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership was due to the professional and personal characteristics of the principal. In their responses, the teachers continually emphasized that an important characteristic and function of an instructional leader was to provide support to the teachers. The principal ensured he was a visible presence in the school, and tried to support his teachers personally and professionally. He reflected as if he created a safe environment for teachers and included them in the decision-making process. He tried to develop collegial relationships with staff through his informal supervisory approach. In addition, when teachers were asked to describe the principal's most important characteristic, they reflected as he was a good leader, who was compassionate, loving, and supportive. Therefore, the principal was perceived by teachers as a good principal. Since the principal provided a supportive environment and treated the teachers as professionals', the participants felt that he provided what they emphasized as important for an instructional leader.

In framing the implications for practice, it seems important to note that the principal's and teachers' perceptions on instructional leadership have provided data on the importance of three types of support required for a principal to be an effective instructional leader: principal supporting teachers; teachers supporting their principal; and the government setup (particularly at Kebele and Woreda levels) supporting their principals and teachers. The data provided by this case study may also provide the opportunity for discussion on about further development of supports for principals so that they can be effective in their instructional leadership roles.

By and large, the success of this school was due to the principal's exposure to management leadership/cultural/organizational theories and he was able to implement instructional leadership because of his knowledge. As a result, it seems sound to recommend to the Ministry of Education that potential principals should be trained in management prior to their appointment

Conflict of Interests

The author have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

The relationship with balance, foot posture, and foot size in school of Physical Education and Sports Students

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The aim of this study is to investigate the relationship of foot posture and foot size with balance. A hundred and thirteen healthy volunteers were recruited from undergraduate students (Male = 74, Female = 37, age range 18–22). The Foot Posture Index (FPI-6), anthropometric measurements, dynamic balance and static balance measurements were done to investigate the relationships between all the variables. Pearson product's moment correlation coefficient test was used for statistical analyses. As a result, it was found that there was a weak, negative correlation between the static balance and foot posture variables, $r = -.22$, $n = 113$, $P < .005$. Moreover, there was a weak positive correlation between static balance and heel breadth, $r = -.19$, $n = 113$, $P < .005$; and it was found that there was another small negative correlation between dynamic balance and foot length, $r = -.13$, $n = 113$, $P < .005$. Deficiency in foot posture may lead to some injuries by affecting on balance. This can be very important to both athletes and elderly people.

Keywords: Foot posture, foot size, university students, balance.

INTRODUCTION

Variations in foot posture can affect the function of the foot and this may lead to injuries (Redmond et al., 2008; Nigg et al., 1993). There are different methods for identifying foot posture. The FPI is an observational scoring system (the Foot Posture Index); it consists of six validated, criterion-based observations of the back foot and the forefoot when standing in a relaxed position (Redmond et al., 2001; Redmond et al., 2008). Screening of athletes by using the FPI to identify risk of injury is important to prevent future serious injuries (Cain, 2007). Both pronated and supinated foot is a risk factor for sports injuries (Cain, 2007). Balance is defined as the

process of maintaining the center of gravity within the body's base of support and it has been used as a measure of lower extremity function (Cote et al., 2005). Factors that may influence balance ability should be considered in examining balance as an outcome measurement as a risk factor for injury in sports (Rosychuk et al., 2005; Emery, 2003). In some research, supinated or pronated foot types are addressed for reason of balance deficiency (Cote et al., 2005; Hertel et al., 2002; Olmsted and Hertel, 2004).

In literature, the relationship of foot posture and injury risk was studied by some researchers (Cain, 2007;

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Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Participants.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Age (year)	21.3	1.63	113
Height (cm)	1.74	8.02	113
Weight(kg)	66.6	9.52	113
Static Balance (time)	1.69	1.86	113
Dynamic balance(sec)	10.68	4.17	113

MacManus et al., 2004) with very limited research (Cote et al., 2005) to identify if there was any relationship between dynamic or static balance, foot posture and foot size. The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship of foot posture, foot size and balance. Poor foot posture may be controlled by well-designed appropriate footwear or orthoses. After identifying and solving foot posture problem, balance deficiency may be decrease in sports school students for success in their sports performance. Moreover, if the problems are identified early, and with suitable treatment it may minimize elderly from the risk of falling.

METHOD

Participants

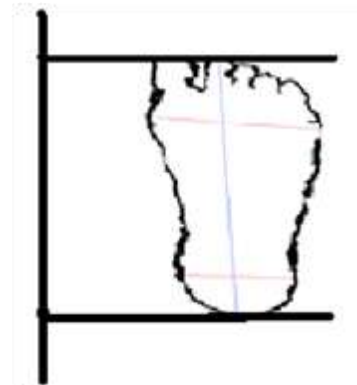
One hundred and thirteen healthy volunteers were recruited from the undergraduate students of the Mugla Sitki Kocman University, School of Physical Education (Male = 74, Female = 37, age range 18–22). Subjects were included in the study who had not sustained any injury in their both lower leg/foot over the past 12 months, had no pain, symptoms or previous surgery in their feet. Health report document signed by a medical doctor was demanded from all participants and informed consent was signed by participants after giving them short information about the study. Each subject's age, height, weights, foot size (foot length, foot width and heel breadth) were documented (Table 1).

Measurements

The Foot Posture Index (FPI-6): This item consists of a series of criterion-based observations of the six constituent measures required to assess overall foot posture (*Talar head palpation, Curves above and below the lateral malleoli, Inversion/eversion of the calcaneus, Bulge in the region of the talonavicular joint, Congruence of the medial longitudinal arch, Abduction/adduction of the forefoot on the Rear foot*). For the measurements, participants stood in their comfortable angles with their arms by their sides and looking straight ahead to assess the FPI-6. A 5-point Likert-type scale where lower scores represent a more supinated foot position and higher scores a more pronated position scoring system was used. Ordinal FPI data were converted to Rasch transformed scores allowing the data to be analyzed as interval data (Keenan et al., 2007).

Anthropometric measurements of foot (foot size)

Foot size (mm) was measured by using anthropometric set including heel breadth, foot breadth, and length of foot measurements

**Figure 1.** Measurement of foot size

(Figure 1). Subject's foot placed on a flat surface in a standing position and both feet are measured by anthropometric set. All measurement was done by the same researcher.

Dynamic and Static Balance

Dynamic Balance was assessed using a Lafayette Instruments Stabilometer (model number 16030-Lafayette, IN). Each subject was given one trial to understand how the apparatus worked and to experiment with foot and body position. From that point, each subject was given a 30 s trial with rest periods between each trial. The best score of the three trials was recorded (Wolkodoff et al., 2008). *Static Balance* was assessed by using flamingo balance test. The participants were asked to stand on their dominant leg. The free leg was flexed at the knee and foot of this leg hold close to the buttocks. After one trial was given the stopwatch was started and counted the number of falls in 60 s (Oja and Tuxworth, 1995).

Statistical analyses

SPSS 17.0 Statistical package was used for analyzing data. Pearson product's moment correlation coefficient test was used to analyze correlation between variables ($p < 0.05$). Demographic data were summarized by arithmetic mean and standard deviation values. The difference assumed significance when the 'p' value was lower than 0.05.

RESULTS

The relationship between Balance, Foot Posture, and Foot Size was investigated using Pearson product's moment correlation coefficient.

Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. There was a weak, negative correlation between the static balance and foot posture variables, $r = -.22$, $n = 113$, $P < .005$. Moreover, there was a weak positive correlation between static balance and heel breadth, $r = .19$, $n = 113$, $P < .005$ and it was found that there was another small negative correlation between dynamic balance and foot length, $r = -.13$, $n = 113$, $P < .005$ (Table 2).

Table 2. Pearson product-moment correlations between measures of balance, foot posture, and foot size.

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Foot posture	-	.005	-.222*	.010	-.064	.045
2. Dynamic balance		-	-.183*	-.125*	.006	-.073
3. Static balance			-	-.079	0.187*	.053
4. Foot length				-	.382*	.418
5. Heel breadth					-	.779*
6. Foot breadth						-

* $p < .005$.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Our primary findings revealed that foot posture and foot size types were affected in static and dynamic measures. The ability to sense motion in the foot and make postural alterations in response is essential in preventing injury. Our findings suggest that some aspects of postural stability are affected by foot type and posture.

Cote et al. (2005) determine if supinated and pronated foot types influence measures of static and dynamic balance. They found no difference in center of balance or postural sway as a function of foot type. Moreover, their results suggested that postural stability is affected by foot type under both static and dynamic conditions. In our study, we found that dynamic balance and foot posture were associated with each other although static balance was minimally affected by foot type.

Habib and Westcott (1999) found that increased foot length was associated with greater balance ability in children. The age of their subjects differed considerably from that of the subjects in our study; in this study it was found that there was a weak relationship with static balance and heel breadth.

Menz et al. (2005) found that foot and ankle characteristics are significant independent predictors of balance and functional ability in older people. One hundred seventy-six people recruited to their study; they measured foot posture and effects of on balance and it explained up to 59% of the variance in these test scores. In this present study, it was found that there was a relationship between balance and foot posture; it may have similar findings, but their subjects' age group was older.

Cowley and Marsden (2013) studied the changes in foot posture after a half marathon. They found that foot posture towards a more pronated position may have implications for foot function, and therefore risk of injury. This study group included school of physical education students and it was assumed that they were active in different sports; so it is important result to find relationship with foot posture. This may lead to sports injuries, because foot posture problems can cause balance deficiency whether they are in sports activity or not. Some researchers (Dong-chul et al., 2014) suggested

some foot exercises for people having foot posture problems to increase their balance ability. This study results show the importance of identifying foot posture problems which is to balance deficiency.

As a conclusion, problems in foot posture may lead to some injuries by affecting balance or result in falls. This can be very important both to athletes and in the future for elderly people. This study suggest that if foot posture problems are diagnosed earlier, it may decrease falls which can cause injuries in both daily and sports activities.

Conflict of Interests

The author have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

An investigation into Students' Turkish language needs at Jagiellonian University in Poland

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Needs analysis is a system for gathering and analyzing information about a person's needs. In the case of education, needs analysis forms the basis for developing a curriculum that meets the learning needs of a particular group of students. The purpose of this study is to determine the Turkish language needs of students enrolled in the Turkish Studies Department of Jagiellonian University in Krakow, Poland. In particular, this study addresses the analysis of learners' perceptions of needs, wants, and lacks and the role that needs analysis plays in learning Turkish as a foreign language. Data are collected from students currently enrolled in Turkish courses at Jagiellonian University in 2011-2012 academic year by using questionnaires. In analyzing the data, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 11.5) was used. Initially, the data were analyzed using descriptive statistical techniques including frequencies and percentages. In addition, standard deviations were also calculated to identify the extent of agreement in the participants' responses to the questions. As a result of the study, most of the students indicated that they want to learn Turkish in order to get familiar with Turkish culture. All of the respondents' perceptions on the importance of language skills are consistent. Although all of the skills are important in developing Turkish, the students revealed that, speaking is the most important skill. In order to meet the students' expectations and needs with the current courses, the course syllabi and curriculum need to be redesigned according to the Common European Framework (CEF) in order to fulfill their needs and expectations.

Key words: Needs analysis, curriculum development, Turkish language teaching.

INTRODUCTION

Needs analysis is essential for effective foreign language learning. In recent years, learner-centered instruction has become the recommended method for effective language teaching. Consequently, the needs and learning desires of students must inevitably be at the center of teaching pedagogical practices. This requires language teachers to know about their students' objectives, language

attitudes, course expectations, and learning strategies (Buckingham, 1981; Van et al., 1984). If language learning is to be successful, learners' needs, rather than the structure of the language, must become the basic instrument of instruction. Sound educational programs should be based on an analysis of learners' needs (Richards, 2003).

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Brown (1995) defines needs analysis in general terms: "Needs analysis is a process of gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students" (p. 35). Needs analysis, also known as needs assessment, plays a vital role in the process of designing and carrying out any language course. Needs analysis is also described in the context of foreign language learning as "a systematic and ongoing process of gathering information about students' needs and preferences, interpreting the information, and then making course decisions in order to meet those needs" (Graves, 2000, p. 74).

As long as students perceive that their needs and interests are examined and given serious consideration, their contributions to their learning processes will unquestionably be actualized at the deepest level. Once needs analysis is employed as an ongoing process in teaching methodology, it aids students to evaluate their own learning processes to become more aware of their needs, and to gain a sense of ownership and control over their own learning process (Brown, 1995; Dudley-Evans and St. Johns, 1998; Jordan, 1997; Richards, 2003). Performing a needs analysis is especially important because it encourages students to become involved in every phase of the educational process. Literature has shown that student involvement leads to successful foreign language learning.

Turkish as a language is becoming more and more important in education as well as a daily life due to the important role it plays in forming communication chains throughout the world. Turkish is becoming popular especially after the Soviet Union's break-up in 1991. As the importance of Turkish in the world continues to increase, the importance of teaching Turkish is gaining more and more credibility. As the demand of learning Turkish as a language grows, teaching Turkish language as a foreign language is gaining momentum as a profession and as a field of education. New methods and techniques should be developed to meet the demands of the changing world and teach Turkish more effectively. The most prerequisite of effective and quality teaching is having a clearly defined curriculum in terms of its teaching goals and objectives. Thus, having a good curriculum is the most important step to achieve quality language teaching. Teaching Turkish in Poland goes back to soon after Poland regained its independence in 1918. In 1919, a Department of Oriental Philology was set up at the Jagiellonian University in Krakow, with Prof. Tadeusz Kowalski as its head. He received a very fine training in Turkology. Thanks to him this branch of science developed rapidly in Poland soon to acquire an international repute (Siemieniec-Gołaś, 2011; Stachowski, 1997; Tryjarski, 1998; Zajaczkowski, 1983).

Needs analysis in language learning may be used for different purposes. According to Richards (2003), the purposes of needs analysis are: to find out what language

skills a learner needs, to help determine whether the existing course addresses the needs of students, to collect information about students' particular problems, to find out the attitudes that students have towards language learning and the language program, and to provide data that will serve as the basis for reviewing and evaluating the existing program.

The purpose of the study

Needs analysis has not received sufficient attention from researchers and language teaching professionals for Turkish as a foreign language. Consequently, Turkish language learners rarely have input in their language learning context. This study will shed some light on the needs of Turkish language learners at Jagiellonian University in Krakow. The purpose of this study is to present an analysis of learners' needs, their wants and their perception of factors impeding successful language learning at the Turkish Studies Department at Jagiellonian University. Thanks to this needs analysis process, students may develop independent skills, which is likely to contribute to their achievement in language learning. The researcher is a Turkish language instructor at the Turkish Studies Department of the Jagiellonian University. During an informal survey, the researcher has observed that both instructors and students have expressed dissatisfaction on several occasions with the methodology, materials, teaching, and about the effectiveness of the Turkish language program. As a result of these observations, the researcher has set out to describe and analyze Turkish language teaching through a needs analysis and to draw attention to the need for making some course modifications.

METHODOLOGY

The research study was conducted at Jagiellonian University (UJ) in Krakow, Poland. The research sample consists of students currently studying in the Turkish studies department at UJ. Thirty-three students, out of a total of 52, participated in this descriptive study. Data were collected by using a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was chosen to gather data because it is an efficient tool for collecting information for descriptive studies and requires little time (Brown, 1995; Oppenheim, 1993).

In order to find out the reliability coefficient of the questionnaire, a Cronbach's alpha was calculated. A value of 0.82 was found, which indicates that the questionnaire is highly reliable. Currently, this questionnaire is administered to students to determine their Turkish language skills and perceived needs and to analyze the effectiveness of the program, teaching methods, and teaching materials. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 11.0) was used for analyzing the data. Analysis was conducted by using descriptive statistical techniques, including frequencies and percentages. Frequencies and percentages were calculated to obtain a general view about the participants of the study. Means were calculated for each item to provide a standard way of comparing answers across items.

Table 1. Reasons for studying Turkish.

Options	F	P (%)
a)become proficient in Turkish	21	25.30
b)find a distinguished job	14	16.86
c)get familiar with Turkish culture	26	31.32
d) become an academician on Turkish studies	8	9.63
e) communicate with Turkish people	5	6.02
f) other	9	10.84
Total	83	100.00

Key: F= Frequency; P= Percentage.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The questionnaire consists of two parts. The first part, represented by Table 1 is designed to identify reasons that the students have for studying Turkish. The options for these questions are: (a) to become proficient in Turkish (b) to find a distinguished job (c) to get familiar with Turkish culture (d) to become an academician on Turkish studies (e) to communicate with Turkish people (f) other. The participants could select more than one option; their choices are shown in obtaining the gender and the proficiency level of the respondents. The second part, represented by Tables 2 to 4, contains questions about the respondents' overall views of the curriculum, about their skills, and about their assessment of the effectiveness of materials.

The greatest cluster, 31.32%, was of the students who indicated that "get familiar with Turkish culture" was their first choice. A close second, at 25.30%, was "become proficient in Turkish". The third choice was (to) "find a distinguished job". Students who chose the option (to) "get familiar with Turkish culture" want to learn Turkish because they are interested in Turkish culture and history. According to most students, culture is the most motivating factor to learn Turkish. It is worth noting that students were not restricted to one choice but could choose as many options as they wanted. The frequency of 83 for their response to this question can be interpreted to indicate the number of choice.

The following questions in the questionnaire are Likert scale questions. There are twenty-eight questions divided into four categories. Four options to choose the extent of agreement with the statements were listed. "Strongly disagree" was assigned a value of 1; "Disagree" a value of 2; "Agree" a value of 3; "Strongly agree" a value of 4. Means were calculated using these values. Mean values over 2.5 indicate agreement, and below 2.5 indicate disagreement. In Table 2, the questions related to the curriculum are analyzed according to the perceptions of students. In this table, frequencies and means are shown. There are twelve questions related to the curriculum.

Table 2 shows that students generally think the

curriculum is successful in teaching the Turkish language. The researcher is a native speaker and instructor of Turkish at the Turkish Studies Department. On various occasions, students have complained to him about the goals and objectives of the Turkish language curriculum. The Turkish philology curriculum is oriented toward old Turkish literature and history. Students who are not happy with the curriculum want it to orient more towards the modern Turkish language. Goals and objectives of the curriculum must be explicitly stated so that they may be understood by the students. A mean value of 3.66 indicates that many students strongly agree that incorporation of their needs should be a priority in the curriculum design. A mean value of 3.21 indicates that many students agree that the Turkish courses are successful, but a mean value of 2.27 indicates that some students agree that the number of courses is inadequate and should be increased. Therefore, it is recommended that there should be more Turkish language courses added to the Turkish language curriculum. Currently, *students* receive 15 academic hours of Turkish in the first year of study; 14 h in the second year; 10 h in the third year; 6 h in the fourth year; and 5 h in the fifth year of study. A mean value of 2.90 indicates that students attest to the proficiency and expertise of the Turkish language instructors in the department.

A mean value of 2.15 for the statement "Turkish courses meet my expectations" indicates that the Turkish courses do not presently satisfy student needs. As we have mentioned above, students want to have more Turkish language courses; so curriculum and course design must be based on student needs. A mean value of 3.90 indicates that students know the importance of learning Turkish from a native speaker. "Learners should have contact with native speakers and cooperate with them in order to become acquainted with the target culture" (Stern 1992: 265-266). A mean value of 2.12 for the statement "Group activities are practiced in class." makes it evident that group work activities are neglected while learning Turkish. It is known that group work activities increase students' ability to cooperate and learn from others, thus enabling them to take responsibility of their own learning and reducing reliance on the teacher. The use of group work also creates an environment in which a variety of cooperative learning strategies can be implemented. Cooperative learning has been shown to improve student achievement, increase the participation of reluctant learners, and promote positive social relationships among students. Group work also enables students to share their thinking, brainstorm ideas, learn to consolidate, evaluate, and edit the contributions of group members, and to take pride in their work as individuals and as members of a team.

A mean value of 3.27 for the statement "Teachers speak the Native language in class" indicates that nearly all the students think that Polish instructors of Turkish should speak the target language in class. Speaking the

Table 2. Perceptions of students about the curriculum.

Questions/Items	N	SD	D	A	SA	M
Q1 I am happy with the Turkish courses.	33	1	12	19	1	2.60
Q2 I know the goals and objectives of the program.	33	1	11	18	3	2.69
Q3 It is necessary to take students' needs.	33	--	1	9	23	3.66
Q4 We have an adequate number of Turkish courses.	33	5	15	12	1	2.27
Q5 Turkish courses are successful in teaching Turkish.	33	--	1	24	8	3.21
Q6 Teachers are good at teaching Turkish	33	2	9	12	10	2.90
Q7 Turkish courses meet my expectations	33	4	20	9	--	2.15
Q8 A native speaker is important for teaching Turkish.	33	--	--	3	30	3.90
Q9 Group work activities are practiced in class.	33	6	17	10	--	2.12
Q10 Teachers speak Native language in class.	33	--	1	22	10	3.27
Q11 Turkish courses are boring.	33	9	19	5	--	1.87
Q12. Turkish culture is taught in class.	33	--	2	22	9	3.21

Key: Q= Question, N= Number of participants in the group, SD= Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, A= Agree, SA=Strongly Agree, M=Mean.

Table 3. Perceptions of students about Turkish language skills.

Questions/Items	N	SD	D	A	SA	M
Q7 According to me, reading is important.	33	0	0	12	21	3.63
Q8 According to me, listening is important.	33	0	0	4	29	3.87
Q9 According to me, speaking is important.	33	0	0	4	29	3.87
Q13 According to me, reading is important.	33	--	--	12	21	3.63
Q14 According to me, listening is important.	33	--	--	4	29	3.87
Q15 According to me, speaking is important.	33	--	--	4	29	3.87
Q16 According to me, writing is important.	33	--	1	8	24	3.69
Q17 According to me, listening is difficult.	33	4	12	14	3	2.48
Q18 According to me reading is difficult.	33	5	20	8	--	2.09
Q19 According to me, speaking is difficult.	33	3	7	15	8	2.84
Q20 According to me, writing is difficult.	33	2	17	13	1	2.39
Q21 It is difficult to learn Turkish language	33	5	14	12	2	2.33

Key: Q= Question, N= Number of participants in the group, SD= Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, A= Agree, SA=Strongly Agree, M=Mean.

target language in the classroom promotes language learning. A mean value of 1.87 strongly suggests that students enjoy the Turkish courses and are not bored by them. Students believe that cultural elements are integrated into the Turkish language courses, as evidenced by a mean value of 3.21. Culture and teaching of a language cannot be separated; therefore, culture has to be integrated into teaching the target language. If language is taught without its associated culture, a student can only be like a stranger in the land, who can never really become familiar with the target language. Culture is not only one of the best tools for motivating students, but it also provides them with useful models of authentic use of the language that they can apply in the classroom. There is a consensus that the teaching of

culture has a positive impact on foreign language learning

In Table 3, questions related to Turkish language skills are analyzed according to perceptions of students. In this table, frequencies and means are shown. There are nine questions related to skills.

Table 3 contains the frequencies and percentages of the responses given to questions about the importance of the four language skills of reading, listening, speaking and writing, and about the problems students have had with them. According to the students all of the skills are fairly important for learning Turkish, with the mean value ranging between 3.63 and 3.87. Interestingly, according to students, reading is the least important skill, with a mean value of 3.63. (The Turkish language is read as it is written, so students find reading it very easy. It is likely

Table 4. Perceptions of students about teaching materials.

Questions/Items	N	SD	D	A	SA	M
Q22 Books are good for developing listening.	33	8	17	7	1	2.03
Q23 Books are good for developing speaking.	33	4	23	5	1	2.09
Q24 Books are good for developing writing.	33	2	11	18	2	2.60
Q25 Books are good for developing grammar.	33	3	13	15	2	2.48
Q26 Books have real life situation texts.	33	1	5	21	6	2.96
Q27 We have audio-visual materials in class.	33	5	14	12	2	2.33
Q28 We learn Turkish culture from books.	33	5	11	15	2	2.42

Key: Q= Question; N= Number of participants in group; SD= Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; A=Agree; SA=Strongly Agree; M.

that they interpret *reading skill* as simply reading the text.) It is evident that listening and speaking have the highest priority with a mean value of 3.87.

It is widely recognized that speaking is the most difficult skill in foreign language learning; thus it is no surprise that speaking is the most difficult language skill for Polish students of the Turkish language. In order to speak, a learner has to first attain receptive and communicative abilities. A variety of teaching approaches, especially the communicative approach, can be used to help students in this area. As it is shown in Table 3, the mean value of 2.09 indicates that many students agree that reading is the least difficult skill for learning Turkish. A mean value of 2.33 indicates that, according to students, the Turkish language is not difficult to learn. This may be so because Turkish does not have many exceptions. It is extremely regular when compared to other languages.

In Table 4, questions related to teaching materials are analyzed according to perceptions of students. Frequencies and means are shown. There are seven questions related to teaching materials.

Turkish is not a commonly taught language. Consequently, a major problem that teachers encounter is a shortage of instructional materials. There is also a lack of variety, richness and volume of resources available to Turkish language learners. The most popular and common textbook for teaching Turkish as a foreign language is the Hitit *Turkish for Foreigners* education pack, which was updated in 2009. Turkish language teachers at the department use this series as a course book. A mean value of 2.60 in Table 4 indicates that students agree that the course book develops their writing skills; however, they do not develop students' listening and speaking skills or grammar. Although the books provide a listening CD, teachers do not conduct listening activities in the classroom. The Polish instructors say that it is unnecessary to practice listening activities because the department employs a native speaker of Turkish.

Since the course books do not teach grammar directly, students think the course books do not support this aspect of language. Additional grammar materials have to be used to support the course books. Audio-visual

materials are neglected by the teachers because there is not a language laboratory for teaching Turkish. A mean value of 2.96 indicates that many students agree that the course book texts describe real-life situations. Because the course books are based on criteria of the Common European Framework established by the European Council, they include many real life situation dialogues and texts in the belief that teaching materials should reflect the outside world with a degree of authenticity.

A mean value of 2.42 indicates that many students feel that course books do not provide adequate information about the target culture. Cultural elements have to be integrated into the courses from various other sources. Although students have mentioned that culture has been integrated into the classroom, they did not learn it through course books but rather through films, CDs, authentic materials, web pages, and from explicit instruction by the native speaker. For many years, language professionals and teachers have discussed incorporation of culture into foreign language teaching materials. Some teachers want to have cultural content in their language classrooms. Similarly, students may wish to acquire cultural knowledge, which will enable them to engage authentically with the language use of a particular native-speaking community.

Conclusion

The needs analysis provided in this study investigates the needs of Polish students of Turkish language from their own perspective. Turkish language instructors and the administration can utilize the results of this study for updating the Turkish language curriculum. This study makes it clear that implementation of needs analysis plays a significant role in identifying and examining the needs of any educational institution. Based on this study, some recommendations for improving the Turkish language teaching are presented below.

Turkish culture plays an important role in the students' desires to learn Turkish language. Culture is the strongest motivating factor behind the students' desire to learn the

Turkish language. Since culture and language cannot be separated, culture must be taught while teaching Turkish language. Communication in foreign language teaching is gaining more importance in today's world. Language students find that learning the vocabulary and grammatical structures of a particular language is not enough to gain proficiency in the language. The close relationship between language and culture reveals the fact that it is impossible to master a language without learning its culture. Therefore, the curriculum, the syllabi and the course books used for teaching Turkish as a foreign language must improve students' communication skills by raising their cultural awareness. If Turkish language is taught without its culture, students will remain strangers who are not familiar with the target language. Lately, it has become more widespread to teach a foreign language with its respective culture. As a teacher of Turkish language, we need to maintain our students' interest all the time in classes. Culture is thus one of the best means of motivation for students and provides authentic settings for students to better comprehend the nature of a given language. Teachers must integrate Turkish culture into the classroom because most of the students want to learn the Turkish language in order to become familiar with its associated culture. Language learning should prepare students to interact appropriately with Turkish natives.

To meet the needs of students as fully as possible, significant overall objectives need to be set for Turkish programs at Polish universities. Establishing realistic goals by translating needs and expectations into attainable goals is critical. The goals and objectives of the Turkish language program must be explicitly stated in a way that they are understood by students.

According to the result of the study, the main objectives in learning Turkish are to become competent in the Turkish language and to gain familiarity with Turkish culture. Students who complete this program should be able to converse effectively with native speakers, should be able to read authentic materials for pleasure or professional needs, and should be able to correspond with friends, colleagues or business associates in Turkish. Therefore, the goal of teachers should be to prepare students to communicate within the Turkish culture with necessary cultural sensitivity.

The most important finding of this study is that students need to improve their speaking and listening skills in order to communicate with the Turkish community. Although students think the four language skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing are important; most of the students would specifically prefer to develop their speaking skills. However, if their needs have not been fully met by the program, teachers should apply suitable teaching methods in order to fulfill students' needs.

Various problems of teaching Turkish as a foreign language stem from the fact that it is not commonly taught. One of the biggest problems is the shortage of instructional materials. There are serious limitations in

variety, richness and volume of resources available to Turkish language learners. Since the course books do not meet the expectations of the students, teachers should develop their own materials, which should be supported by audio-visual aids. Authentic materials, including brochures, magazines, tickets, school reports and electric bills should be employed in classrooms to create an atmosphere in which students feel like they are in a natural learning environment. Teachers should select materials that will stimulate and motivate learners while satisfying learning objectives and fulfilling student needs as much as possible.

The administration should provide instructors with multimedia equipment such as computers, overhead projectors, video, and cassette or CD players to be used in Turkish language classes. Students and instructors should have easy access to the Internet because it is very useful not only for teaching with authentic materials, but also for learning language (Barnard and Zemach, 2003; Dudley-Evans and St. Johns, 1998).

Common European Framework (CEF) has been developed to help language learners, teachers, course designers, exam developers and educational administrators to maintain unity in language teaching, learning and assessment in different countries in Europe by setting criteria in educational institutions and language qualifications and by founding a sound basis for their recognition. Thus, CEF should be integrated into the program at Turkish studies department of Jagiellonian University.

Conflict of Interests

The author(s) have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

The effect of modifying spelling rules on the Orthography Education

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The current study examined four different orthography guides prepared by Turkish Language Society between 1996 and 2012. These orthography guides included different spellings in words with capital letters, compound words, abbreviations, and some other words. The spelling differences defined were analyzed in groups. Different spelling preferences in abbreviations were presented in a table. The issues that these orthographic modifications may involve in Turkish language teaching were discussed. The orthography unity in words and abbreviations was emphasized and what to do in order to provide unity was put forward in conclusion and suggestions section.

Key words: Turkish Language Society (TLS), Turkish Language, orthography, grammar rules.

INTRODUCTION

One important element of native language teaching is the orthographic rules education. Orthographic rules guide us in writing and pronouncing words in our language accurately. An individual, beginning to learn the native language through random and aural acculturation since birth, acquires his/her mother tongue as it is spoken by the immediate surroundings and the family until school age. At the school age, s/he begins to become literate in written language through deliberate acculturation and learns the orthographic and punctuation rules. These rules help use the language more efficiently and accurately. As the individual learns the rules and punctuation marks that strengthen articulation, his/her skill to use the written expression improves. Thus, s/he is able to use the written and spoken language of culture.

Writing is the most difficulty and latest developing skill among the four language skills. Writing skills develop

very slowly because it is attained through various exercises (Demirel, 1999: 72). It is required to know the syntax, tenses used, and the accurate usages of the words and affixes in written expression.

Orthographic education is to be considered and provided along with vocabulary learning because word meanings and spellings cannot be considered separately. A student is not thought to have gained a word so long as s/he cannot say and write it accurately and know its correct meaning. Inaccurate spelling, as well as inadequate expression, indicates that the individual is not well-educated, attentive, and does not respect his/her mother tongue. Therefore, the orthography is an important part of native language education (Göğüş, 1978: 371). Thus, in order to use the language accurately, it is required to know the grammar and orthographic rules in language education in general and in Turkish language teaching in

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particular. Orthographic education is important in terms of developing writing skills. It is a priority for students to master the rules of standard Turkish and apply them in written expression of the language (Özbay, 2011: 181). Languages, in relation to the linguistic family that they belong to, possess sound features, pronunciation and writing methods and certain orthographic rules. Orthography of a language depends on the F as well; particularly in our language, orthography is largely based on rules (Göğüş, 1978: 371). These rules historically develop and take form. Based on the changes experienced in languages, orthographic rules are naturally modified because language is alive and it always develops and evolves. New words and rules may be included in languages in different periods or some words and rules change or go extinct in time. This is a result of aliveness of the language.

Languages of the world are classified in groups of roots and forms and these groups make the linguistic families. Turkish language is structurally included in agglutinative languages family and it is a suffixing language. Based on the roots, it is considered within Ural Altaic language family. All languages within the Ural Altaic family have vocal harmony. There are some other writing rules governing the Turkish words or the words borrowed from other languages into Turkish, today. Anyone learning the native language is required to know and apply the rules of the language. Thus, the structure of the language is not broken and the individual's language usage skills will improve. Studies on Turkish orthography rules and their application, today, are conducted by Turkish Language Society (TLS). Orthography guides, dictionaries, and other publications on our language assist in defining and implementing Turkish orthographic rules. Turkish Language Society defines Turkish orthographic rules through the orthography guides that it publishes. It is observed that some different written forms and changes in spellings of some words, abbreviations, and phrases are included within the guides that the Society publishes at different times. We observe that even the names of guides that the Society publishes are affected by the changes. Guides prepared until 2005 were published as *İmlâKılavuzu* (Orthography Guide) whereas, in 2005 and beyond, they were changed into *YazımKılavuzu* (Orthography Guide). Undoubtedly, the reason for such change is that the Turkish translation of the Arabic *imlâ* (orthography) is *yazım* in Turkish. Turkish words, *imlâ* and *yazım*, are entered separately in Turkish dictionary and their correspondences are shown as follows:

imla is. (*imlâ:*) Ar. *imlâ* 1.Yazım.2.esk.Doldurma, *doldurulma* (TDK, 2005: 962).

(orthography, n. Arabic, 1. Orthography, 2.old usage, stuffing, being stuffed (TLS, 2005: 962)

yazım is. dbl. *Birdilin belli kurullarla yazıyı geçirilmesi, imla* (TDK, 2005: 2155).

(orthography, n. grammar. Writing of a language in certain rules, orthography (TLS, 2005: 2155)

These changes directly affect the teaching of Turkish grammar and orthography at schools because the teachers of the related subjects are mostly not immediately informed of these modifications in orthography rules. Therefore, different applications in teaching orthography rules at schools are observed. Thus, instead of a common written form in language, different understandings of written form, depending on individuals and even institutions, occur and this negatively influences the written language. The current study investigates the modifications of orthographic rules found in orthography guides published by the Turkish Language Society and the reflections of these modifications on grammar and orthography teaching.

METHODOLOGY

The current study investigates the orthography guides published by the Turkish Language Society in and beyond 1996, through scanning method, and defines the modifications in orthography and rules.

Purpose of the study

The current study aims to define the orthography modifications in Turkish words and investigate the reasons for these modifications and the effects of the modifications on writing education.

Population and sample

The population of the study consists of the orthography guides published by the Turkish Language Society and the sample of the current study is limited to the orthography guides published by the Turkish Language Society in 1996, 2000, 2005 and 2012.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Modified orthographic rules within the orthographic guides published by the Turkish Language Society in 1996, 2000, 2005 and 2012 are as follows:

Modifications in writing the capital letters: "Poem lines that begin with capital letters" is included in orthography guides in 1996 and 2000 (TLS, 1996 and 2000: 24) whereas "poem lines that often begin with capital letters" (p.15) is included in the guide published in 2005. Two types of modifications attract attention in this: firstly, the word *dize* (line) is preferred instead of *mısra* (line) and secondly, *often* is added. Thus, it is explained that the pome lines may begin with both lowercase and uppercase letters. In the orthography guide published in 2012, the expression "poem lines begin with capital letters" (p.13) in again included under the title about capital letter usage. Thus, for seven years, teachers had told students about when to use capital letters that "poem lines often began with capital letters" and after 2012, they

taught the students that “poem lines began with capital letters”. As can be observed, in a period of average 8 to 10 years, guides published included different applications. Another modification example of when to use capital letters is about the addressing in letters and official correspondences. Within the 1996 and 2000 guides, “the first word of addressing begins with capital letter” is included (TLS, 1996: 25 and TLS, 2000: 26). Examples are:

“Dear brother, Beloved friend, and Valued friend”.

As can be seen in the addressing examples, the second word begins with lowercase letter. Teachers of Turkish language and literature taught students accordingly and provided similar examples. This rule was modified in the guide published in 2005 as in:

“Addressing begins with capital letters in letters and official correspondence”.

The examples of addressing, with second words previously starting in lowercase letters, are provided:

“Dear Brother, Beloved Friend, and Valued Friend” (p.17). No modification about this was included in the orthography guide published in 2012.

Another orthographic difference in capital letters is about the words such as *sea, river, lake, mountain, and straits* names of types that come second in place names. In the orthographic guides published in 1996 and 2000, the word coming second after place names was stated to begin with lowercase letters; for example, *“Marmara denizi, Aral gölü, Sakaryaırmağı, Erciyesdağı* (Marmara sea, Aral lake, Sakarya river, and Erciyes mountain)” (TLS, 1996: 26 and TLS, 2000: 27). In the guides published in 2005 and 2012, modification about the second words after place names was included: second words begin with capital letters. Thus, the phrases *“Marmara Denizi, Aral Gölü, Sakaryaırmağı, ErciyesDağı* (Marmara Sea, Aral Lake, Sakarya River, and Erciyes Mountain)” are written with the second word beginning with capital letter also (TLS, 2005: 18 and TLS, 2012:15).

Modifications about the compound and separate words: A problematic area in our language is the compound words. There is no consistency about the compound words as to when to write their words separately or to combine them. Therefore, in orthographic guides, compound words have two entries such as “separately written compound words” and “combined compound words”. However, spelling of some words differs in various guides published in different years. Therefore, the dispute about the compound words in Turkish still continues. This disputable issue leads to the

differences depending on teachers and students, in understanding of writing and spelling teaching. The words with modified spellings in guides published by the Society in 1996 to 2012 are as follows:

The orthographic guides published between 1996 and 2000 state that compound words made up of *ev, ocak, and yurt* (house, center, and dorm) are to be written separately. For instance: *“aşevi, orduevi, sağlıkocağı, yayınevi, sağlıkyurdu, öğrenciyurdu* (foodbank, officers’ club, health center, publishing house, health house, and student dorm)” (TLS, 1996: 44 and TLS, 2000: 45). However, the guides published in 2005 and 2012 states that the compound words made up of *ev* (house) are to be combined. The words such as *“aşevi, basımevi, öğretmenevi, huzurevi* (foodbank, publishing house, teachers’ club, and nursing house)” written separately in previous guides are combined now (TLS, 2005: 24 and TLS, 2012: 20). Compound words with Persian “hane (house)” are of those written in different styles. Compound words made up of this particular word are: *dershane, postahane, hastahane, pastahane, yemekhane* (prep school, post office, hospital, bakery, and dining hall). Recently, the common usage has dropped the syllabus ‘ha’ in these words: *hastane, postane, pastane, dersane*. The orthography guides published in 1996 and 2000 stated that the compound words consisting of ‘hane’ were to be combined and the ‘h’ in words such as *dershane, eczahane, hastahane, postahane, and pastahane* (prep school, pharmacy, hospital, post office and bakery) was not recommended to be dropped (TLS, 1996: 36 and TLS, 2000: 37). Although the syllabus “ha” in *dershane, eczahane, hastahane, postahane, and pastahane* (prep school, pharmacy, hospital, post office, and bakery) was not recommended to be dropped in orthography guides published in 1996 and 2000, the orthography guide published in 2005 included the words *eczahane, hastahane, postahane, and pastahane* *aseczane, hastane, pastane, andpostane* (pharmacy, hospital, post office, and bakery) due to common usage (TLS, 2005: 24). On the other hand, the 16th article of the orthography guide published in 2012 stated under the “combined compound words” heading that “compound words made up of *hane, name, zade* (house, note, and the son of)” were to be combined and included the following examples: *“çayhane, dershane, kahvehane, andyazihane* (tea house, prep school, coffee house, and office)” (TLS, 2012: 20). In the orthography guide published in 2012, Turkish Language Society did not mention the wide spread usage of *eczahane, hastahane, postahane, and pastahane* *aseczane, hastane, pastane, andpostane* (pharmacy, hospital, post office, and bakery). TLS conflicted by giving the spelling of these words as *eczane, hastane, pastane, andpostane* with its own 1996 and 2000 guides stating that it was not accurate to drop the syllabus “ha” included in *eczahane, hastahane, postahane, and pastahane*.

The first example about the differences in spelling compound words consists of compound words made up of *ara*, *dış*, *öte*, and *sıra*. 1996, 2000, and 2005 orthography guides stated that compound words and terms made of “*ara*, *dış*, *öte*, and *sıra*” (*middle*, *out*, *beyond*, *regular*) as suffixes were to be written separately (TLS, 1996: 44 and TLS, 2000: 45 and TLS, 2005: 28). As such, *fizikötesi* (metaphysical), *morötesi* (ultraviolet), and *kızılötesi* (infrared), made up of *öte* (*beyond*), were written separately in the guides. However, the 2012 guide included combined compounds *fizikötesi* and *kızılötesi* made up of *öte* without any explanation. Another example for words with different combination is the word *büyükşehir* (metropolis). This word, written as a separate compound *büyükşehir* (TLS, 1996: 133 and TLS, 2000: 149) in the 1996 and 2000 guides, was included as combined compound *büyükşehir* (TLS, 2005: 138 and TLS, 2012: 161) in 2005 and 2012 guides. The third example of different spellings in compound words is the word *büyükelçi* (ambassador) made up of *büyük* (*great*). This word, written as a separate compound *büyükelçi* (TLS, 1996: 133 and TLS, 2000: 149) in the 1996 and 2000 guides, was included as combined compound *büyükelçi* (TLS, 2005: 137 and TLS, 2012: 160) in 2005 and 2012 guides. The last example in this section is the word *gökkuşağı* (rainbow). This word, written as a separate compound *gökkuşağı* (TLS, 1996: 200 and TLS, 2000: 223) in the 1996 and 2000 guides, was included as combined compound *gökkuşağı* (TLS, 2005: 224 and TLS, 2012: 261) in 2005 and 2012 guides.

Changes in spelling some words: One of the words that had modified spelling is the word *kampüs* (*campus*) originating from French *campus*. The word whose Turkish correspondent was defined as *yerleşke* (*campus*) was included as *kampusin* 1996 and 2000 orthography guides (TLS, 1996: 243 and TLS, 2000: 272). However, although the word was included as *kampus* in the guides, it was written as *kampüs*. Maybe therefore, the TLS gave up *kampus* and modified the spelling of the word into *kampüs* in 2005 and 2012 guides (TLS, 2005: 277 and TLS, 2012: 320). In addition to *kampüs*, differences in the spelling of *Kur'an-ı Kerim* (Koran) were also observed. 1996 and 2000 orthography guides included the combined word as *Kur'anıkerim* (TLS, 1996: 273 and TLS, 2000: 304). Later, the 2005 and 2012 guides included the same word as a noun phrase with the second word beginning with a capital letter: *Kur'an-ı Kerim* (TLS, 2005: 314 and TLS, 2012: 362).

Modifications in abbreviations: Turkish Language Society's orthography guides are observed to have made some modifications in the abbreviations of some words. Adopting a novel abbreviation after so many years of using a former abbreviation confuses people and leads to ambiguous usage. Thus, even if we do not want, more

than one abbreviation is available for one word or a concept or an institution. As a result, the orthographic unity is hurt and differences in spelling occur. The chart below includes those concepts and abbreviations modified in orthography guides published between 1996 and 2012. As shown in Table 1.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Modifications have been incorporated in the use of capital letters, the orthography of compound words, words originating from foreign words, and the abbreviations. The modification in the compound words is about combining the separately written compound words. The words *hastahane*, *postahane* and *pastahane* made up of the Persian *hane* were changed into *hastane*, *postane*, and *pastane* as used commonly. Some abbreviations such as those of *yüksekmimar* (master architect), *yüksekmühendis* (certified engineer), and *yardımcıdoçent* (assistant professor) were modified by taking out a letter as follows:

Yük. Mim. to *Y. Mim.*, *Yük.Müh.* to *Y. Müh.*, *Yard. Doç.* To *Yrd. Doç.* Letters were added on some other abbreviations to modify their spelling as in *Araştırmagörevlisi* (research assistant), *OsmanlıTürkçesi* (Ottoman Turkish), *Ar. Gör.* to *Arş. Gör.*, and *Osm. to Osm. T.*

Punctuation marks were added or taken out from some abbreviations as in the following:

Posta kutusu; P.K., *Şirket; Ş.* to *Ş* –punctuation mark taken out – and *Saat; satsa.*, *Saniye; sn.* – punctuation mark added.

In addition, some abbreviations given for some concepts previously were re-provided as the abbreviations for other concepts. For instance, the abbreviation *db* was provided for *dilbilimi* (linguistics) in 2005 guide but in 2012 guide, it was provided for *dilbilgisi* (grammar). Another example for such modification is as follows:

tel was given as the abbreviation for telegram in 2000 guide but it was provided as the abbreviation for telephone in 2005 and 2012 guides.

When the orthography guides are examined, it can be observed that no explanation was offered about these modifications. Thus, educators, writers, journalists, and those who use the written language must be self-informed about these modifications. Therefore, some self-imposed rules are created. This becomes an ambiguity in the eyes of those teaching and learning Turkish language. Here are some suggested measures for preventing this:

1. Turkish Language Society must announce the

Table 1. Modified abbreviations are as follows:

	Date of Orthography Guides			
	1996	2000	2005	2012
ResearchAssistant (Araştırma Görevlisi)	<i>Ar. Gör.</i>	<i>Arş. Gör.</i>	<i>Arş. Gör.</i>	<i>Arş. Gör.</i>
Commander in chief (Başkomutan)	<i>BŞK.</i>	<i>BşK.</i>	-	-
Mr. (Bay)	<i>B.</i>	<i>B.</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>
Botany (Bitki bilimi)	<i>bitb.</i>	<i>bitb.</i>	<i>bitb.</i>	<i>Bit. b.</i>
Ambassador (Büyükelçi)	<i>B.E.</i>	<i>B.E.</i>	<i>BE</i>	<i>BE</i>
Volume (Cilt)	<i>C</i>	<i>C.</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>C</i>
Minute (Dakika)	<i>dk</i>	<i>dk</i>	<i>dk.</i>	<i>dk.</i>
Grammar (Dil bilgisi)	<i>dbl.</i>	<i>dbl.</i>	<i>dbl.</i>	<i>db.</i>
Linguistics (Dil bilimi)	<i>db.</i>	<i>db.</i>	<i>db.</i>	<i>dil. b.</i>
WarCollege (Harp Okulu)	<i>H.O.</i>	<i>H.O.</i>	<i>HO</i>	<i>HO</i>
Hospital (Hastane, hastanesi)	<i>Hst.</i>	<i>Hst.</i>	<i>Hst.</i>	<i>H</i>
Preparedby (Hazırlayan)	<i>hzl.</i>	<i>hzl.</i>	<i>hzl.</i>	<i>haz.</i>
Restricted (Hizmete özel)	<i>Hz. özl.</i>	<i>Hz. özl.</i>	<i>Hz. öz.</i>	<i>Hz. öz.</i>
Gendarmery (Jandarma)	<i>J.</i>	<i>J.</i>	<i>J</i>	<i>J</i>
Calory (Kalori)	-	-	<i>cal</i>	<i>kal</i>
Land ForcesCommand (Kara Kuvvetleri Kom.)	<i>K.K.K.</i>	<i>K.K.K.</i>	<i>KKK</i>	<i>KKK</i>
Latin (Latince)	<i>Lât.</i>	<i>Lât.</i>	<i>Lat.</i>	<i>Lat.</i>
Birth of Christ, Current (Milat, miladi)	<i>M.</i>	<i>M.</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>
BeforeChrist (Milattan önce)	<i>M.Ö.</i>	<i>M.Ö.</i>	<i>MÖ</i>	<i>MÖ</i>
AnnoDomini (Milattan sonra)	<i>M.S.</i>	<i>M.S.</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>MS</i>
Number (Numara)	<i>No. / Nr. / Nu</i>	<i>No. / Nr. / Nu</i>	<i>Nu.</i>	<i>No.</i>
OttomanTurkish (Osmanlı Türkçesi)	<i>Osm.</i>	<i>Osm.</i>	<i>Osm. T.</i>	<i>Osm. T.</i>
Mail Box (Posta kutusu)	<i>P.K.</i>	<i>P.K.</i>	<i>PK</i>	<i>PK</i>
Issue (Sayı)	<i>S.</i>	<i>S.</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>S</i>
Hour (Saat)	<i>sa</i>	<i>sa</i>	<i>sa.</i>	<i>sa.</i>
Second (Saniye)	<i>sn</i>	<i>sn</i>	<i>sn.</i>	<i>Sn.</i>
Company (Şirket)	<i>Ş.</i>	<i>Ş.</i>	<i>Ş</i>	<i>Ş</i>
Telephone (Telefon)	<i>tlf.</i>	<i>tlf.</i>	<i>tel.</i>	<i>tel.</i>
Telegram (Telgraf)	<i>tlg.</i>	<i>tel.</i>	<i>telg.</i>	<i>telg.</i>
Lieutenant (Üsteğmen)	<i>Üstğ.</i>	<i>Üstğ.</i>	<i>Ütğm.</i>	<i>Ütğm.</i>
AssistantProfessor (Yardımcı Doçent)	<i>Yard. Doç.</i>	<i>Yard. Doç.</i>	<i>Yrd. Doç.</i>	<i>Yrd. Doç.</i>
Master Architect (Yüksek Mimar)	<i>Yük. Mim.</i>	<i>Yük. Mim.</i>	<i>Y. Mim</i>	<i>Y. Mim</i>
CertifiedEngineer (Yüksek Mühendis)	<i>Yük. Müh.</i>	<i>Yük. Müh.</i>	<i>Y. Müh.</i>	<i>Y. Müh.</i>
Century (Yüzyıl)	<i>yy.</i>	<i>yy.</i>	<i>yy.</i>	<i>yy.</i>

modifications in orthography sooner for publishing houses, writers, universities and educators.

2. In order to provide unity in writing, the orthography guides prepared by private publishing houses must be audited by the Society. The spelling styles created by writers and publishing houses must be discontinued.

3. Turkish Language Society must include the modifications in orthography guides within a separate section and explain the reason for modifications. Thus, those who teach and learn our language will have the opportunity to understand and explain why the modifications are incorporated.

4. As indicated through the examples pertaining to *dilbilimi* (linguistics) and *dilbilgisi* (grammar), no modifi-

cations must be incorporated in the commonly used spellings of abbreviations.

5. For accurate use of Turkish language, educational programs must be provided through collaboration with TRT (state TV channel) and radio broadcasters.

Conflict of Interests

The author(s) have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Determination of media and television literacy levels of sport consumers filtered out of the students of the school of Physical Education And Sports

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This study is aimed to determine the literacy levels of media and television and the level of addiction of sport consumers filtered out of the students of the School of Physical Education and Sports and to investigate the relationship between these two levels. Sport consumers studying in Mugla University, School of Physical Education and Sports constitute the study group. "Media and Television Literacy Level Scale" was used in the research. The level of internal consistency is found by researchers in order to determine the reliability of the scale. The reliability coefficient for the dimension of the literacy of the scale was .73 and the dimension of addiction was .75. The scale was applied by researchers to 409 sport consumers who study in the School of Physical Education and Sports of Mugla Sitki Kocman University by using face-to-face interview method. Data were evaluated by use of SPSS 19 software package program and interpreted in the form of tables. As a result, 39.9% of sport consumers were found to be literate, 49.6% to be high-level media and television literate and 10.5% were found to be medium-level media and television literate. According to this result, the media and television literacy levels of sport consumers can be said to be high. An inverse relationship was found for scores of literacy and addiction that was examined in the first two parts and the scores of media and television literacy levels. The average literacy level of sport consumers was at a high level and the level of addiction was found to be low.

Key words: Media literacy, television literacy, addiction, sport consumer, student.

INTRODUCTION

The large number of people who follow sports has created the inability to remain insensitive to mass media. Nowadays, sports news is featured as separate television programs and special sports programs are made and broadcasted live. The large number of people who are interested in sports has resulted in giving importance to

sports-related television commercials (Unal, 2009). Media organizations can increase audience potential considerably by broadcasting specialized sports competitions live and the tendency of featuring these television programs increases. Credibility, attractiveness and power are required for an effective communication. These three

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characteristics of the source lead to changes in behaviors of recipients. These characteristics affect the behaviors of recipients as a result of three different characteristics of recipient psychology. Credibility is described with internalization, attractiveness with identification and power with compliance. Another factor affecting the credibility of the source is the information and experience that source has about the product and service advertised. A real bond has to exist between the people giving the message and product or service for the message to be credible (Terence, 1989; Gençer, 2001; Goknar, 2001). Every effort aimed at researching and examining dynamics of sports marketing components should reveal what marketing components are by considering the perspectives of consumers (Yalcin et al., 2004). Understanding profiles and behaviors of sport consumers is extremely important from the viewpoint of sports administrators and sports marketers (Yuktasir et al., 2004). Sport consumer may be dealt and handled as individuals who consume sports-related products and services with an overall perspective. Sport consumers can be classified under two main groups: Practitioners (active participants) and audience (passive participants). Passive participant can consume a sports event where it occurs (stadium, indoor sports hall, gymnasium etc.) as well as through mass media (newspaper, TV, radio etc.). Sports-related consumer behavior examines the decisions of sport consumers to purchase and use sports-related products, the activities related with these products and services and decision-making processes determining the activities related (Katirci and Argan, 2012). The field of consumer behaviors within the scope of the marketing management examines how individuals, groups and organizations choose products, services, opinions or experiences in order to satisfy their needs, requests and desires and how they purchase and use and dispose them (Kotler and Armstrong, 1989). Personality is the pattern of whole rooted behaviors, thoughts and feelings that emerge as the result of individual's social experiences, developments and structural features; it constitutes individual's mode of adaptation to his life style (Aksoy et al., 2011). The need to be informed and self-renewal throughout life leads people to diversify their areas of interest and exploration of new learning environments. Media is found in effective and impressive positions not as information source but in aspects of entertaining, educational and various ways since it can reach to everybody at various levels including both old and young people (Onal, 2007). One of the most important issues that may help people to analyze and have out the benefits of media is media literacy (Alagozlu, 2009). Media literacy can be defined as finding, using, accepting and determining written sources in order to develop the information and potential of students and allow them to participate in the community more effectively and make them contribute (Gunes and Gokcek, 2013). Media literacy has also other definitions although it expresses and means concepts such as analysis, synthesis, evaluation, implementation and production

(Blevins, 2004).

Media literacy is "the media exposure and interpretation of meanings of messages" according to Potter (2005). Media literacy has developed in United States of America since 1932 and in Austria, Belgium, France, Japan, England, Spain, Switzerland, Italy and Canada after the 1970s with developed skill courses (Onal, 2007). However, media literacy education has developed in the world after the 1970s (Mora, 2008). Development in media literacy took place in Turkey after the year 2004, although it has been very important especially in Western countries in the last thirty years (Altun, 2009). Media literacy can be defined as reaching, analyzing, evaluating and sending messages in written and unwritten, very large variety of formats (television, videos, movies, television commercials, advertisements, internet, etc.) (Rustu and Yesil, 2011; Manzo, 2007). Inceoglu (2006) defined media literacy as accessing, analyzing, evaluation and communication skills of people to messages in written and non-written formats (television, videos, movies, television commercials, advertisements, internet, etc.). Media literacy can be defined as reaching, analyzing, evaluating and sending messages in written and unwritten, very large variety of formats (Hobbs, 2004). Media literacy consists of two functions. The first one is the ability of individual to evaluate and filter messages received from the media with a critical perspective and the other is a concept including the ability of an individual to acquire recognize and use the media in a way to create his/her own individual messages (Pekman, 2006). Individuals analyze the media consciously; express themselves easily and participate in social life actively and constructively. Due to media literacy, they perceive the media messages in a correct and accurate way and gain skills of creating their own messages in time (Korkmaz and Yesil, 2008).

Individuals' gained behaviors such as choosing appropriate TV programs in order to use television as an educational tool and information source, judging the time spent in front of television, using television based on personal reasons and being aware of ethical rules and complying with them have great importance (Yesil and Korkmaz, 2008).

This study aims to determine the media and television literacy levels and the addiction levels of sport consumers as well as to investigate and examine the relationship between these two levels.

METHODS

Research group includes sport consumers studying in the School of Physical Education and Sports in Mugla University. "Media and Television Literacy Levels Scale" developed by Korkmaz and Yesil (2011) was used in this study. Its validity and reliability was carried out by the researcher. The scale is composed of two dimensions: "literacy" including 13 items and "addiction" including 5 items. In the research, the margin of error was determined (α) = 0.005, the tolerance level (d) = 0.05, the number of persons included in the population (N) = 850, and the sample size (n) = 409. The

researcher conducted 500 questionnaires by face-to-face interview on the students selected among the sport consumers. 409 questionnaire forms were determined valid and evaluated. Of the evaluated forms, 250 belonged to male students (77 from the department of Sport Management, 56 from the Physical Education and Sports Teaching, 78 from the Coaching Education and 39 from the Recreation) and 159 belonged to female students (45 from the department of Sport Management, 41 from the Physical Education and Sports Teaching, 44 from the Coaching Education and 29 from the Recreation).

Kaizer-Mayer-Oklin (KMO) and Bartlett test analyses were conducted to determine the construct validity. KMO was determined as 0.788; Bartlett test value $\chi^2 = 813.003$ and the degree of freedom was 78. Its suitability for factor analysis was tested in accordance with these figures. Internal consistency level was determined to set forth the reliability of the scale. Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was considered for determining internal consistency level. Media and television literacy levels were determined in accordance with the below-mentioned instruction. Correlation between the media and television addiction and the television literacy were examined. Considering the correlation coefficient, our data are not normally distributed; thus Spearman Correlation value was regarded. It was determined as -0.225.

Media and Television Literacy Levels Scale is a five-point Likert type scale including 18 items under two factors. The answers to these items are as follows: (1) Never, (2) Rarely, (3) Sometimes, (4) Often, and (5) Always. Students' scores derived from the five-point Likert type scale are not standard due to the differences in item numbers of factors. Thus, the raw scores were changed into standard scores that are minimum 20 and maximum 100. The levels corresponding to the scores derived from the literacy dimension were determined as follows:

20-35: Very Low-Level Literacy
36-51: Low-Level Literacy
52-67: Medium-Level Literacy
68-83: High-Level Literacy
84-100: Very High-Level Literacy

The scores derived from the addiction dimension are also distributed similarly. However, literacy and addiction are inversely proportional. An individual with a high-level of literacy is likely to have a low-level of addiction. High addiction scores means an individual has a high-level of addiction and thus low-level of literacy (Yesil and Korkmaz, 2008). In data analysis, score intervals were determined as follows since students' responses to the five-point Likert type scale were used:

1.00-1.79 Never	} (5-4/5=0.80)
1.80-2.59 Rarely	
2.60-3.39 Sometimes	
3.40-4.19 Often	
4.20-5.00 Always	

The average scores calculated based on the students' responses were explained in pursuant to the above-mentioned levels. Significance level was set at .05 for testing the significance of differences and correlations.

FINDINGS

Media and television literacy levels' Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was 0.73 and media and television addiction internal reliability was 0.75.

56.2% of participants answered *often* dimension (Table

1) of the media and television literacy questionnaire as "I know the characteristics of TV channels in our country and the factors determining their broadcasting policies". On the other hand, 0.5 % of them answered (never) this dimension as "I know my TV watching habits and I can control them".

The mean value of media and television addiction level was determined as 2.08. 70.9% of participants answered (never) dimension of addiction questionnaire as "I feel uncomfortable, unhappy or angry when I cannot watch TV". On the other hand, 3.2% of them answered (always) this dimension as "I set back my social relations, education or other duties since I spare plenty of time for television" (Table 2).

All average scores of distribution for media and television literacy levels are given in Table 3. As it seen, high average score was the answer of "I know the meanings of smart signs showing the suitability of TV programs for children or adults that are displayed just before the programs".

Male and female Sports Consumers' media and television addiction levels were found as $\bar{X} = 2,08$. Furthermore, all participants' media and television addiction levels were lower level (Table 4).

There was no statistically significant difference in media and television literacy levels between male and female sports consumers. Moreover, all participants had higher degree in media and television literacy levels ($\bar{X} = 4.01$) (Table 5).

Table 6 shows that there was no significant difference in media and television literacy levels between departments of School of Physical Education and Sports and gender.

There was no significant difference in media and television addiction levels between departments of School of Physical Education and Sports and gender (Table 7).

There was a negative correlation between media and television literacy and addiction levels of sport consumers ($p < 0,05$). Spearman correlation value was determined as -0.225 (Table 8).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study was conducted to determine the media and television literacy and addiction levels of sport consumers who are students of the School of Physical Education and Sports and to research the relationship between these levels. 39.9% of students were found to be literate, 49.6% to be high-level media and television literate and 10.5% were found to be medium-level media and television literate. According to this table, media and television literacy levels of sport consumers can be said to be extremely high.

Potter (2005) describes media literacy as a series of viewpoints or perspectives used to interpret the meanings of messages encountered. According to this result, sport

Table 1. Distribution of answers given to the media and television literacy dimension.

Literacy	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
I think media works for the benefit of some people and excludes some others.	.5%	4.4%	21.5%	43.8%	29.8%
I know the intended and resultant effects of the techniques used in media for creating emotional influences.	0.0%	1.7%	11.7%	56.2%	30.3%
I know the characteristics of TV channels in our country and the factors determining their broadcasting policies.	.2%	2.4%	16.6%	50.6%	30.1%
I think special techniques are used in media for creating emotional influences.	.2%	4.6%	12.5%	37.4%	45.2%
I can distinguish TV shows by their objectives, functions and characteristics.	2.0%	4.2%	12.0%	34.5%	47.4%
I question who benefit from the media and who is excluded and why.	3.4%	17.4%	35.2%	26.7%	17.4%
I think the opinions, information and news in media are broadcasted from someone else's point of view.	.7%	4.9%	21.0%	46.5%	26.9%
I know the meanings of smart signs showing the suitability of TV programs for children or adults that are displayed just before the programs.	1.2%	6.1%	10.5%	20.5%	61.6%
I examined and evaluated the TV programs by content, reality, fictiveness, consumption targeting and misinformation.	2.7%	15.6%	31.3%	34.0%	16.4%
I think television is an effective media in shaping individuals and society.	1.5%	3.2%	10.3%	30.8%	54.3%
I search for and use other sources of information and amusement alternative to the media.	.7%	3.9%	14.4%	38.1%	42.8%
I know my TV watching habits and I can control them.	.5%	3.9%	12.2%	43.3%	40.1%
I define the potential problems of TV broadcasts and take measures to get protected from them.	2.0%	7.3%	27.9%	41.1%	21.8%

Table 2. Distribution of answers given to the media and television addiction dimension.

Addiction	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %
I set back my social relations, education or other duties since I spare plenty of time for television.	54.3%	25.9%	11.2%	5.4%	3.2%
I use television for evading issues or for suppressing depression, anxiety, responsibility or desperation.	20.5%	30.8%	25.2%	16.9%	6.6%
I look forward to watch TV when I think of TV programs.	27.4%	30.8%	25.9%	12.0%	3.9%
I feel uncomfortable, unhappy or angry when I cannot watch TV.	70.9%	16.1%	7.6%	4.9%	.5%
I spend much more time watching TV than I intended.	30.1%	28.1%	31.1%	7.8%	2.9%

consumers in our sample group can be said to have a perspective focus on the definition of media literacy and skill of creating personal meaning. Today, while information technologies lead to social transformation, media literacy emerges as an important life skill in terms of people to be aware of factors affecting themselves, other communities and cultures (Deveci and Cengelci, 2008). Due to the fact that these skills of sport consumers have been known less, a marketing effort towards themselves has a great importance.

We can say that there is an inverse relationship between the scores of media and television literacy levels

(literacy and addiction) of the participants as a result of the examination in two sections. The average literacy level of students was found at high level ($\bar{X}=4.01$) and the addiction level of them was found at low level ($\bar{X}=2.08$). A negative relationship was found between literacy and addiction considering the relationship between them ($p<0.05$). Average literacy levels of consumers were found at high-level and addiction levels at low-level. The scores derived from the addiction dimension are also distributed similarly. However, literacy and addiction are inversely proportional. An individual with a high-level of literacy is likely to have a low-level of addiction. High

Table 3. Average score distribution for media and television literacy levels.

	N	Average	Standard Deviation
I think media works for the benefit of some people and excludes some others.	409	3.9804	.85727
I know the intended and resultant effects of the techniques used in media for creating emotional influences.	409	4.1516	.68349
I know the characteristics of TV channels in our country and the factors determining their broadcasting policies.	409	4.0782	.76295
I think special techniques are used in media for creating emotional influences.	409	4.2274	.85728
I can distinguish TV shows by their objectives, functions and characteristics.	409	4.2127	.94518
I question who benefit from the media and who is excluded and why.	409	3.3716	1.06586
I think the opinions, information and news in media are broadcasted from someone else's point of view.	409	3.9389	.85959
I know the meanings of smart signs showing the suitability of TV programs for children or adults that are displayed just before the programs.	409	4.3521	.97682
I examined and evaluated the TV programs by content, reality, fictiveness, consumption targeting and misinformation.	409	3.4572	1.02601
I think television is an effective media in shaping individuals and society.	409	4.3325	.89220
I search for and use other sources of information and amusement alternative to the media.	409	4.1834	.87342
I know my TV watching habits and I can control them.	409	4.1858	.83119
I define the potential problems of TV broadcasts and take measures to get protected from them.	409	3.7335	.94707

Table 4. Average score distribution for media and television addiction levels.

	N	Average	Standard deviation
I set back my social relations, education or other duties since I spare plenty of time to television.	409	1.7726	1.05237
I use television for evading the issues or for suppressing depression, anxiety, responsibility or desperation.	409	2.5819	1.17938
I look forward to watch TV when I think of the TV programs.	409	2.3423	1.11812
I feel uncomfortable, unhappy or angry when I cannot watch TV.	409	1.4792	.86895
I spend much more time watching TV than I intended.	409	2.2543	1.06130

addiction scores means an individual has a high-level of addiction and thus low-level of literacy (Yesil and Korkmaz, 2008).

The study titled "Opinions of teacher candidates on television addiction, literacy levels and instructiveness" conducted by Yesil and Korkmaz (2008) shows so close similarity with our study conducted about the relationship between media addiction and television addiction and media literacy and television literacy.

Increasing and improving role of television in social life as the most popular and common mass communication media tool lead to the results of this effect to be questioned. The average of watching television for our country is 4 to 5 hours per day according to the scientific research conducted in Turkey. A single person spends 19% of the year by watching television. Taking into account that a single person spends 33% of the year by sleeping and 33% of the year by working and 14% by

activities out of the first two, that rate has been considered to be quite high. This situation means that the time remaining for vital activities is consumed by watching television (Altun, 2009). In addition, it is inevitable that internet literacy will bring many problems along with it while internet shows its rapid and quick impact in many areas.

Media may distort, twist, exaggerate and hide the facts and even changes the form of the facts in order to create more market share, direct political powers and increase advertising revenues. Everything you see in the media may not be an exact reflection of the reality (Sahin and Tuzel, 2011). No matter how much the media has constructed its messages ruthlessly and aggressively, individuals who have reached the level of cognitive awareness in the issue of media will be able to have the competence to analyze and process the backgrounds of these messages (Sahin and Tuzel, 2011). Sport

Table 5. Distribution of scores of the male and female concerning media and television literacy levels.

	Literacy Level										N	Chi-square	p value
	Illiterate		Low-Level		Medium-Level		High-Level		Literate				
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			
Female	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	12	7.5%	79	49.7%	68	42.8%	159	2.73	0,26
Male	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	31	12.4%	124	49.6%	95	38.0%	250		

Table 6. Distribution of scores of the male and female concerning media and television literacy levels according to participants' departments.

		Literacy										N	Chi-square	p value
		Illiterate		Low-Level		Medium-Level		High-Level		Literate				
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			
Management	Female	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	2.2%	14	31.1%	30	66.7%	122	5.35	0.07
	Male	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	7	9.1%	34	44.2%	36	46.8%			
Teaching	Female	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	6	14.6%	19	46.3%	16	39.0%	97	0.51	0.77
	Male	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	10	17.9%	22	39.3%	24	42.9%			
Coaching	Female	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	2	4.5%	30	68.2%	12	27.3%	122	2.92	0.23
	Male	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	11	14.1%	45	57.7%	22	28.2%			
Recreation	Female	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	3	10.3%	16	55.2%	10	34.5%	68	0.18	0.91
	Male	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	3	7.7%	23	59.0%	13	33.3%			

Table 7. Distribution of scores of the male and female concerning media and television addiction.

		Addiction										N	Chi-square	p value
		Highly non-addicted		Non-addicted		Neutral		Addicted		Highly addicted				
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			
Management	Female	30	66.7%	12	26.7%	3	6.7%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	122	3.07	0.38
	Male	41	53.2%	29	37.7%	5	6.5%	2	2.6%	0	0.0%			
Teaching	Female	21	51.2%	16	39.0%	2	4.9%	2	4.9%	0	0.0%	97	4.36	0.36
	Male	26	46.4%	19	33.9%	9	16.1%	1	1.8%	1	1.8%			
Coaching	Female	13	29.5%	22	50.0%	4	9.1%	4	9.1%	1	2.3%	122	8.50	0.07
	Male	33	42.3%	23	29.5%	16	20.5%	6	7.7%	0	0.0%			
Recreation	Female	10	34.5%	12	41.4%	7	24.1%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	68	3.78	0.44
	Male	14	35.9%	10	25.6%	12	30.8%	2	5.1%	1	2.6%			

consumers who are effective read and evaluate the media in a conscious way. Although a consumer is a conscious media literate, s/he may be affected through the mass media negatively. Mass media tools that are supposed to provide solutions to violence in sports and educate and direct the audience lead to a number of ethical problems by ignoring public broadcasting and acting only to get more profit and income (Karagun, 2011).

Ilhan and Zafer (2011) expressed as a result of their

studies that 76.2% of sports columnists have an opinion that sport media is effective in encouraging and inciting violence and 11.9% of them think that media has not got any kind of effect in this issue and 57.1% of the participants have an opinion that media is accused of encouraging and inciting violence because it reflects the statements or explanations of club managers to readers and viewers directly.

From past to present, both sports have influence on

Table 8. Distribution of correlation between the media and television literacy and addiction of participants

		Addiction Interval					Total
		Highly non-addicted	Non-addicted	Neutral	Addicted	Highly addicted	
Literacy Level	Medium-Level	16	8	18	1	0	43
	High-Level	80	78	29	13	3	203
	Literate	92	57	11	3	0	163
Total		188	143	58	17	3	409

media as well as the media on sports. Especially, the mass media has a great role in that position where sports have become a social phenomenon all over the world and at the same time, the majority who have no opportunity to do sports, have become interested in sports due to the mass media (Ozturk, 1998; Unsal and Ramazanoglu, 2013). Fedorov (2003) found as a result of his study conducted on 26 media literacy and media training specialists from 10 different countries in order to learn what the aim and purpose of media literacy is in their opinions that 84.2% of the specialists described and characterized media literacy as developing critical thinking skills of individuals, 68.8% as developing individuals' skills of understanding and evaluating media statements and 61.8% as preparing individual to create a democratic society. Increasing media and television literacy levels of especially sport consumers and society have importance in order to increase sports awareness. Kincal (2007) states as a result of his study that teacher candidates submit their reactions or criticisms about positive or negative messages in the media to the relevant institutions at a very low level and remain indifferent and unconcerned against the media in general (Kincal, 2007). Sports-oriented publications with negative content create so much information pollution in the media. Increasing awareness of sport consumers to response official institutions against negativities in the media about especially sports-related issues will contribute to the formation of conscious consumers. As a result of the study titled "Research of community attitudes in the issue of effect of community leaders and the media on dissemination and generalization of sports" that was conducted by Unal et al. (2009), it was found that sports media cannot raise the awareness of community and public adequately and expectations from the media, community leaders, government and private sector are high in this issue (Unal, 2009). Sports media that can contribute greatly to the formation of sports to be a very common social phenomenon to be inflated with simple, fluctuating and marginalizing news by cutting corners is a very big and major social loss (Yetim, 2005). Efforts which will carry much more information and skills about media analysis and production to a wider variety and diversity of media by reaching much more educators, children and young people through well-organized programs, activities and educational experiences are

required (Hobbs, 2004). Nowadays, responsibilities in the issue of transformation and converting the society into healthy, livable, reliable and safe environments are being shared. Media literacy integrating with information sources and services from past to the future, will provide a hopeful look for the future by teaching "all of us" the accurate, conscious, efficient and effective use of information and knowing what we are looking for in life and the future (Onal, 2007).

Consequently, sport consumers selected from the students of the School of Physical Education and Sports were found to have high media television literacy levels; and it has also been found that there is an inverse relationship between their media and television literacy and addiction and their average literacy level is at high-level and addiction level is at low-level.

Conflict of Interests

The author have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

School violence in secondary education in the governorate of Mafrq: Forms, causes and prevention- a case study

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This study considers school violence. It was investigated in secondary schools in the governorate of Mafrq. The aim is to identify the forms and causes of the phenomenon; hence to come out with the preventive and remedial measures, accordingly. The study was conducted in one of the secondary schools selected randomly in the city of Mafrq in the academic year 2013/2014. To achieve the objectives of the study, the researcher used a qualitative case study methodology, drawing on the grounded theory model. The rationale of adopting this method was to generate forms, causes, and ways of preventing school violence as grounded in the data. Data were gathered through observations, interviews and documents. These data were broken down into themes. Themes were then grouped into categories. Common themes were then grouped together and links between them were identified. Both environmental factors and personal factors emerged as causes of school violence. Physical, and moral violence were found to be forms of this violence. The results showed that reducing and/or preventing school violence is a complex process which requires comprehensive educational programs for all parties involved in the educational course. In light of the study results, the researcher proposed some preventive and remedial measures for the phenomenon.

Key words: School violence, forms of violence, causes of violence, methods of prevention.

INTRODUCTION

This paper considers the phenomenon of violence in schools, which, nowadays, is often viewed in terms of being as much of a public health concern issues-smoking, heart disease, cancer, and infectious diseases (Lapidus and Braddock, 1996). The words 'school' and 'violence' have become two terms which are so often paired together. As stated in Wikipedia, "School violence is

widely held to have become a serious problem in recent decades in many countries, especially where weapons such as guns or knives are involved. It includes violence between school students as well as physical attacks by students on school staff. [Http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/School_violence](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/School_violence).

Violence is as old as man is; it started, as stated in

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religious prescriptions at the earliest period of human existence, when Adam's son, Cain, murdered his brother Abel. Since then, violence has come to be a phenomenal aspect of people's life. It happens at homes, in streets, workplaces, hospitals, and schools. And because it has no barriers, this behavior continues to be a major global concern: its impact spans the entire world and there is hardly any country today that has escaped from its grip.

Jordan, like other countries is affected by the problem of school violence. In Jordan (unlike what was the case in the past decades when we only hear about violence in schools once in a while) frequent occurrence of violence in schools has become more common in recent years (Owydat and Hamdi, 1997). In almost every school in Jordan, there is some form or act of violence, particularly, in secondary schools. This problem does not only affect the school and the students who practice or experience it, but it extends to the society, per se. Research findings indicate that students who experience or witness violence at school are more likely to perpetuate violent behaviors outside school, and are more likely to become criminals (Taub, 2002; Stein et al., 2003).

Furthermore, students exposed to violence are at high risk for experiencing a range of psychological problems, including developmental disturbance, impaired moral development, substance abuse, and reduced academic performance (Bandura, 1986; Pynoos et al., 1995; Saigh et al., 1997; Kilpatrick et al., 2000; Flannery et al., 2001; Goleman, 2006). This state of affairs necessitates (and with immediacy) addressing this problem if we want a society that is secure, safe and violence-free.

If we want to do something about this problem and reach to viable, preventive and effective ways that decrease violent acts in schools, then we need to understand the forms and causes of violence in schools. If these are identified, it would be easier to reduce – or even eliminate – the problem, and then the society would become safer and violence-free. It is worth mentioning that violence in schools is classified mainly into two types: school violence by principals and teachers and school violence by students. Also, it is worth noting that school violence is not unidirectional: it may originate outside, but occur inside the school; it may derive and happen in the school; and it may begin in the school but end outside of it (Capozzoli and McVey, 2000).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In the literature review, there are various perspectives of the concept of violence. Most of these perspectives share similar ideas, however. Violence, in a wider sense, refers to the use or threat of physical force with the intent of causing physical injury, damage, discomfort, or intimidation of another person. It also includes verbal and psychological abuse as well (Straus, 1991; Reiss and

Roth, 1993; Aronson, 1999; Nevid, 2003; Smith et al., 2003). According to Yahya (2001), there are five basic criteria by which violence can be identified, and these are: type of behavior, strength of behavior, degree of pain, characteristics of the actor or perpetrator of violence, and his or her intentions.

The World Health Organization (as cited in Krug et al., 2002, p. 4) defined violence as: "*The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation*" According to Reiss and Roth (1993, p. 2), violence refers to behaviors by individuals that intentionally threaten, attempt, or inflict physical harm on others. It is worth noting here that when we talk about violence, we include aggression as well. That is to say, any act whether physical or verbal that has the intent to or the consequences of inflicting harm to others (whether physically or psychologically) is considered to be a violent or an aggressive act (Davies, 1970; Berkowitz, 1993; Feshbach, 1994).

According to Moyer (1968), aggression is divided into seven types or forms representing seven stimulus situations, which trigger the aggressive behavior:

Predatory aggression, stimulated by the presence of a natural object of prey. In this type of aggression the predator attacks its prey, in order to obtain food.

Inter-male aggression, stimulated by the presence of a novel male conspecific in a neutral arena. This form of aggression occurs because of competition between males, for sources such as control, dominance, status, and female ... etc.

Fear-induced aggression stimulated by threats and always is preceded by escape attempts. This form of aggression is accompanied by fear and usually when escape is not possible; may be associated with previous unpleasant experiences.

Irritable aggression, stimulated by the presence of any attachable object. The tendency to display irritable aggression is enhanced by any stressor, such as isolation, electrical shock, and food deprivation.

Territorial aggression, stimulated by the presence of an intruder in the home or territory of a resident. In this form of aggression the aggressive behaviors of an individual or a group are directed toward the defense of their area against entry by others.

Maternal aggression, which stimulated by a threatening stimulus in the proximity of the mother's young.

Instrumental aggression, which is stimulated by any of the situations already described, but strengthened by learning.

It appears that there is a conscience among scholars towards classifying violence into two main forms: the

hostile revenge violence, which is directed towards enemies, and is referred to as the emotional violence, and the procedural violence, which is directed towards the achieving of certain goals. Research results indicated that individuals who have a tendency toward the revenge violence are individuals who are less intelligent than those who have a tendency towards procedural violence (Behar et al., 1990; Berkowitz, 1993). Other forms of violence can be listed under these two main forms, and these include:

Psychological violence, any behaviour that is psychologically harmful. It includes verbal attacks, threats, taunts, slugging, mocking, yelling, exclusion, humiliation, constant belittling, and malicious rumours (Krug et al., 2002; Banat, 2008). This form of violence is very common in rich and poor communities alike. However, the law does not recognize this type of violence, and it is not punishable because it is difficult to be measured and controlled (Al-Awawdeh, 1998).

Physical violence, intentional use of physical force with the potential for causing death, disability, injury, or harm. This type of violence might involve beating, pushing, shoving, shaking, punching, kicking, squeezing, burning, scratching, slapping, poking, hair-pulling, and use of restraints or one's body, size, or strength against another person. (Basile and Saltzman, 2002, p. 12).

Social violence which results when individuals are engaged in violent activities or antisocial behaviors at a group. This would include violence associated with riots, revolutions, and gang warfare (North et al., 2009). It would also include the denial of others' practising their personal and social rights (Rashwan, 2003; Krug et al., 2002).

Sexual violence, which denotes any sexual act that is perpetrated against someone's will. It encompasses a range of offenses, including a completed nonconsensual sex act (that is, rape), an attempted nonconsensual sex act, abusive sexual contact (that is, unwanted touching), and non-contact sexual abuse (e.g., threatened sexual violence, exhibitionism, verbal sexual harassment) (Basile and Saltzman, 2002, p. 9).

The interpretation of violence has been recognized by two opposing views. More particularly, two differing opinions with regard to whether violence is an instinctual or a learned behavior have emerged. For some, violence is genetically inherited. That is to say, humans are violent in nature, that is, are born with aggressive instincts, and as such, act violently in life in order to achieve their goals, or to release their feelings of aggression. For others, however, violence is environmentally learned, a cultural response, not a human instinct. It could be learned in many diverse ways, through observation, imitation or reinforcement, and as such, the exposure to violence encourages and teaches humans to become violent.

Hence, several different theories have tried to explain

violence in humans, and these theories include:

Theories of Violence as a Motive: There are many theories that view violence as one of the motives that drive behavior, and these theories include the psychoanalytic theory, which suggests that human behavior is governed by two basic motives: sex and aggression. Likewise, the ethological theories suggest that violence is a motive that has adaptive functions that increase the chances of the survival of an organism (Smith et al. 2003; Geen, 1998).

Biological Theories: The emotional arousal reactions such as anger, or tension cause qualitative reactions at the level of the nerves, or at the level of endocrine. Therefore, any act of violence which results in a change in heart rate, blood circulation, or secretions of the glands will make the individual realize the reaction after it has moved to the brain through the nervous system, and the reaction makes this psychological state (Ellsworth, 1994; Al-Awawdeh, 1998).

Theories of Violence as a Learned Response: In contrast to previous theories, these theories of violence maintain that the violent behavior in humans is a complex behavior. It cannot be acknowledged as a motive, neither it can be recognized as being biologically programmed into human nature (O'Leary, 1988; Nevid, 2003).

There are many diverse causes and factors that promote violence, including those related to the individual himself / herself, the society and the surrounding environment. These causes and factors include:

Social Factors: Some studies show that some societies encourage violence, while others do not, and some societies encourage a particular form of violence such as physical violence, while others encourage another form such as verbal violence (Catalano et al., 1993).

Media: Many studies have shown that watching television violent movies and shows that contain violence increase aggression and destructive behaviors among children and adolescents, as well (Hepburn, 2001; Huesmann, 2007).

Situational Factors: Alcohol and drugs, for example, are major factors that increase violence. Studies have shown that people who drink and who use drugs are more likely to become violent or act violently because they will not be held accountable for what they do (Giancola and Zeichner, 1997; Krug et al., 2002).

Emotional Frustration: increases violence, that is to say, when people are unable to satisfy their desires or accomplish their goals, they tend to behave violently against who or what prevents them from satisfying those desires and achieving those goals (Smith et al., 2003).

Sex, that is, It seems that there is a general agreement among researchers that males, whether human beings or animals are more aggressive than females (Crick and Jrotpetter, 1995; Salmivalli and Kaukiainen, 2004). This is

especially true when talking about physical violence. Males tend to express their violence physically, while females tend to express their violence verbally (Butovskaya et al., 2007).

Behavioral disturbance is considered as a cause for violence. That is to say, people who have behavioral disturbances or disorders tend to exhibit violent acts because of their inability to communicate either verbally or physically with others in ways that are appropriate and acceptable, or because of their feelings of unhappiness and depression (Nevid, 2003).

Berkowitz and Benbenishty (2012) have conducted a study to examine the distribution of the types of involvement in school violence (bullies, victims, bully-victims, and students not involved in violence) among the general population of Israeli school students. The prevalence of these different types of involvement was also examined according to gender, age or school level (junior high vs. high school), and ethnicity (Jewish vs. Arab).

Further, the study examines the relationships between type of involvement in school violence and students' perceptions of teachers' support, safety, and absence from school because of fear. Data were obtained from a nationally representative, stratified sample of 13,262 students in grades 7-11 who responded to a self-report questionnaire on victimization by, and perpetration of, school violence and on perceptions of school climate. Data revealed that 3.6% of all students were victims of bullying (18.5% of those involved in violence). The proportion of bully-victims among male students was 6.4% (21.9% of all involved) compared with 1.1% (11.2% of all involved) among females. Bully-victims reported the lowest levels of teacher support and feelings of security and missed school because of fear significantly more often. The results point to the uniqueness of the bully-victim group. This group presents multiple challenges for school staff with these students needing special attention.

In their study, Johnson et al. (2011) tried to identify the relative importance of various characteristics of the school environment or their differential impact on multiple violence outcomes. Twenty-seven (27) students from Baltimore City high schools participated in concept mapping sessions, which produced interpretable maps of the school environment's contribution to school violence. Participants generated statements about their school environment's influence on school violence and, with the assistance of quantitative methods; these statements were grouped according to their similarity. The subjects also, provided information about the importance of each of these statements for the initiation, cessation, and severity of the violence that occurs at school. The results of the study indicated that more than half of the 132 statements generated by students were rated as school environment characteristics highly important for the initiation, cessation, and/or severity of school violence. In

addition, the results indicated that students' own actions, expectations for disruptive behavior, and the environment outside the school were the most important characteristics for the initiation and increased severity of violence that occurs in school. This study provides support from students for the role of the school environment in school violence prevention, particularly in preventing the initiation and reducing the severity of school violence.

Blosnich and Bossarte (2011) conducted a study to explore whether school safety measures (e.g. security guards, cameras, ID badges) were associated with student reports of different forms of peer victimization related to school bullying. In this study, data came from the 2007 School Crime Supplement of the National Crime Victimization Survey. Quantitative methods were used to analyze the data. Chi-square tests of independence were used to examine differences among categorical variables. Logistic regression models were constructed for the peer victimization outcomes. A count variable was constructed among the bullying outcomes with which a Poisson regression model was constructed to analyze school safety measures' impacts on degree of victimization. Of the various school safety measures, only having adults in hallways resulted in a significant reduction in odds of being physically bullied, having property vandalized, or having rumors spread. In terms of degree of victimization, having adults and/or staff supervising hallways was associated with an approximate 26% decrease in students experiencing an additional form of peer victimization. Results indicated that school safety measures overall were not associated with decreased reports of low-level violent behaviors related to bullying.

Johnson (2009) conducted a qualitative study to identify the mechanisms by which the school environment determines the likelihood of school violence. Twenty-five articles that attempted to understand the influence of either the school social or physical environment in determining teacher and students' perceptions of safety and experiences of violence were included in this study. Most of the articles included were cross-sectional surveys of junior high or high school students and staff. As articles used different measures of the school physical and social environment, a special classification system was created. Using this system, studies show that schools with less violence tend to have students who are aware of school rules and believe they are fair, have positive relationships with their teachers, feel that they have ownership in their school, feel that they are in a classroom and school environment that is positive and focused on learning, and in an environment that is orderly.

Al-Harbi (2009) conducted a study to explore the relationship between personality factors, parenting styles and school violence among a sample of 550 students in Al Mafraq city in Jordan. The results indicated that males were more violent than females, and that physical violence was the most common form of violence used by

the sample of the study. Also, the results indicated that conscientiousness, openness, authoritarianism, and permissiveness were the most related factors to school violence.

In their study, Taylor et al. (2007) attempted to explore the relation between academic self-concept, self-esteem, and aggression at school. Their data included self-reported academic self-concept, school-reported academic performance, and parent-reported school discipline from a racially diverse sample of middle-school students. Results revealed that, in general, students with low self-concept in achievement domains are more likely to aggress at school than those with high self-concept. However, there is a small sample of youths who, when they receive contradictory information that threatens their reported self-concept, do aggress. Global self-esteem was not found to be predictive of aggression.

Patchin et al. (2006) studied the relationship between exposure to community violence and involvement in assaultive behavior and weapon carrying among a sample of at-risk youth. The study findings demonstrated a connection between controlling for the effects of neighborhood disadvantage and other common correlates of delinquency (e.g., family supervision and structure, school attachment, and peer delinquency): youths who witnessed more violence in their neighborhoods were more likely to self-report assaultive behavior and weapon carrying.

In Saudi Arabia, Al Ershood (2002) conducted a study on 1086 male students from 12 secondary schools in the city of Riyadh to investigate their attitudes towards school violence. The results of the study revealed that there were various factors that lead to students' positive attitudes towards violence, including family and school-related factors. Also, the results indicated that watching violent movies makes students more aggressive. In addition, the results revealed that there were significant differences in students' attitudes towards violence due to difference in grade level, age, and mothers' educational level.

Flannery et al. (2001) conducted a study to examine violence exposure, violent behaviors, psychological trauma, and suicide risk in a community sample of dangerously violent adolescents by comparison with a matched community sample of nonviolent adolescents. Anonymous self-report questionnaires were administered to 3735 students in grades 9 through 12 in six public high schools located in Ohio and Colorado. From this sample, 484 adolescents (349 males and 135 females) who reported attacking someone with a knife or shooting at someone within the past year (that is, dangerously violent adolescents) were drawn. Four hundred eighty-four controls were also selected and matched on gender, age in years, ethnicity, area of residence, and family structure. The study revealed that dangerously violent adolescents reported higher levels of exposure to violence and victimization than did matched controls. Dangerously violent females were more likely to score in the clinical

range of depression, anxiety, posttraumatic stress, anger, and dissociation than were control females and violent males; they also had significantly higher levels of suicide potential.

In Jordan, Alia (2001) conducted a study to investigate the effect of school violence on anxiety and school adjustment. The sample of the study consisted of 245 students divided into two groups: the first one represents those who were exposed to teachers' violence, while the second represents those who were not exposed to teachers' violence. The results of the study revealed that there were significant differences among victims and non-victims in the level of anxiety in favor of victims. Furthermore, the results indicated that there were gender differences in anxiety; females exhibited more anxiety than their counterparts. In addition, the results pointed out that there were significant differences among victims and non-victims in school adjustment in favor of non-victims.

Haj-Yahia and Ben-Arieh (2000) examined the incidence and socio-demographic correlates of witnessing and experiencing different patterns of abuse and violence in the family of origin among Arab adolescents from Israel. The researchers conducted a cross-sectional survey on a sample of 1,640 Arab secondary school students in Israel. The results of the study indicated that about 17% of the participants had witnessed their fathers threatening to hit or throw something at their mothers, and 18% had witnessed their fathers attacking, grabbing, or shoving their mothers at least once during the 12 months preceding the survey. In addition, 39, 40 and 42% of the participants indicated that their fathers, mothers, and siblings, respectively had yelled at them and/or done something to insult them at least once during the same period. Furthermore, 17, 15 and 20% of the participants revealed that their fathers, mothers, and siblings, respectively had attacked them continuously for several minutes with a stick, club, or other harmful object at least once during the 12 months preceding the survey.

O'Keefe (1997) conducted a study on 935 students from urban and suburban high schools in Los Angeles in order to explore their perceptions of violence in their communities and schools, and to examine the relationship between these perceptions and the students' emotional and behavioral functioning. Participants completed the Youth Self-Report (YSR) as well as measures assessing their perceptions of community, school, and family violence. The results of the study revealed that students exhibited violent behaviors more often when they were exposed to severe forms of violence such as a shooting or stabbing in their communities or schools during the year prior to the study. The results also revealed that for males, exposure to community and school violence was a significant predictor of aggressive acting-out behaviors, even when controlling for the effects of family violence and other socio-demographic variables. For girls,

however, only exposure to school violence was a significant predictor of aggression.

After identifying the causes of violence, its pervasive forms, and the most prominent theories that explain it, it can be said that the key point in preventing or limiting the spread of violence is to control the environment where it is spreading. It is the environment, whether the family, the school or the community and society and/or the interaction between them, which has the greater influence on the development of individuals and can bring out the best or worst in them. Hence, the role of education is so crucial for everyone from the moment of birth all through various stages of their development; each of these environments performs important roles in raising the individuals and in determining the positive or negative outcomes in them.

Accordingly, preventing or reducing violence in schools can only be accomplished through a collaborative effort of each of these aforementioned environments that is, the family, the school or the community and society. The family plays a key role in preventing or minimizing the risk of violence in schools when parents give proper love, affection and care to their children, do not condone violent acts at home and do not follow erratic, harsh and inconsistent disciplinary practices. The school also plays a vital role in preventing or lowering violent acts in schools if it establishes effective rules and a firm, but fair discipline system that applies to all students. Universities, colleges, institutes and community associations, centers and organizations can contribute to preventing or reducing violence in schools by providing school violence prevention plans, strategies, activities, the family, the school or the community and society programs and training courses.

One more point is that school violence prevention or reduction is dependent on understanding the theoretical foundations that interpret violence or aggression in humans. If violence is viewed as an instinctual behavior (Freud, 1950; 1915), then it requires that this behavior must be released through socially acceptable means. If violence is viewed as a learned behavior (Pierson and Thomas, 2006), on the other hand, then it requires that the environmental conditions must be moderated to help reduce violence and aggression.

According to psychologists, there are various aggressive behavior modification techniques, such as extinction, insulation, feedback and reinforcement (Al-Khateeb, 1990):

Extinction is the process through which we stop or cancel boosters that are provided after any unacceptable behavior has been exhibited. In doing so, we get rid of the unacceptable behavior or weaken it through the removal or withdrawal of the conditions that promote and increase it. The effectiveness of this technique increases, when combined with promoting socially desirable

responses.

Insulation is the process through which the perpetrator of aggression is isolated from the environment where aggressive acts have taken place. By doing so, we deprive the perpetrator of aggression from getting positive reinforcement. This method is more effective when combined with the use of positive reinforcement for violent children who display desirable responses.

Feedback, reinforcement, and punishment, that is, to tell the perpetrator of aggression about his or her past acts, praising good ones and discouraging bad ones and explaining how to modify them. It is worth noting here that there are two types of reinforcement: positive and negative. Positive reinforcement is to present a desirable reinforcer such as concrete rewards, praise, smiles, or any sense of accomplishment in order to increase or strengthen the probability of the wanted behavior being repeated. Negative reinforcement, in contrast, is to remove an already operating aversive or unpleasant condition when a desired behavior occurs in order to increase or strengthen the probability of this desired behavior to happen again. Thus, both positive and negative reinforcements have the effect of increasing the probability that a wanted behavior is more likely to happen again. Negative reinforcement should not be confused with the use of punishment as another technique of behavior modification. That is to say, while the former strengthens a specific behavior because a negative condition is removed or avoided as a consequence of this behavior, the latter weakens the behavior or decreases the probability that this behavior will happen again, because a negative or aversive condition is presented or experienced as a consequence of the unwanted behavior.

From the above, it becomes clear that school behavioral problems are serious problems that irritate parents, teachers, principals and counselors: aggression, theft, property damage, vehemence against teachers and students' disrupts negatively affect the learning environment (hence process) as a whole. Preventing and reducing school violence, therefore, becomes a priority. Such task, though complicated, is not at all impossible. Any attempt to prevent and reduce school violence, the researcher argues, should adopt comprehensive and integrated strategies. Under such an account, parents, teachers, principals, students, policymakers and the public should partake in accounting for school violence and finding effective ways to curb this problem.

Problem statement, questions and significance of the study

In recent years, violence has become pervasive in the schools (particularly, secondary schools) of Mafrqa governorate. Such problem, undoubtedly, has a disruptive

impact of hindering a supportive and safe learning environment, which, accordingly, affects the quality of education in the governorate. Addressing the problem, this study was conducted to identify the nature of school violence in this region, exploring its causes and describing its forms and manifestations; hence, coming out with effective ways to prevent, minimize, and (if possible) eliminate it. More particularly, the current study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What are the forms of school violence that exist in secondary schools in Mafraq governorate?
2. What are the causes of school violence in these schools?
3. What methods can be used in resolving (preventing and/or reducing) school violence in this region?

The significance of this study emanates from the importance of the topic it addresses. School violence is an increasingly real problem in Jordan. It is important, therefore, to understand and deal with this problem, and find solutions to minimize its occurrence. Thus, the findings of this study will be useful and helpful for practitioners, policy makers and researchers who are interested in this issue: the study is expected to enhance their understanding of school violence in terms of its causes and forms, and will provide pivotal insights (information as well) into how to prevent and reduce it. The study, thereby, contributes to the state of knowledge within school violence, adding to a growing body of literature on this critical topic.

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

The present study ponders the question of school violence in secondary schools in the governorate of Mafraq, identifying its forms and cause, and suggesting strategies of preventing and reducing its effects on the quality of education in this region. To this end, a qualitative case study was conducted on one of the governorate secondary schools, which was randomly selected during the first semester of the academic year 2012/2013. And, congruent with the study's objectives, the Grounded Theory was adopted in the current study.

The Grounded Theory is an approach in qualitative research that aims to discover social-psychological processes (Strauss, 1998). Drawing on the analytic principles of this approach, a methodological triangulation that is, the combination of different data collection techniques was employed. Data were collected by using three main techniques: observations, interviews, and document analysis. The researcher allocated sufficient time for school observation. The total observation time per week was approximately two hours and twenty minutes. They spent these hours throughout the entire semester in the school premises. They observed and recorded the students' behaviors including their words, deeds, actions, symbols and gestures, and any behavior which is deemed threatening or disturbing to others. All of the observed behaviors were recorded and given the appropriate description and then categorized according to the different forms and causes of violence.

The researcher also conducted interviews with the principal,

some teachers and students who were randomly selected for interviews. They prepared a series of questions about the problem of the study in terms of forms of violence in schools, the different manifestations of such violence, the various types of violence in schools, the relationship between the manifestations of violence and its causes, and methods used for preventing and reducing school violence.

Finally, the researcher had the opportunity to view some documents, and records that highlight aspects of school violence, including investigations of some of the issues such as students' assault on other students and or on teachers, and some cases of profanity, as well as some cases of vandalism, and destruction of school furniture.

As for the research ethics, the researcher visited the school and met with the school principal and explained the purpose of the study. The principal was told that this school was chosen randomly as a case study, and its name will not be referred to and the information obtained would be treated as being strictly confidential and used only for the purposes of scientific research.

RESULTS, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS

The data were analyzed qualitatively using a grounded theory methodology as follows: Firstly, the obtained information was compartmentalized into topics. Secondly, the topics were classified into categories (sections). Thirdly, similarities and differences across the categories were determined in order to formulate patterns. Fourthly, the theory was identified and described. The above steps were achieved through the following:

The identification of topics according to the different groups

Topics related to the group of the principal, which include:

"Violation of regulations, insulting, screaming, beating, tampering with furniture, breaking glass, writing on walls, tearing books, sharp tools, injuries, profanity, rebellion, chaos, coming late, family carelessness, social situation, economic situation, job loyalty, perception towards the teacher, rules and regulations, citizens' awareness, culture, social level, social changes, availability of alternatives, the environment of the student, the environment of the school, social awareness, the school building, the authority of the principal, teacher's dealing, social cohesion, activities, the culture of parents, poverty, leisure, and the parenting style".

Topics related to the group of the teachers, which include:

"Coming late, chaos during the class periods, violation of regulations, leisure, insulting, disabling of class periods, rebellion, beating, cynicism, the parenting style, cheating,

profanity, tampering with furniture, writing on walls, sharp tools, writing on seats, home upbringing, the culture of parents, the authority of the principal, perception towards the teacher, self-esteem, the school building, family carelessness, management, the number of students, social situation, and economic situation."

Topics related to the group of the students, which include:

" Chaos in the class, violation of regulations, beating, domination, poverty, the school building, tampering with furniture, social situation, parenting style, breaking glass, cynicism, insulting, destruction, screaming, tearing clothes, education, family carelessness, teacher's dealing, the authority of the principal, writing on walls, rules and regulations, the awareness of parents, educational system, homogeneity of the students, parents, class environment, law, the culture of parents, family, leisure."

Linking of the topics at the three groups

After examining and going through the topics in each group, it was revealed that:

Some topics intersected in the three groups and these include:

" Violation of regulations, insulting, beating, tampering with furniture, writing on walls, chaos, family carelessness, leisure, social situation, the school building, the authority of the principal, the culture of parents, the parenting style".

Some topics intersected in two groups only and these include:

" Screaming, breaking glass, sharp tools, profanity, rebellion, coming late economic situation, perception towards the teacher, rules and regulations, teacher's dealing, poverty, cynicism,

Some topics did not intersect with any of the groups and these include:

" tearing books, , injuries, job loyalty, citizens' awareness, social level, social changes, availability of alternatives, the environment of the student, the environment of the school, social awareness, social cohesion, activities, disabling of class periods, cheating, writing on seats, home upbringing, self-esteem, management, the number of students, domination, educational system, destruction, tearing clothes, homogeneity of the students".

Exploring categories

After topics have been fragmented and classified, a

number of categories merged. In order to explore these categories, questions using words such as, Who, When, Where, What, and How were asked, and comparisons to identify similarities and differences among the topics were made, as well as word and statement analysis was done. Accordingly, the following categories and their related topics emerged as shown in the following table:

Category: Social Changes

Topics: perception towards the teacher, role of family, poverty, number of students, leisure, students' cohesion, social level.

Category: Media

Topics: Teacher's role, perception towards the teacher, beating, injuries, social level

Category: Environmental Education

Topics: Profanity, chaos, self-esteem, cheating

Category: Management Style

Topics: School principal, teacher, school building, school system

Category: Rules and Regulations

Topics: Citizen's awareness, school system, protection of teacher, coming late

Category: Role of Family

Topics: Poverty, teacher's role, availability of alternatives, rebellion, screaming, social level, lying, profanity, lack of self-esteem

Category: Job Loyalty

Topics: Lack of job loyalty, tampering with furniture, tearing books

Category: Showmanship

Topics: Chaos, beating, rebellion

Category: The Role of Utilitarian

Topics: Job loyalty, chaos, self-esteem

Category: Nature of Self and Mind

Topics: Vandalism, beating, screaming, profanity, chaos

After categories were explored, the relationships between

them were drawn, and then patterns were found and formulated. Because of the importance of this step, the researcher had to read and reread thoroughly the collected data multiple times, and to revise the topics, notes and comments. Accordingly, the following patterns were observed: the environment and social changes; loyalty and love of showmanship; rules, regulations and social changes; the family and the law; the media and the psychological and mental formation; family and environmental education; loyalty and expediency; the media, rules and regulations; management and family; family and love of showmanship; and expediency and administrative growth.

Finally, by studying the above mentioned patterns and the relationships between each two categories, the theory was identified and the following generalizations about the phenomenon of violence in the school under investigation were made:

1. The important role of the environment for social change, including the change of the perception towards teacher, formulating of social classes, and poverty;
2. The tendency of the individual to appear and to have a negative loyalty, which results in lack of job loyalty, tampering with furniture, and tearing, or defacing materials such as books;
3. Social change and the reflections on the practice of rules and regulations; that is, the deep understanding of school rules and regulations encouraged circumvent and bypass and freedom;
4. The important role of media in intellectual functioning and psychological development of the individual. Individuals imitate the violence they see on television and in movies, such as beating, creating chaos, carrying sharp tools, and cheating;
5. Individuals are influenced by the environment which gives them opportunities for imitation, representation, and simulation. Beating, perception towards others, rebellion and destruction are examples of the influence of environment;
6. Loyalty versus expediency, or to fish in troubled waters. That is, in order to gain some personal advantage, some students want the school system to collapse, and as such, tend to do some destructive practices, create chaos and use profanity;
7. Awareness of the law through the media encouraged the confrontation by law, and the exploitation of law to find causes for rebellion, destruction and damage;
8. The decline of the authority of the family encouraged chaos, and the emergence of some forms of violence, such as rebellion, beating, verbal abuse, and violations of rules and regulations;
9. The existence of social classes encouraged the quarrels between various groups of students and provided a tense atmosphere between the parties involved in the educational process, and thus encouraged confrontation,

hustle, profanity, beating, and acts of destruction and damage; and,

10. The administrative pattern is linked to and dominated by expediency, and this results in and encouraged idleness and violation of rules and regulations of the school.

CONCLUSION

Summary

The results of the study can be summarized as follows.

1. The main forms of violence that are exhibited in the school that is under investigation are: moral or psychological violence, including, among others: insulting, screaming, profanity, cynicism, and physical violence upon a person(s) or upon property, which, among others, includes: beating, breaking glass, tampering with furniture, writing on walls and seats, and tearing books;
2. The economic and social conditions of the family, including lack of social interaction or emotional reciprocity and poverty can contribute to the use of violence in school;
3. The level of job loyalty and professional affiliation can be a cause of school violence. That is, teachers who have no motivation or who have disloyalties to the job of teaching are likely to act violently towards students and colleagues;
4. The school environment is one of the leading causes for school violence in. This is especially true respecting bad companions and blind imitation of bad behaviors;
5. The school's neglectful pattern of administration as well as the leniency of punishment have resulted in idleness and violation of rules and regulations of the school as well as of committing violent and unacceptable acts;
6. Media, whether visual or printed, play a major role in the increase of school violence. In particular, exposure of students to violence on television, movies, video games and the Internet make students imitate violent acts on their fellow students and teachers or on school property;
7. Social change and the declining status of teachers and teaching in the society encourages others to disrespect teachers and mocking and belittling them in front of others and even insulting or assaulting them;
8. Mental and psychiatric disorders, which are beyond the control of the individual increase violence in the school; and, Subjectivity and expediency make some take advantage of the flaw in the school system to achieve their own objectives and interests.

Evaluation

After examining the results of the study, it can be

concluded that the research questions that were addressed in this study were answered, and thus the study has achieved its purpose. These findings are claimed to be of great value for those who are involved in improving the quality of education in this region, in particular. By the same token, the study is expected to contribute to the state of knowledge within the topic of school violence, in general.

Recommendations

It has become clear that school violence is a complex problem that includes an interaction of various causes, including psychological, biological, behavioral, and social-related ones, as well as various forms, including moral, verbal, and physical ones. Thus, school violence prevention and reduction is not an easy task also, but it is not an impossible one. School violence can be avoided through cooperation from policymakers in the ministry of education, school administrators and teachers, parents and the community. In light of the findings of this study, the researcher wishes to make the following suggestions:

1. Setting up a comprehensive preventive program for all students, parents and school administrators and teachers. The school counselors can plan and conduct this program with its activities, including lectures, workshops, symposiums, counseling sessions throughout the school year;
2. Setting up a violence prevention program for students who exhibit aggressive and violent acts in the school. This program should include lessons, sessions and lectures that reinforce core ethical values, which, among others, include: compassion, fairness, honesty, respect, and self-discipline, and teach students techniques on how to avoid violent behaviors, how to control their anger, cope with stress, communicate with their fellow students and teachers, keep away from alcohols, smoking, and drugs, and the consequences of violent behaviors;
3. Setting up parent training programs that teach parents the appropriate techniques on how to deal with their children and reinforce desirable behaviors and ethical values in them;
4. Setting up counseling programs for teachers that help them become more understanding, compassionate and patient by teaching them alternatives to the use of corporal punishment and ways of proper communication.
5. Setting up training programs for school principals that help them gain the necessary skills to handle violence in their schools;
6. Incorporating a zero tolerance policy for any and all acts of violence in schools committed by students, teachers or school administrators. If they are involved in violence in the school, a sort of punishment that fits their violent act should be applied on them;
7. Using a reward system to encourage good behaviors

in the school; and,

Inculcating the noble Islamic values of peace, tolerance, and the culture of non-violence into the school curriculum of secondary level; especially, in the subjects of social and Islamic sciences.

Conflict of Interests

The author have not declared any conflict of interests.

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