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Full Length Research Paper

The evaluation of synchronous distance ear training compared to the traditional ear training

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It is clearly seen that distance education, spreading all over the world recently, is increasingly used in music education process. That the method brings great flexibility to the teaching-learning process destroys the limits depending on time and space and it can easily reach wide audiences and so on outstanding features are the main factors behind its choice. The applicability of this important method for the Ear Training course was seen to be a current topic worth investigating in the present study. For this reason, it was aimed to determine the applicability of the simultaneous distance education method in the context of Ear Training course. The experimental method (pre-test-post-test) was preferred and an experimental group consisting of 14 students and a control group consisting of 14 students were formed and the groups' ability to hear multi-voice (interval and chord) and to write dictation (rhythm and melody) was compared. The data achieved in the experimental setting was interpreted with the independent t test according to the $p < .05$ level and as a result of the research, it was stated that there was no significant difference between experimental group students who had synchronous distance Ear Training lessons and control group students who had traditional Ear Training lessons. In addition, it was observed that the experimental group students and control group students could easily communicate with each other and that the experimental group students had a great motivation for the lesson. The research results were discussed with a variety of scientific research results and various proposals were made. The proposals made according to the research results were about the importance of the method's applicability in the context of different courses and its contribution to the music teacher training process in Turkey.

Key words: Synchronous distance Ear Training, Traditional Ear Training, Music Education.

INTRODUCTION

Computers and the Internet have become an integral part of our life as a result of technological developments in our age. Today, it is seen that especially students use computers and the Internet effectively to chat, to purchase (books, magazines, and etc.), to reach the different information and, to store, to process and to

share the information. While the students carried the information in notebooks, books and bags recently, they have started to use devices such as flash memories, hard drives, and smart phones and so on widely. Drastic changes related to the education and that information can be stored, transferred, copied, processed, published

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affect and change the students and teachers' tasks and responsibilities in the teaching-learning process. More clearly, in the technology-assisted education and training process the students are no longer passive recipients but they are the individuals who reach and bring the information and explain and discuss it in the classroom. In other words, they are the ones who take an active part in educational activities. The teacher of the knowledge age is not the one who makes the student memorize the information but is the self-renewing and open-minded and s/he presents what s/he knows through the guidance, shows the student how to reach the information s/he needs and has the knowledge and the technical equipment of the day (Leventoğlu, 2004, p.1).

The above technological, individual, social and educational developments necessitate the structural and systematic renewal of the institutions. In order to respond to the needs and expectations, institutions change educational activities and processes and put various teaching materials, applications and programs into service.

Among these programs and practices, distance education is an effective teaching method that largely or completely clears off the constraints occurring due to time and space and it is flexible enough to be configured according to the needs of the applied groups. This method which is used in various grades of education for different purposes across the globe is rapidly becoming popular because it is an important way to solve the problem of education deficiency due to rapid population growth and it largely supports the life-long learning process and so on.

Today, different definitions are made for this method in which computers and the Internet are predominantly used. According to İşman (2011, p.15), the distance education is a training and education method which enables opportunity and freedom of self-learning and is more flexible than traditional training and more applicable to the individual's conditions. According to Uşun (2006, p.7-8), distance education is an application of a systematic educational technology that can be done with written and printed materials, visual or auditory means and in which teachers and students are in physically separate places in large part of the educational activities and which enables the receivers to have individual flexibility and independence from the aspects of 'academic age, purpose, time, place and method' and so on

When descriptions are analyzed, it is seen that distance education is a method that meets the individual needs and differences, contributes a lot to the life-long learning process, and largely eliminates the time, place and national limits and etc. of the traditional education. İşman (2011, p.15) states that the purpose of the distance education is to eliminate the limitations in education partially or completely and to carry the training opportunities to a wider audience. Uşun (2006, p. 19, 20)

specifies the benefits of distance education as below:

1. It can meet the requirements of the contemporary student's changing, advancing and life-long independent learning and make significant contributions to the national development of the developed and developing countries. That the individuals are responsible for their own learning increases their ability to reach the information and decide on their own and make them more enterprising,
2. In the process of teaching and learning, it provides flexibility and diversity in some aspects such as learning age, teaching objectives, teaching and learning environment, methods and techniques and so on. The supply of system services (excluding start-up costs) is not expensive. It offers easily- updated assessment and evaluation tools and methods. It offers a wide variety of learning environments (written and printed, audio-visual, multi- media and interactive),
3. Integrating with traditional educational processes, it contributes to the enrichment of these processes. It can be used in the teaching of a wide variety and different types of disciplines and formal and informal educational levels. It can be effectively used in the education of individuals in need of special education.

Because of the mentioned positive attributes and contributions to the educational process, the distance education method is effectively used at the universities in Turkey and in the world. For instance, the distance education is used at numerous overseas universities such as the Indra Gandhi National University, Islamic Azad University, Universitas Terbuk, State University of New York, University of Buenos Aires, National Autonomous University of Mexico, National University of Cordoba and so on and it is used at Anadolu University, University of Ankara, Atatürk University, Atılım University, Çukurova University, Karadeniz Technical University, Kırıkkale University, Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Harran University and etc. in Turkey (İşman, 2011, p.70-92, 129-131). Approximately eighty universities use the distance education in various programs and practices (Universities Providing Distance Education, 2014). However, there is no university using distance music education program in our country; distance music education practices are used in different programs in a number of universities abroad.

For instance, a certificate is given to those who are successful at the music education program which is carried out synchronously and asynchronously at Berklee University (Berklee University, 2014); online conducting training at master degree is given at Colorado State University (Colorado State University, 2014), online general music education and instrument training at master degree are provided at Kent University (Kent University, 2014), online music education is provided for music educators at master degree at Boston University (Boston University, 2014). As seen, distance education is an effective method used for various programs and

purposes by the universities. In addition, various scientific studies related to the effectiveness of distance music education have been carried out.

For example, as a result of Shoemaker and Stam's (2010) experimental research on distance piano education, it was stated that the teacher in the American continent could have synchronous and asynchronous piano lessons with the students in African continent with the help of midi technology, image program and internet connection, and the students could be successful and also that method was quite similar to the traditional piano lessons. In Nakahira et al.'s asynchronous experimental study (2011), it was stated that the e-material prepared to develop the students' simultaneously singing and piano playing skills was applied to 15 students and as a result, 11 students out of 15 were found to be successful in general.

In Karahan's experimental study (2014), the effects of the traditional piano teaching method and synchronous distance piano teaching method on the students' playing the piano performances were compared and no significant difference was found between the groups that two separate methods were applied (10 students in experimental group and 10 students in control group).

Researches on the distance education method and practices at the overseas universities show that the method can be successfully applied. In addition, it can be said that distance education and educational technology have been used effectively in the process of traditional teaching-learning process both in the past and present, and based on the researches made so far it can be said that these practices have important contributions to the process of music education.

Kim (2013, p.424) stated that with digital technology-based education, students did not have teacher-centred and rote learning education as in traditional education. Further, as a result of the experimental study done with 16 students, it was concluded that students' motivations and perception of music increased. Parti (2014) stated in his study that the use of digital music production in the lessons during the music education process enabled students to forge a link between course materials and their own environments more easily and that their learning processes gained a more effective and permanent qualification in the technological learning environment.

When past studies were analyzed, educational technology had important contributions to the process of education even with the technological means of 10 years ago. Levendođlu (2004, p.3) stated that the effective use of computer and online systems in music would accelerate students' learning process as a strengthening and complementary factor, would enable them to have rich materials in the area they want to thrive, and would make them have an advantageous learning experience in many aspects. Tecimer (2006, p.8) also stated that music educators used the Internet, television, video, video camera, DVD, CD, CD-ROM, electronic pianos,

computers, computer software programs (software), MIDI and so on in their classes in order to improve students as well as their own knowledge and skills, to enhance their performances, to improve their singing or playing skills and to increase their creativity and motivations. On the other hand, Koç (2004, p.5) stated that learning process was getting shorter due to evolving technological means and audio-visual elements which supported the computer-based music learning and producing and he added that computer-supported music education software became the most important assistant in the issues constituting the basis of music. Levendođlu (2004, p.2) indicated that in traditional education, students should reach the teacher while in the online music education, the music educator reached students with technological tools. Arapgirliođlu (2003, p.164) emphasized the importance of distance education in the process of globalization of education by stating that only a certain class and number of students could take advantage of a good qualified teacher; however, students all over the world could benefit from interactive music software for various purposes.

Considering all the above-mentioned researches, it can be said that educational technology and especially the distance education applications are effectively used in the traditional teaching-learning process. Distance music education enables students to have education in a freer and more flexible environment by removing the place and time restrictions of traditional education. Also it provides easy access to printed, written, audio, visual and audio sources and most importantly it enables students' learning and teaching process with a large number of interactive applications that can be done on a global scale. For example, some online sites test student's knowledge with multiple-choice tests on the issues such as music genres and forms, instruments and composers, etc. Moreover, the software for instrument training and especially ear training (Arapgirliođlu, 2003, p.163-164) has been used by music teacher candidates so far. Absolute Pitch, Chord ID, Ear Master & Ear Master School, Harmonic Hearing (1998), Music Theory, Pitch ID, Sight Reading Challenge (Version 1.40), Sight-Singing Trainer 2.0, Tune-it II: (ECS) and etc. are important examples for ear-training. There are a large number of distance education applications especially for ear-training.

In the light of the given information, it is seen that educational technologies and especially distance education applications are becoming common methods in traditional teaching-learning process and especially software and applications for ear training are frequently preferred.

EAR TRAINING EDUCATION

Hearing, one of the five senses of human beings, is a gateway to perceive and understand our environment

and our world which are surrounded with sounds. Musical audience can be described as a skill enabling perception, recognition, knowing, reminiscence, identification, decoding and analysis of musical totality, elements, equipment, properties and connections that can be perceived with sense of hearing (Uçan, 2005, p.19). Since it contains all these features, ear training education is the foundation of the teaching-learning process in each type of the general and aspired and professional music education.

Ear training is an essential course that is compulsory for all students during six semesters in Music Education Program. This course which can be also called Musical Audince, Ear Training and Solfege has a great importance for the evaluation of musical thinking and musical talent (Karkın, 2004, p.2). In addition, the students gain the theoretical and practical basic knowledge and skills about the formation of sound, basic characteristics of sound, hearing system and sound perception, mono and poly sound hearing, music font, meter, tempo, rhythm, tone, chord, scale, tune, solfege and so on (Özgür, 2006; Şengül, 2006; Hacıev, 2007) within the scope of this course. Especially, it is possible to understand if students comprehend melody, harmony and rhythm, or in other words, the units of the musical work in the dictation process and to evaluate their ability to use the relationship between symbol and sound which is the essence of music education (Arapgirlioğlu, 2012, p.63). Therefore, students' achievement level of Ear Training course is an important sign of their musical knowledge and skills and their professional success.

Students' Ear Training achievement levels are determined with oral or written examinations. Written examinations mainly consist of topics such as tone (interval), chord, rhythm, and melody dictation. In the light of the given information, it is seen that Ear Training is one of the most important courses in the Music Education Program and that technologies such as computers and the Internet and also a variety of distance education applications are used in the lessons and students' extracurricular studies in order to enliven the courses. However, as a result of the literature review, a study that determines the applicability of synchronous distance education method for Ear Training courses was found. Due to the method working via instant data transfer, it is also possible to create e-course setting quite similar to the traditional Ear Training courses (Shoemaker, 2010). In addition it was foreseen that the use of such an important and up to date teaching method in the context of Ear Training course could make an important contribution in the teaching- learning process.

If the method is successfully applied, the students who skip the classes or are unable to continue their education for various reasons can continue their educational process successfully. It can be possible to teach more students with a wide variety of applications that can be done at national or international distance. Further, in our country, it is a known fact that music departments need

professional teachers to conduct Ear Training lessons and due to the lack of academic staff, these lessons are carried out by teaching staffs whose professional fields are not music theory. It may be possible that professional teachers can conduct these lessons through distance education method if the method is successfully applied in the context of Ear Training course.

For the various reasons mentioned above, the present research is to determine the applicability of the synchronous distance education, one of the most important methods increasingly becoming widespread nowadays, in Ear Training courses and to ascertain its effect on the students' achievement levels. Therefore, students' success levels in traditional Ear Training teaching and those in synchronous distance Ear Training teaching were compared and the problem statement is as follows.

Problem statement

Are there any differences between success levels of the students who have traditional Ear Training education and those who have synchronous distance Ear Training education?

Sub-problems

1- Is there a difference between the success levels at the tone and chord exam of the students who take traditional Ear Training education and of those who take synchronous distance Ear Training education?

2- Is there a difference between the success levels in the rhythm dictation and melody dictation exam of the students, taking traditional Ear Training teaching, and those of the students taking synchronous distance Ear Training education?

Aim

The aim of the present study is to determine the applicability of the synchronous distance education within the scope of Ear Training course and to determine whether the courses done with this method affect the success levels of the students. .

METHOD

Since the Ear Training lesson is conducted both theoretically and practically in Music Education Programs, the survey data were regarded necessary to be achieved in an experimental setting. With the experimental setting, the research results were provided to reflect the fact exactly. Lessons and practice made with groups in the experimental setting and experimental phase were described in detail. In the study in which experimental model was preferred, it was determined to what extent the simultaneous distance Ear Training lessons affected the students' success levels compared

with the traditional Ear Training lessons. At the experimental phase of the study, pre-test and post-test model was preferred to compare the grades obtained from the experimental and control groups.

Technical specifications of the experimental setting

At the end of the trial process and preliminary research related to electronic media, internet speed was determined to be 20 Mbps and more. Various video and audio conversation programs were tried and Skype™ video call and multi-conference program was preferred, because it had the clearest video and audio transmission. The technical and electronic features are detailed below.

Internet, Connection type: ADSL (Asymmetric Digital Subscriber Line) Connection Speed: 20 Mbps, *Computer (1-2)*: Microsoft Windows XP Professional Version 2011, 1,83 Ghz- 2,00 GB RAM, *Projection (1-2)*: Brightness 3000 Ansilumen, Resolution 1024x768, Image format 4:3, Image Program: Skype™ Video Calling and Multi-Conference Program, *Webcam (1-2)*: Full HD (High Definition) 1080p image capture. (The most 1920x1080 pixels), HD video call (1280x780 Pixel) Carl Zeiss Optic, Built-in microphone with RightSound™, USB 2.0

The formation of the groups and experimental phase

Experimental and control groups were chosen from the students studying 1st grade at Harran University, Faculty of Education, Education of Fine Arts Department, Music Education Program. Before the experimental stage, a total of 40 students were asked whether they wrote rhythm and melody dictation at 5/8 meter previously, and 35 students stated that they did not. These students were studied with in the experimental stage. In the experimental phase of the research, two separate exams and tests were conducted. First exam questions consisted of tone and chords and the second exam had questions about rhythm and melody dictation.

At the pre-test phase of the first test, 12 questions about tone and chord were played to the 35 students with piano twice in the traditional learning environment and the students were asked to write the names of tones and chords. At the end of the pre-test, it was found that there were 28 students giving wrong answers mainly to the questions of major 7 and minor 7 tones and minor -5 and major + 5 chords. The experimental and control groups, equivalent to each other, were formed in regard to the correct answers about tones and chords of those 28 students. Thus, the experimental group was formed from 14 students and also control group was formed from 14 students. All students were equivalent to each other in terms of success and failure. The control group had traditional Ear Training lesson and the experimental group had synchronous distance Ear Training lessons for the tones and chords topics which both groups failed. Thus, both groups had lessons with the same teacher and with exactly same content and at the same duration. The description of the course is as follows.

Firstly, tone subject was taught. Tones were written on the staved board and played with the piano and numerous examples were given. Tone questions were asked in theory and practice aurally to the students of both groups individually and it was observed that the students of both groups gave correct answers in near level. Then, chord topic was taught. Chords were written on the staved board and then structural features were described and played with the piano. Numerous examples were given. Chord questions were asked in theory and practice to the students of both groups individually and the students of both groups were observed to give correct answers in near level. After 50 min, the course was

completed and post-test phase started.

The order of the 12 questions of tone and chord that were asked in the pre-test was changed and the same questions were asked in post-test again. While the control group had the traditional method exam, the experimental group had synchronous examination. In other words, both groups had the examination with the same content and at the same duration.

The questions of tone and chord were asked twice. Then, an assessment of the difference or equivalence of the success levels of the control and experimental groups at the post-test was made. After determining the success levels of tone and chord, the phase of determining the success levels of rhythm and melody dictation started.

In the second exam, a pre-test consisting of rhythm and melody dictation questions was given to the 28 students in the traditional education environment in order to determine the success levels of rhythm and melody dictation of the students. The process of the examination is described below.

Rhythm dictation consisting of 8 meters in total was played in groups composed of two meters (1-2, 3-4, 5-6, 7-8) with two repeats. One minute passed between the first play and replay. With this method, the question of the rhythm dictation, consisting of 8 meters, was completed and question of melody dictation started.

The question of melody dictation started with giving the A note to the students and playing cadence and scale of the melody to be played. Melody dictation consisting of 8 meters in total was played in groups composed of two meters (1-2, 3-4, 5-6, 7-8) with two repeats. One minute passed between the first play and replay. Finally, the whole melody dictation was played by giving 8 meters A note at once and nearly two minutes later pre-test examination consisting of rhythm and melody dictation questions was completed. As a result of the assessment, an experiment group consisting of 14 students and a control group consisting of 14 students were formed. Those students were equal to each other in terms of their success levels of rhythm and melody dictation. Then the course phase started.

5/8 (2+3) meters were taught in the course. Firstly, the students were taught the 5/8 meter theoretically for 25 min; some samples of 5/8 meters were written from simple to difficult on the staved board and the Bonas of these examples were sung with their beats. Then, the students were made to sing the Bona of the examples written on the board with their beats individually. It is found that the students of both groups could sing those. At this stage, the students were made to write melody dictation while the teacher played the rhythm and melody dictation, with the 5/8 meter at the elementary level, for 25 min. Post-test, consisting of rhythm and melody dictation with 8 meters and written with 5/8 meters, was given to the students at the end of the 50-min lesson. The process of the examination is the same as the pre-test phase.

Collection and evaluation of data

Research data were obtained through literature review and experimental setting. Students' success levels were determined with the pre-test and post-test examinations. In the processing of the data, SPSS 11.5 program was used. The results obtained with *t*-test were read according to $p < .05$ level. Performance Evaluation Scale is given in Table 1.

Each of the 12 tone questions was 4.16 points and the total was 50 points. Each of 12 chord questions was 4.16 points and total was 50 points. As a result, the total of tone and chord questions was 100 points (Table 2).

Rhythm dictation consisted of 8 meters and each meter was 6, 25 points, so 8 meters were 50 points. Melody dictation consisted of 8 meters and each meter was 6.25 points and so the total of 8 meters was 50 points. The total of rhythm and melody dictation questions was 100 points.

Table 1. Evaluation scale of the tone and chord examination.

| Questions | Each tone and chord | Number of questions | Total |
|-----------------|---------------------|---------------------|------------|
| Tone questions | 4.16 points | 12 | 50 points |
| Chord questions | 4.16 points | 12 | 50 points |
| Overall Total | | | 100 points |

Table 2. Evaluation scale of the rhythm and melody dictation examination.

| Questions | Each meter | Number of meter | Total |
|------------------|-------------|-----------------|------------|
| Rhythm dictation | 6.25 points | 8 | 50 points |
| Melody dictation | 6.25 points | 8 | 50 points |
| Overall Total | | | 100 points |

Table 3. Skewness - Kurtosis values of the pre-test- post-test scores and the significance level results of Shapiro-Wilk Test.

| | | Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------|--------------------|----------|----------|-------|
| Pre-test scores | | N | Skewness | Kurtosis | P |
| Interval-chord | Experimental | 14 | .18 | -.52 | .80 |
| | Control | 14 | -.47 | -.87 | .26 |
| Rhythm and melody dictation | Experimental | 14 | -.69 | -1.27 | .013* |
| | Control | 14 | -.01 | -1.79 | .07 |
| Post-test scores | | N | Skewness | Kurtosis | P |
| Interval-chord | Experimental | 14 | .14 | .47 | .96 |
| | Control | 14 | -.51 | -.54 | .57 |
| Rhythm and melody dictation | Experimental | 14 | .19 | -1.53 | .16 |
| | Control | 14 | .02 | -.85 | .34 |

*p<.05.

FINDINGS AND COMMENTS

Findings related to the problem statement of the research were presented as the tone and chord pre-test equivalence, post-test intergroup comparison, rhythm and melody dictation pre-test equivalence, post-test intergroup comparison.

When SW test results in Table 3 were examined, it was found that deviations from normality were seen only in the experimental group students' Rhythm- Melody dictation scores. But when the skewness – kurtosis values were considered, it could be accepted as normal when it was in the range of ± 1 (Büyüköztürk, 2007). Proceeding from these findings, it was decided to use the implementation of related and unrelated samples *t* – test among the parametric tests.

When Table 4 was examined, there was no significant difference between experimental and control groups in terms of their success level at interval-chord exam [*t* = -.11, *p*> .05] and rhythm –melody dictation exam [*t* = -.03, *p*> .05]. Moreover, taking into account the arithmetic mean of the values between the groups, a very close distribution was observed and therefore experimental and control group students were determined to be equal in terms of their

achievement levels according to the pre-test exam results of interval - chord and rhythm-melody dictation.

Referring to Table 5, no significant difference was found between the experimental and control group students' in-group pre-test and post-test interval-chord scores [*t* = -.09, *p*> .05; *t* = .77, *p*>.05] and the scores were found to be close to each other.

Examining Table 6, no significant difference was found between the pre-test and post-test scores in the experimental group students' Rhythm-Melody dictation exam success level [*t* = -. 81, *p*> .05]. When we looked at the results of the control group students' analysis, similar findings were emerged. Students' Rhythm-Melody dictation exam showed no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement level.

Examining Table 7, there was no significant difference between experimental and control group in terms of the exam success level at the range of [*t* = -. 38, *p*> .05]. When values of arithmetic mean were examined, the scores were seen to be very close to each other.

As seen in Table 8, there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of rhythm –melody exam success level [*t* = .04, *p*>.05]. The scores of the groups

Table 4. *t*-test of results experimental and control groups' intervals and chord pre-test equivalence situation.

| Interval-chord | N | \bar{x} | ss | Sd | F | T | P |
|------------------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Experimental | 14 | 11.57 | 3.37 | 26 | .00 | -.11 | .91 |
| Control | 14 | 11.71 | 3.27 | | | | |
| Rhythm and melody dictation | N | \bar{x} | ss | Sd | F | T | P |
| Experimental | 14 | 63.00 | 37.95 | 26 | 1.42 | -.03 | .97 |
| Control | 14 | 63.43 | 29.23 | | | | |

Table 5. *t*-test results of experimental and control groups' interval-chord pre-test, post-test success points.

| Experimental group | N | \bar{x} | ss | Sd | T | p |
|---------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| Pre-test | 14 | 11.57 | 3.37 | 13 | -.09 | .93 |
| Post test | | 11.64 | 3.54 | | | |
| Control group | N | \bar{x} | ss | Sd | T | p |
| Pre-test | 14 | 11.71 | 3.27 | 13 | -.77 | .46 |
| Post test | | 12.07 | 2.40 | | | |

Table 6. *t*-test results of experimental and control group's rhythm-melody dictation pre-test, post-test success points.

| Experimental group | N | \bar{x} | ss | Sd | T | p |
|---------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| Pre-test | 14 | 63.00 | 37.95 | 13 | .81 | .43 |
| Post -test | | 57.14 | 29.75 | | | |
| Control group | N | \bar{x} | ss | sd | T | p |
| Pre-test | 14 | 63.43 | 29.23 | 13 | .92 | .38 |
| Post-test | | 56.71 | 27.40 | | | |

Table 7. *t*-test results of experimental and control groups' interval-chord post-test success points.

| Interval-chord | N | \bar{x} | ss | sd | F | T | p |
|-----------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Experimental | 14 | 11.64 | 3.54 | 26 | 1.26 | -.38 | .71 |
| Control | 14 | 12.07 | 2.40 | | | | |

Table 8. *t*-test results of experimental and control groups' rhythm-melody dictation post-test success points.

| Rhythm and melody dictation | N | \bar{x} | ss | sd | F | T | P |
|------------------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Experimental | 14 | 57.14 | 29.75 | 26 | .47 | .04 | .97 |
| Control | 14 | 56.71 | 27.40 | | | | |

were found to be quite similar.

RESULTS

In conclusion, it was stated that there was no significant

difference between the experimental group students given synchronous distance Ear Training education and control group students given traditional Ear Training education in terms of their success levels in post-test interval and chord examination according to the [$t = -.38$, $p > .05$] level and post-test rhythm and melody dictation

examination according to the [$t = .04, p > .05$] level. Based on the results achieved within the scope of the study, it was concluded that simultaneous distance Ear Training method was as successful and effective as traditional Ear Training method.

The experimental group students had a great interest in synchronous distance Ear Training and this interest can be said to be an important factor for the students' success. Another essential factor in achieving successful results was that simultaneous distance Ear Training lessons were constructed in a very similar nature to the traditional Ear Training lessons.

It was clearly observed that during the lesson at the experimental phase, students of both groups asked the teacher and each other questions, and there was a good communication between two groups. With the synchronous distance education method, the lesson could be performed at the same time with the experimental and control group students and the students of those could communicate with the teacher and with each other as if they had had lesson at the same class. Those important facilities provided by the method and the course setting constructed in a quite similar manner to the traditional Ear Training course setting ensured the students feel comfortable and made a significant contribution to their success. In this context, it was observed that simultaneous distance Ear Training lesson could be constructed in a very similar nature to that of traditional Ear Training and it had positive contributions to students' success. The observations and the accomplished results are consistent with each other.

DISCUSSION

Distance education is a fundamental teaching method used throughout the world with its superior features such as its ability to provide a wide variety of written, printed, audio-visual, multi-media and interactive teaching-learning environment, to fulfil the continuous lifelong independent learning needs, to bring flexibility to the teaching-learning process and to be used in teaching different types of disciplines at the formal and non-formal education levels. However, when the institutions for music teachers training in our country were examined, it was seen that most of the courses were carried out in the traditional classroom environment and no practice was done for distance education method. Within this context, the application of the synchronous distance method for the Ear Training, the basic lesson of music teacher training process, and its impacts on the student's success levels were determined. As a result of the study, it was determined that synchronous distance Ear Training method was as successful as the traditional Ear Training method and those two methods improved the students' development level equally. In addition, it was observed that synchronous distance Ear Training method had very similar features with the traditional Ear Training method.

Synchronous distance education method has been researched for different music lessons and successful results have been obtained. For example, as a result of Shoemaker and Stam's (2010) research, it was found out that piano lessons could be successfully done with synchronous and asynchronous distance education method and the courses were very similar to the traditional lessons. In their researches, Nakahira et al. (2011) used the e-material, prepared to improve the students' skills of piano playing and singing simultaneously, applying asynchronous distance education method and it was concluded that students were generally successful. As a result of Karahana's (2014) experimental research, it was found out that synchronous distance piano education method was as successful as the traditional piano education method and those two separate methods improved students' piano performances equally. Depending on the various researches, it can be said that synchronous and asynchronous methods could be successfully used in various music education courses.

As a result of the research, it was determined that synchronous distance education method could be successfully used in the Ear Training lessons and this result was supported with the results of the researches mentioned above. Despite the many positive features of synchronous distance education method, there is a basic negative feature of it. In order to be used efficiently, the method needs 20 and more Mbps continuous Internet speed. In case of permanent discontinuation and long term decline of Internet speed, the method may turn out to be impracticable. However, 100 or even 180 Mbps Internet service nearly clears the negative side of the method.

Suggestions

Since synchronous distance Ear Training is a successful teaching method, it is necessary to research to what extent this method can be used in group courses such as Music Culture, Harmony-Counterpoint- Accompaniment, Choir, Orchestra in Music Education Program.

It is considered that distance music education which is becoming common all over the world can contribute a lot to the music education process in our country. It can enable flexibility, life-long learning, and removing of time and space constraints partially or completely and so on in the education process when it is used in each of general, aspired and professional music trainings in our country. In addition, even today there are major shortcomings in meeting the physical needs of educational institutions and in supporting enough teaching staff in our rapidly developing country. Distance education can be seen as a remarkable solution to meet these needs.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interest.

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Full Length Research Paper

Effect of core training on 16 year-old soccer players

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Core trainings have been widely used by trainers recently in order to improve performance of soccer players. In this context, the aim of this study is to examine the effect of core training on some motoric capabilities of 16 years old soccer players. Thirty certified soccer players who were 16 years old from B.B. Bodrumspor Club in 2013-2014 seasons participated voluntarily in the research. Weight and height averages of U-16 experiment and control group players were similar; there was no significant difference between them. Before the trainings, pre-tests of two groups of 15 participants (standing long jump, shuttle, balance, push-up, speed, plank, vertical jump) were recorded. The core trainings were implemented on the experiment group twice a week, 30 to 35 min a day for 12 weeks by trainers plus the regular training program. Only regular trainings within yearly training program were implemented on the control group. After 12 weeks, post-test measurements were taken. The differences between the tests were analyzed statistically, with "t" test at $p < 0.05$. Consequently, it was observed that core trainings implemented on junior level players brought about significant improvements on parameters of standing long jump, shuttle, balance, speed, plank, and vertical jump ($p < 0.05$).

Key words: Core, training, soccer, adult, strength.

INTRODUCTION

Soccer is a team sport of intense tackles. Strong central body area decreases risks of injury and provides explosive power in soccer players, improved higher rate anaerobic energy, and technical movements with and without a ball. There are many training methods for developing anaerobic strength and power. With the development of these, skills such as vertical jump, speed, acceleration, agility development, ball kicking, turning and dribbling can be performed easily (Reilly and Thomas, 1976; Ekblom, 1986; Tumilty, 1993; Bangsbo, 1994a, b; Bompa, 1999; Cometti et al., 2011; Wisloff et al., 2004; Arthur and Bailey, 1998).

Primarily and certainly, it can be stated that the strength training method is more convenient for soccer training, as

it does not only depend on number of units per training done during soccer exercises (Weineck, 2011).

The area named "core" includes the abdominals in the front side of the body, that is, hypochondrium and hypogastrium muscles; serratus right next to hypochondrium muscles; oblique right next to hypogastrium muscles; and the muscle groups from the waist to neck that help the skeleton have a correct posture (External Oblique, Internal Obliques, Transversus Abdominis, Multifidi Psoas). "Core training" refers to the training of the above abdominal and lumbar regions. Strengthening the core region is not only necessary for sportive endurance, but it also provides a correct posture (Fahey et al., 2011; Akuthoga and Nadler, 2004).

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Core training has been studied by many researchers and is considered to be very important for players' performances, motoric capabilities, balance developments, prevention of injuries and rehabilitation (Thomas and William, 2009; Hessari et al., 2011; Shi et al., 2012; Sadeghi et al., 2013; Sumit and Sohan, 2013; Agostini, 1994; Takanati, 2012).

It was determined by researchers that implementing weight trainings on players who are in their development age affects their developments negatively (Sakalli, 2008; Sevim, 1997). Among 11 to 15 year old players, physical core training and motoric capabilities, especially strength development can be provided more easily with their own body weights. Providing strength development among children of this age with their own body weights is a more appropriate method. Core trainings have been widely used by trainers recently in order to improve game performance of soccer players. These trainings are preferred because they can be done in any field without any need for tools, and they contribute to strength development in a short time (Thomas and William, 2009; Basset and Leach, 2011; Baser, 1996; Cabrid et al., 1988; Okada et al., 2011).

The present research investigates the effects of core trainings conducted on 16 year old soccer players for 12 weeks on motoric capabilities of soccer players.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

In the present research, pre-test and post-test patterned experimental method with control group was implemented: 15 for experiment group (kg $X=56.27\pm 5.71$; Height $X=161.46\pm 7.17$ cm) and 15 for control group (kg $X=57.07\pm 3.90$; Height $X=163.20\pm 5.62$ cm). A total of 30 certified soccer players who play in Turkey, Mugla Province, Bodrum District, B.B. Bodrumspor in U-16 age group voluntarily participated in the research with the permission of their parents. Regular yearly training program was implemented on the control group; while specially prepared core trainings of 30 to 35 min twice a week for 12 weeks in addition to the regular training program was implemented on the experiment group. Complete participation was provided.

Measurement tools and application

The measurement of the groups was taken at Physiology Labs, School of Physical Education and Sports, Mugla Sitki Kocman University, and B.B. Bodrumspor synthetic pitch.

Vertical jump measurement

Vertical jump test was conducted with "Jump Meter". Players jumped upwards on a time and distance scaled sensitive surface in force without taking a step and skipping (Tamer, 2000). The distance they jumped was determined on the vehicle in centimeters. After players jumped twice, their best score was recorded as their vertical jump value.

Push-up-shuttle measurements

The measurement of the regular shuttle move was taken with

regular shuttle move. The players lay on their back, in hands on nape, bodies stretched, feet in adjoint position and were asked to straighten their body forward without receiving support; thereafter, the number of shuttles they made was recorded. The measurement of push-up move was done in push-up position. In arms bent on elbows position, the players moved their body toward the ground and up; and the number of push-ups done in 1 min was recorded (Bicer et al., 2004).

Standing long jump

A line was drawn on the field where the standing long jump test was done and from this line forward, a tape measure with a 0.01 sensitivity level was placed on the ground. In standing position, the players were placed in a way that their toe ends touch the line and were asked to jump forward. The players stopped at the place where their feet first touched the ground and the distance between the line and the players' heels was measured and recorded in centimeters. The measurement was done thrice and the best score was recorded.

Flamingo Balance Test

Flamingo Balance Test was used to determine the research group's static balance. In accordance with this test, the player stands on a wooden balance vehicle with 50 cm length, 4 cm height and 3 cm width on their dominant leg and stands in balance. The player bends the other leg on knee, pulls it to the hip and holds it with the hand on the same side. While the player is on balance in this position, the time starts and the player tries to stand in balance for 1 min. When the player is unbalanced (if he drops the held leg, falls down from the board, touches the ground with any part of his body etc), the time stops. The player stands on the balance vehicle again and when he is back on balance the time goes on. The test goes on this way for a minute. When the time is up, each player's attempt to get on balance (after falling) is counted and this number is recorded as the score of the player after the 1-min time is up (Hazar and Tasmektepligil, 2008).

20-meter speed

The players ran on a 20-m field with maximal speed. The time was recorded in seconds with a Casio brand chronometer. The test was repeated twice on the participants and the best score was recorded (Sevim, 1997).

Plank

It refers to maintaining the balance in facedown position, on elbows and feet, and heels are in line with the head position (Handzel, 2006).

Training program

Core area developing moves determined by researchers in the literature (Takatani, 2012; Thomas and William, 2009; Basset and Leach, 2011) were implemented in the present research by certified trainers who did their master degree in Mugla Sitki Kocman University, School of Physical Education and Sports. Before the trainings, general and specific 15 to 20 min warm-ups that are appropriate to the moves in the training were conducted. The moves were conducted with time and repetition methods and rests that are suitable to the loads were given. 30 to 35 min program was

Table a: 12-Week Core Training Program Implemented Within Research

| Exercises | 1-3 weeks | 4-6 weeks | 7-9 weeks | 10-12 weeks |
|------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------------|
| Side bend | 20 sec. | 25 sec. | 20 sec. | 25 sec. |
| Reverse plank with leg raise | 10 rep. | 15 rep. | 10 rep. | 15 rep. |
| Alternate less jump | 15 rep. | 20 rep. | 15 rep. | 20 rep. |
| Squat | 20 rep. | 25 rep. | 20 rep. | 25 rep. |
| Do crunches | 20 rep. | 25 rep. | 20 rep. | 25 rep. |

Table b: 12-Week Core Training Program Implemented Within Research

| Exercises | 1-3 weeks | 4-6 weeks | 7-9 weeks | 10-12 weeks |
|--------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------------|
| Lying twist trunk | 20 sec. | 25 sec. | 20 sec. | 25 sec. |
| Twist with medicine ball | 20 sec. | 25 sec. | 20 sec. | 25 sec. |
| Side bridge | 25 sec. | 30 sec. | 25 sec. | 35 sec. |
| Alternate plank | 15 sec. | 20 sec. | 23 sec. | 25 sec. |
| Alternate superman | 15 sec. | 20 sec. | 23 sec. | 25 sec. |

Table 1. Body weight averages of the groups (kg).

| Groups | N | X (kg) | Standard deviation |
|-----------------|----|--------|--------------------|
| U-16 Experiment | 15 | 56.27 | 5.71 |
| U-16 Control | 15 | 57.07 | 3.9 |
| Total | 30 | | |

Table 2. Height averages of the groups (cm).

| Groups | N | X(cm) | Standard deviation |
|-----------------|----|----------|--------------------|
| U-16 Experiment | 15 | 161.4667 | 7.17004 |
| U-16 Control | 15 | 163.2000 | 5.62139 |
| Total | 30 | | |

implemented on the experiment group for 12 weeks, twice a week in Bodrumspor synthetic pitch on free days in addition to the regular training (Table a and b). The control group conducted their regular training program without any additions.

The training program presented in the table above was implemented in accordance with the wave method as: 1st-3rd Weeks: 1 Set; 4th-6th Weeks: 2 Sets; 7th-9th Weeks: 3 Sets; 10th-12th Weeks: 2 Sets. Before the training, pre-test measurements of both groups were taken; and after 12-week core training program post-test measurements of groups were taken.

Statistical analysis

Obtained data were analyzed on computer. Arithmetic averages (X), and standard variations (sv) of the experiment and control groups were calculated and Paired Samples t-test was used to detect differences between pre-tests and post-tests. Significance level was taken as p<0.05.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings obtained after 12-week core training program are presented below in tables. Table 1 and 2 show physical features and Table 3 and 4, show the statistics for motoric capabilities. The abbreviations used in the research are as follows; Standing Long Jump (SLJ), Flamingo Balance Test (FBT), Vertical Jump Test (VJT).

Body weight averages of the groups in the research 1 are as follows; U-16 experiment group= 56.27 kg; Control group= 57.07 kg.

Height averages of the groups in the research 2 are as follows; U-16 experiment group= 161.46 cm; control group= 163.20 cm.

Before and after core training parameter measurements of U-16 experiment group of the research, there were significant differences at p<0.05 level between pre-test

Table 3. Core training pre-test, post-test values of U-16 age group players.

| U-16 Experiment group | n | Pre-test (X, ±ss) | Post-test (X, ±ss) | t | df | p |
|-----------------------|----|-------------------|--------------------|--------|----|--------|
| SLJ | 15 | 86.60±4.96 | 114.67±7.97 | -13.03 | 14 | 0.000* |
| Shuttle | 15 | 43.80±5.97 | 53.73±8.17 | -7.03 | 14 | 0.000* |
| FBT | 15 | 5.95±0.75 | 2.96±1.16 | 2.03 | 14 | 0.001* |
| Push-up | 15 | 41.33±2.22 | 52.20±4.39 | -11.28 | 14 | 0.000* |
| 20 m Speed | 15 | 3.29±0.155 | 3.26±.141 | 5.6 | 14 | 0.000* |
| Plank | 15 | 70.13±23.74 | 96.13±22.71 | -10.64 | 14 | 0.000* |
| VJT | 15 | 30.46±2.69 | 33.61±2.31 | -14.15 | 14 | 0.000* |
| Total | | | | | | |

p<0.05*.

Table 4. Soccer training pre-test, post-test values of U-16 age group players.

| U-16 Control group | n | Pre-test (X, ±ss) | Post-test (X, ±ss) | t | df | p |
|--------------------|----|-------------------|--------------------|--------|----|--------|
| SLJ | 15 | 93.47 ±6.70 | 98.33±5.56 | -4.07 | 14 | 0.05 |
| Shuttle | 15 | 42.20 ±3.70 | 45.40±3.43 | -9.39 | 14 | 0.000* |
| FBT | 15 | 5.72±4.36 | 4.01±1.34 | 2.5 | 14 | 0.004* |
| Push-up | 15 | 40.67±2.69 | 43.60±2.97 | -7 | 14 | 0.000* |
| 20 m Speed | 15 | 3.29±0.11 | 3.25±0.12 | 2.63 | 14 | 0.020* |
| Plank | 15 | 75.53±21.29 | 96.27±22.29 | -14.15 | 14 | 0.06 |
| VJT | 15 | 31.62±2.26 | 33.11±1.99 | -9.51 | 14 | 0.039* |
| Total | | | | | | |

p<0.05*.

and post-test measurements of standing long jump, shuttle, balance, push-up, speed, plank, and vertical jump.

Before and after soccer training parameter measurements of U-16 control group of the research, there were no significant differences between pre-test and post-test measures of standing long jump (SLJ), and plank ($p>0.05$). On the other hand, there were significant differences between pre-test and post-test measurements of shuttle, balance (FBT), push-up, vertical Jump (VJT) at $p<0.05$ significance level.

After 12-weeks core training, statistically significant differences were observed in 16 year-old players' motoric capabilities of; Standing Long Jump (SLJ), Shuttle, Push-up, Speed, Plank and Vertical Jump ($p<0.05$). Review of the related literature presented the followings.

Fredericson and Moore (2005) stated in their research conducted on short and long-distance runners that core training has an explosive effect, but it should be implemented with a well-designed program and a trainer. These findings comply with our research.

Kimitake and Monique (2009) emphasized that core training has an important effect on the performances of 5000 m runners. The findings of this research showed improvements in strength parameters and therefore comply with our research.

Thomas and William (2009) found in their research conducted on a female volleyball team that 40 m sprint

speed improved after core trainings; thus, it is in conformity with the findings of our research.

Hessari et al. (2011) implemented core training on hearing-impaired students to observe their balance development, and found significant differences. This improvement in soccer players' balances with core training is in conformity with the findings of our research.

Basset and Leach (2011) found that balance and endurance of elite young gymnasts improved with 8-week core training; therefore, it is parallel to our findings.

Casey et al. (2012) found in their research about the effect of core training on performance that core training contributes to performance positively. These findings share similarities with our findings.

Weston et al. (2013) found that 8-week core training contributes positively to the performance of golfers; which complies with our research.

Jim et al. (2013) found in their research conducted on university students that core and endurance trainings result in improvements in many parameters. However, they did not find any significant differences in vertical jump measurements. In the present research conducted on junior soccer players, significant differences were observed in vertical jump measurements. In this regard, this research differs from our research.

Afyon and Boyaci (2013), found positive findings in the study that investigation of the effects by compositely

edited core-plyometric exercises in sedentary man on some physical and motoric parameters.

Michelle and Jonathan (2013) provided improvement in balance and core endurance with core training implemented on high-school age athletes. In the present research, we observed similar improvements in balance and core endurance of 16 year-old soccer players. These findings are similar with our findings.

Li (2014) determined in the research conducted on Civil Aviation School students who selected soccer class that core training contributes to motoric capabilities positively. The findings of this research comply with the findings of the present research.

Consequently, it was observed that 12-week core training implemented on 16 year-old soccer players in addition to their yearly training program provided improvements in standing, long jump, shuttle, balance, push-up, speed and vertical jump parameters of soccer players. Because core training plays an important part in the development of major and minor muscles, it will contribute to the motoric and physical developments of players positively. With the strengthening of central area muscles, both core strength and core endurance of soccer players will improve. Soccer trainers can use core training as a strength development method, before the season or during the season if they feel a need to do it.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Opinions of literature teachers related to academic training, in-service training and organizational socialization process

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One of the utmost important functions of Turkish Education system is to teach Turkish Language at pre-schools, elementary schools, junior high schools and higher education institutions effectively. In this respect, at high schools which comprise the secondary schools, it is clear that Turkish Language and Literature teachers have paramount roles. In terms of Turkish language education, the principal function of junior high schools is to help students acquire skills in using Turkish efficiently, which is one of the ways of transferring national culture to students. Including the above mentioned reasons, the purpose of this study was to assess the views of Turkish Literature teachers on their academic training, in-service training and organizational socialization process that were sources for university education in terms of teaching Turkish language effectively. In the present study, 92 literature teachers carrying on their duties at primary high schools in 2013-2014 school-year in the province of Erzincan were interviewed on their professional socialization variables. Seventy-five teachers participated in a pre-test conducted in order to determine validity and reliability of "Literature Teachers Professional Socialization Variables Scale" used in the study. The results of the pre-test showed that in the multi-factor scale, total variance of the factors is 49.636%, while the reliability varies between 78.9 and 87.3%. According to the findings of the study, literature teachers stated that their "academic training", "in-service training" and "organizational socialization" practices ranked between "low and medium". The results of the study revealed that the pre-service training conducted just before teaching was far from adapting teachers effectively into teaching. In parallel with these results of the research, it was suggested that a career system promoting the leadership skills in teaching should be adopted by literature teachers.

Key words: Junior high school, literature teacher, professional socialization, academic training, in-service training, organizational socialization.

INTRODUCTION

Language is the most important and efficient communication of individuals as a social being. Language

unity is one of the most important requirements of being a nation. Also one of the basic mechanisms that provide a

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national state with national sense is effective language teaching (Demirel, 1999; Porzig, 1985). In democratic educational systems, one the main responsibilities of schools is to provide their students with functional literacy competence at all educational phases from pre-school education to higher education (Bıyıklı, 2013; Ministry of National Education-MNE, 1973: Basic law of National Education). Schools can only fulfill this function through an appropriate teaching for the characteristics of the language. In Turkish educational system in which compulsory education is gradually 4+4+4, all 12 years including primary, secondary and high schools, respectively, teachers are obliged to teach their students to speak Turkish accurately and nicely, and provide them with the ability of expressing Turkish in a written form (MNE, 2004: Regulation on Elementary Education Institutions; MNE, 2012: 6287 Sayılı Kademeli Eğitim Kanunu). Besides, secondary schools have responsibility of teaching general knowledge to their students at a minimum level. Methods for teaching general knowledge also include a successful process of Turkish learning and teaching. Turkish teaching in secondary education is actually a process under the authority and responsibility of Turkish language and literature teachers together with the school management (Ergin, 1977; Kolaç, 2008; Regulation on Secondary Education Institutions, 2006). The efficiency of language teaching can be determined through the individuals' skill of using language in communication.

Problem status

It is highly difficult to claim that secondary education students have the ability of speaking Turkish accurately and nicely. At the same time, it is also difficult to accept that their written expressions are at a desired level. The source of those two basic language teaching problems should be searched generally in Turkey's teacher training system and particularly in the process of Turkish language and literature teachers' academic training (Arslan, 2012; Özbaş, 2013; Duran, Sezgin and Çoban, 2011; Kantarcıoğlu, 2006; Karakuş, 2000; Kısakürek, 2009; Karagözoğlu, 2009; MNE, 2011; Orlich et al., 2010; Öztürk, 2005; Uğurlu et al., 2011; Board of Higher Education-BoHE, 2007). Moreover, the effect of secondary school Turkish teachers who are very active in students' secondary school education should not be underestimated. On the other hand, pre-school and primary school teachers' level of competence regarding Turkish teaching should be taken into consideration. One of the most important functions of Turkish educational system in all educational phases from pre-school education to higher education is to fulfill necessary teaching process for the effective, fluent, and productive

use of our language, Turkish (İnce, 2009; Topçuoğlu, 2003).

The qualification of language teaching together with educational level depends on teaching services' level of meeting the needs and expectations and the effectiveness of management in all learning-teaching processes (Karakuş, 1996; Ozil and Tapan, 1991). In this sense, Turkish language and literature teachers' fulfillment of their roles, authority and responsibilities which are required by their jobs is firstly linked with their being equipped with necessary competences of Turkish language and literature teaching as a job. It can be stated that the competences and standards regarding Turkish language and literature teaching pertain to these three complementary and supporting functions; "academic training in the level of higher education, in-service training and organizational socializing" (MNE, 2011; Kısakürek, 2009; Saks and Ashforth, 1997; Topçuoğlu, 2006; Uçan, 2006).

Unfulfilled secondary schools duties cause students not to have basic citizenship knowledge, and acquire skill and general knowledge at a minimum level. Among the competences of general knowledge, the followings have an important place; Turkish reading, comprehension, listening, grammar, and written or verbal expression skills. The reason why students fail in terms of these competences should be questioned within the context of teachers' inadequacy.

Inadequacy of Turkish language and literature teachers in secondary education is closely linked with teachers' process of academic training in higher education, in-service training, and the conditions of organizational socializing. Academic training process of Turkish language and literature teachers is the start-up phase of their job. Therefore, discussing Turkish language and literature teachers' process of academic training should cover the whole point of view in theory-practice synthesis. To what extent higher education applications prepare Turkish language and pre-service literature teachers, whether they occur within efficient faculty-school cooperation, and whether they are appropriate for professional standards or not should be revealed through large scale researches. In this sense, related faculties and departments which are responsible for educating pre-service Turkish language and literature teachers should be accredited both with national and international institutions and with European Union training institutions with which Turkey is in integration process. How and to what extent lecturers can prepare the pre-service teachers for Turkish language and literature teaching in terms of performance level and teaching competences should be the topic of large-scale scientific studies (Çalık, 2006; Taşdan and Erdem, 2010).

It is only possible for Turkish language and literature teachers to fulfill their roles and tasks within the

framework of their authority and responsibility only when they have professional competence and standards (Coşkun, 2006; Güzel, 2006; Saraç, 2006; Taşdelen, 2006).

When Turkish national education system is discussed in general terms, it can be claimed that not only the problems of Turkish language and literature teachers but also the problems of other teachers are arisen from their academic training, in-service training and organizational socialization. In this sense, the source of the problems related to Turkish language and literature teaching should be searched in national/international accreditation, professional competence and standards, academic training at university, in-service training after the appointment, and conditions of organizational socialization.

Purpose

One of the most important authorizations and responsibilities of democratic national education systems is to make students comprehend and practice formal language that is used as a spoken and written language taught by means of efficient learning-teaching experiences at a functional level. In Turkey, Turkish language and literature teachers are basically responsible for fulfilling this function (İpşiroğlu, 2004, Kaçalın and Benzer, 2006; Kasapoğlu, 2006). In this sense, Turkish language and literature teachers' organizational socialization conditions which are one of the crucial phases of their education, in-service training, vocational adjustment and commitment should be deeply searched in Turkey. It is very important both to evaluate the results and support the researches including academic training and socializing variables of the literature teachers.

Therefore, it was aimed in this research to emphasize stress on academic training, in-service training, and organizational socialization practices upon the theory-practice unity of Turkish language and literature teachers who are one of the important functions of effective language teaching. In parallel with this general purpose, besides the basic problem of "Turkish language and literature teachers' view on the process of their academic education, in-service training, and organizational socialization during their university education" the solutions for the following sub-problems were also tried to be provided:

1. What are the views of Turkish language and literature teachers?
2. Are there any statistically significant differences between the views of Turkish language and literature teachers according to the variables of their gender and

types of university they graduated from?

METHOD

Research model

In this study, the stress was laid on Turkish language and literature teachers' views upon academic training, in-service training, and the process of organizational socialization. This research was a comparative, scanning, and descriptive study in which it was aimed to determine the tendency of secondary school Turkish language and literature teachers towards academic training, in-service training, and the process of organizational socialization. The subject area of research on vocational socialization variables of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers includes theoretical approaches and legal and administrative regulations regarding the academic training applications especially during the education, in-service training, and organizational socialization processes of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers. The study population included 92 Turkish Language and Literature Teachers carrying on their duties in state and private secondary education institutions affiliated to the central districts of Erzincan in 2013-2014 academic year. The teachers who were asked for their views within the scope of this research were working in state and private, general, vocational and technical high schools in the Central District of Erzincan. Ninety-two Turkish Language and Literature Teachers who participated in this study stated their views and their views were regarded in details. In this study including the professional socialization variables of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers, the scale model revised by Burgaz and Özbaş (2013) in "Research on Teachers' Vocational Socialization" was benefited. Hence, the aforementioned scale was developed through taking the socialization features of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers into consideration in details in a wide angle and multi-variant approach of the researcher. The research scale was performed in research field in accordance with the permission obtained from Governorship of Erzincan, Provincial Directorate of National Education in January, 2014.

During the process of creating the scale of this study, the researcher reviewed the overall literature upon academic and in service training of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers, together with organizational socialization. Moreover, during the process of creating the scale, it was benefited not only from the various views and criticism of academicians carrying on their duties in the Turkish Language and Literature, Turkish Education and Educational Sciences departments, but also from the views and opinions of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers on duty and pre-service teacher who have been studying at university on teacher training system, in-service training, and organizational socialization process of teachers. In order to determine the level of content validity, the views, opinions, criticism, and suggestions of academicians were asked and discussed. In line with these views, opinions, criticism, and suggestions, the scale items in this study were revised, and the items which had same content and features were collected together in a more sensible way.

The pre-implementation including the participation of 75 Turkish Language and Literature Teachers was carried out so as to determine the construct validity of "The Scale of Vocational Socialization Variables of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers." On the other hand, this implementation was also carried out in order to specify the reliability level of the scale. Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Barlett Test were performed to the data obtained for determining whether factor analysis could be fulfilled on the pre-implementation data which were obtained from 75 Turkish

Table 1. Reliability (Alpha) coefficients and factor variances of the scale for vocational socialization variables of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers.

| Factor | Variance % | Alpha (α) |
|--|------------|--------------------|
| Academic education process of Turkish | 11.494 | .789 |
| In-service education process of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers | 19.243 | .860 |
| Organizational socialization process of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers | 18.899 | .873 |

Language and Literature Teachers or not. According to the results of this analysis, it was found that the value of KMO was significant at the level of .796, and the results of Barlett Test were significant at the level of .000. Finally, it was determined that the factor analysis could be carried out for the pre-implementation data in compliance with the statistical process results. Accordingly, Varimax Vertical Rotation Method was performed in order to evaluate whether the scale was single or multi factorial. As result of this analysis, it was noticed that the scale was multifactorial, and 11 items which were realized as not being categorized under 3 factors were considered as significant theoretically during the preparation of the scale, and those were excluded. Therefore, the number of items in the scale was reduced to 40. As result of the analysis performed on the 40 items, the total variance for 3 factors was 49.636%, and their reliability coefficient ranked between .789 and .873. The reliability coefficient and variance ratio were clearly presented in Table 1 according to the scale factors.

Analysis and data interpretation

The scale of the research was carried out in five-point likert approach. In the analysis of descriptive data obtained from the research, the statistical process techniques were used regarding the arithmetic average (\bar{X}) and standard deviation (SD). Seeing that data obtained from the scale corresponded to parametric test hypothesis, t-test was carried out for paired comparison related to gender. When the variables were more than 2, One Way ANOVA Statistics was used, and when the results of the analysis were significant, multi statistical comparisons were used so as to find the source of the differences of views. The level of 0.5 was as accepted as the level of significance for the statistical analysis and the comparison of data obtained from the scale.

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

According to the 3 factors of the scale, findings and analysis obtained from the research were interpreted primarily through descriptive and then comparative statistical analysis process beginning from the first factor.

Views of Turkish language and literature teachers related to their academic training process

Views of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers Related to Their Academic Training Process were generally at "medium" level ($\bar{X}=2.71$). That finding

pointed "low to mid" level, and proved that Turkish Language and Literature Teachers who were working at secondary schools did not find their undergraduate education efficient enough. Considering this result, it was possible to say that the undergraduate education system was not academically efficient and did not include successful teaching process. As could be seen in Table 2, according to the views of the teachers, the lowest levels were about the subject matter explained as "The psychological counselling and guidance of the pre-service teachers for their social, psychological or any other problems in their undergraduate education." This average actually indicating the option "never" shows that Turkish Language and Literature Teachers cannot get any kind of support for their psychological, social and any other problems. In the light of that finding, it was found out that psychological Counselling and Guidance Centers of the Universities (PDRM) could not operate as they should be.

Teachers are deprived of getting education in an academic and social unity. Hence, it is possible to deduct this result: "Universities in Turkey are deprived of some opportunities in order to train teachers as required in a contemporary way in the 21st century. Universities are not successful in terms of providing special knowledge related to the field practically" (Item 4; 2.67) and that problem is arisen from the insufficient cooperation of faculty and schools or the difference of theory and practice in special knowledge related to the field.

As seen in Table 2, according to the views of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers, "the acquisition of efficient teaching abilities in liberal knowledge course" (Item 5; $\bar{X}=3.41$) has the highest possibility of materializing. The points such as "Fulltime teaching of courses" (Item 6; 3.31) and "instructors' having the efficient practice abilities" (Item 7; 3.14) were some of the activities that Turkish Language and Literature Teachers were above the average.

The views of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers upon academic training were compared in Table 3. As clear in the table, both male and female teachers indicated their academic training process as "low to middle". In other words, Turkish Language and Literature Teachers found their undergraduate education or academic education practices inefficient and

Table 2. Views of Turkish language and literature teachers regarding their academic education process.

| Teacher | | |
|--|----|-----------|
| item | N | \bar{X} |
| Support taken by pre-service teachers for their psychological, social and any other problems from Psychological Counseling and Guidance Centers during their undergraduate education | 92 | 1.71 |
| Unity of pre-service teachers' education in terms of both life and profession | 92 | 2.36 |
| The existence of universities in Turkey that train teachers contemporaneously | 92 | 2.42 |
| Teaching special knowledge related to the area practically. | 92 | 2.67 |
| Acquisition of efficient teaching methods on liberal knowledge courses during the undergraduate education | 92 | 3.42 |
| Full time teaching of courses by lecturers at universities | 92 | 3.31 |
| Academic success adequacy of pre-service literature teachers and academicians responsible for special area courses. | 92 | 3.14 |

Table 3. Comparison of views of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers on their academic training process.

| Group | N | \bar{X} | SD | df | t | p |
|--------|----|-----------|------|----|------|------|
| Female | 48 | 2.89 | 1.16 | 90 | .874 | .416 |
| Male | 44 | 2.69 | .81 | | | |

P>.05.

unsuccessful. In terms of this factor, it was seen that there was no significant difference between the views of teachers. In Table 3, the probability of t-value ($p=.416$) was evaluated, and alpha was determined to be higher than the level of significance ($P>.05$) [$t(90)=.874$, $p>.05$]. Consequently, findings showed that gender did not change the academic education process of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers, and besides, focused on the inefficiency of universities on that matter.

The views of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers upon their faculty they graduated were discussed in three categories including Institute of Educational Sciences, Faculty of Science and Arts, and Faculty of Education; and in line with these views, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between them. When the faculties teachers graduated were considered, One Way ANOVA analysis was performed to compare their views. As a result of this analysis, there was no significant change in their opinions.

According to the variance of faculty, their opinions related to their academic training practices were generally at the level of 2.79 (low to mid). This average did not cause any statistical difference between the views. Without regarding what kind of faculty they graduated from, it was seen that their views were more or less similar and insufficient.

Views of Turkish language and literature teachers about their in-service training applications

Teachers found their in-service training applications dramatically insufficient and at a low-to-mid level ($\bar{X}=2.63$). In terms of vocational applications, this average had the lowest ratio when the other factors of the scale were taken into consideration. From this point of view, it could be simply understood that in-service training applications of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers in Turkish education system did not contribute adequately to their vocational socialization. Due to that aforementioned reason, Turkish Language and Literature Teachers may face some kind of adaptation and devotion problems into their jobs. As seen in Table 4, the subject matter in the factor of "Consulting to teacher evaluation on the effectiveness of in service training" (Item 8; 2.08) had the lowest realization ratio. This showed that teachers did not give feedback in which way in-service training was effective. During the in-service training, the factors that increased the rate of success together with the effectiveness were the ones in which the views were considered. The implementations such as "Basic and preliminary education considering the needs of the teachers" (Item 9; 2.19) and "Transformation of pre-service teacher training into professional" (Item 11; 2.56) were found as unsuccessful by Turkish Language and Literature Teachers. Basic and preliminary education process was thought as poorly performed works. According to the views of teachers, pre-service training provided for being a teacher was not regarded as a professional activity carried out by specialists in the field.

Turkish Language and Literature Teachers thought that "in-service training before new curriculum" (Item 10; 2.43) and alternative assessment and evaluation methods (Item 12; 2.58) were insufficient during the in-service training implementations. According to these findings, in-service training implementations were not carried out

Table 4. Views of Turkish language and literature teachers on their in service training applications.

| | | Teacher | |
|--|----|-----------|--|
| item | N | \bar{X} | |
| Consulting teachers' evaluation on the effectiveness of in service training | 92 | 2.08 | |
| Basic and preliminary education considering the needs of the teachers | 92 | 2.19 | |
| In-service training before new curriculum | 92 | 2.43 | |
| Transformation of teacher candidate education into a professional process to facilitate the adaptation for the job | 92 | 2.56 | |
| In service training on alternative assessment and evaluation methods | 92 | 2.58 | |
| The role of school directors in terms of effective teaching leadership | 92 | 2.94 | |
| Demand of teachers on in service training without any organizational necessity | 92 | 2.91 | |

Table 5. Comparison of opinions of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers on in-service training

| Group | N | \bar{X} | SD | df | t | p |
|--------|----|-----------|------|----|---------|------|
| Female | 48 | 2.53 | 1.15 | 90 | -47.015 | .416 |
| Male | 44 | 2.75 | 1.10 | | | |

P>.05

benefiting from a management approach based upon school; on the contrary carried out benefiting from a centralist, hierarchical and unilateral management approach. Different findings also proved that throughout the history of Turkish Republic, centralist management approach prevailed in the operation of curriculum; and the opinions, recommendations, and criticism of the implementers were ignored (Akbaşlıand, 2012; Arslan, 2012; Kırpık, 2013). Constructivist teaching methods which have been implemented since 2005-2006 academic year in Turkey has included some kind of alternative assessment and evaluation methods such as "assessment through project, portfolio, etc." According to the findings of this research, it was stated by Turkish Language and Literature Teachers that no in-service training on alternative assessment and evaluation methods were provided.

The points such as "The role of school directors in terms of effective teaching leadership (Item 13; 2.94) and demand of teachers on in-service training without any organizational necessity (Item 14; 2.91)" were found relatively successful during the in-service training process. The comparison of the views related to Turkish Language and Literature Teachers upon their in-service training in terms of gender factor was presented in Table 5. As seen in Table 5, male teachers had arithmetically higher scores than the female teachers about in-service training implementations. However, this ratio was not statistically significant. The reason for the higher scores of male teachers could be arisen from their participation

in in-service trainings more than females, and they also thought that in-service training process was effective. Moreover, the fact that male teachers could be in the position of both director and teacher, and also they play role in organizational process of in-service training could affect their point. In Table 5, the probability of t-value (-47.015) was ($p=.873$), and it was also determined that the level was higher than the alpha significance value ($P>.05$) chosen for the research [$t(90)=.873$, $p>.05$]. Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference between the views, but the average scores obtained from the views of female Turkish Language and Literature Teachers were grouped much in the option of "less." Female Turkish Language and Literature Teachers considered in-service training implementations as ineffective.

Consequently, it was found that, views of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers about their in-service training did not create a statistically significant difference regardless of the variance related to their different faculties. One Way ANOVA Statistics performed to reveal the different views presented that there was no statistically significant difference. Turkish Language and Literature Teachers who graduated from Institute of Educational Sciences, Faculty of Science and Arts, and Faculty of Education found in-service training at an evenly low or low to mid-level.

Views of Turkish language and literature teachers about organizational socialization implementations

Like the other factors of the scale, average score for the views of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers on Organizational Socialization Applications was at a low-to-mid level ($\bar{X}=2.81$). This finding revealed the construct validity of "Multi Variables Scale of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers' Vocational Socialization" since the scale had a very good performance to evaluate the vocational socialization variables that had a holistic

Table 6. Views of Turkish language and literature teachers on organizational socialization applications.

| Teacher | | |
|--|----------|-----------|
| item | N | \bar{X} |
| Social status of teaching profession in Turkey as it deserves | 92 | 1.65 |
| Care of Ministry or Education about the profession satisfaction of teachers | 92 | 1.90 |
| Ministry of Education's consulting teachers' views before implementation of curriculum. | 92 | 2.30 |
| Support and encouragement to teachers for their promotion in the profession | 92 | 2.31 |
| The fact that promotion of teachers in their profession and awarding are based on their performance. | 92 | 2.44 |
| Cooperation of Ministry of Education, city, district, and the school management with teachers on the adaptation, commitment, and devotion to their profession. | 92 | 2.94 |
| Fulltime working of teachers | 92 | 3.76 |
| Communication of teachers with their colleagues effectively | 92 | 3.63 |
| Democratic quality of teachers' council. | 92 | 3.59 |
| Compromise of teachers in some possible conflicts | 92 | 3.55 |

feature in different factors. The failure of organizational socialization applications created some problems for all teachers and Turkish Language and Literature Teachers, as well, to adapt and specifically devote themselves to their profession. As seen in Table 6, Turkish Language and Literature Teachers indicated "none" for "Social status of teaching profession in Turkey is as it deserves" (Item 15; 1.65). Turkish Language and Literature Teachers thought that teaching profession did not have the social status it deserved actually in 2000s in Turkey. This finding indicated the item which had the lowest average in the scale. The fact that the social status of teachers was mostly ignored turned their adaptation, commitment, and devotion into the profession difficult and affected it adversely. The reason for the low social status of teachers had an impact on their performance, attitude, and their educational management. The subject matter of "Care of Ministry or Education about the profession satisfaction of teachers" also had a level close to "none". In addition, the subject matter of "Cooperation of Ministry of Education, city, district and the school management with teachers on the adaptation, commitment and devotion to their profession" had the level of "less." All these findings showed that the ignorance of teachers' professional satisfaction, failure of cooperation between school management and the teacher during the process of adaptation, commitment, and devotion into their profession;" and furthermore, the teachers' failure of participation into preparing the curriculum" (Item 17; 1.90) caused considerably the low social status of teachers.

As seen in Table 6, "Discouragement of career development for Turkish Language and Literature Teachers" (Item 18; 2.30) and "the fact that promotion of teachers in their profession and awarding were based upon their performance" (Item 19; 2.31) pointed out the

failure of socialization process. It was noticed that, in Turkey, the people who have been working at a profession with high social status had a very good career system. Health, security, defense and jurisdiction services were prominent among these professions. Throughout the history of Turkish Republic, an examination for promotion was carried out in 2005 for the teachers who graduated from bachelor's degree and also for the ones who graduated from associate degree in 2006. Although 8 years went by, the examination has not been carried out again as from June 2014 on which this research was completed. It was found that public education system did not develop a promotion system for teachers. Turkish Language and Literature teachers emphasized that promotion in the profession was not based upon the actual performance in terms of both teachers and teachers working in school management. On the contrary, it was based upon informal relations which were not related to efficiency. Over and above, they claimed that there was no cooperation of Ministry of Education, city, district, and the school management with teachers in terms of adaptation, commitment, and devotion to their profession. Conversely, this cooperation was necessarily required for teachers in order to make their adaptation, commitment, and devotion into their profession better.

According to the results of this research, Turkish Language and Literature Teachers thought "full-time working" (Item 21; 3.76) as a fact reflecting the application which belonged to themselves or their own performances. Therefore, it was concluded that teachers obeyed disciplinary working rules at a "high" level in terms of time management according to their own views.

On the other hand, they found themselves highly successful when considering the subject matter of

“efficient communication of teachers with their colleagues” (Item 22; 3.63); and additionally, it was stated that teachers could “compromise in event of any conflict with the other colleagues or other relative parties” (Item 24; 3.55).

According to the results of this research, when organizational socialization was considered, Turkish Language and Literature Teachers, except for themselves, found their organization democratic enough in terms of “democratic quality of teachers’ council” (Item 23; 3.59). Turkish Language and Literature Teachers thought that teachers’ council was democratic as they could express themselves and also the operation process of the organization was well enough, and it could carry out elections and commission functions well. Besides this, there was no significant difference in terms of the school types teachers graduated and gender factors. Both female and male Turkish Language and Literature Teachers who graduated from institutes of educational sciences, faculty of science and arts, and faculty of education found organizational socialization process good enough at a “medium level.”

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

One of the elements of democratic education systems is related to the level of competence in terms of the academic teacher training. Hence, “Vocational Socialization Variables of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers” which played a crucial role in Turkish Education System was emphasized in this research. Applications on Vocational Socialization of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers were basically discussed in 3 factors as academic education, in-service training, and organizational socialization process. When considered as a whole, academic education, in-service training and organizational socialization process of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers were found generally inefficient and useless. It was determined that in-service training of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers was deprived of a good performance which would make their adaptation into the professions simpler. Therefore, it was found that in-service training implementations were the most inefficient application among the aforementioned 3 factors. According to many researches carried out throughout the history of Turkish Republic and this research, as well, pointed out that in-service training implementations did not realize its functions well enough (Çelik, 1998; Demirbolat, 2011; Demirtaş, 2000; Doğan, 1972; Kantemir, 1976; Kartal, 2006; Karakuş, 2000; Kaya, 1977; MNE, 2011; Uğurlu et al., 2011). Moreover, pre-service teacher training was not a process which facilitated the adaptation into profession for teachers.

Upon in-service training, pre-service teacher training

created the adaptation process. In the research, it was seen that basic and preliminary training and practical training were not carried out as professionally as it should be. That caused the failure of adaptation, commitment, and devotion to the profession in terms of teachers. One of the crucial benefits of this pre-service teacher training is to make teachers devoted to their professions. However, in the research, it was seen as a failure and could not carry out that function.

The importance of in-service training and acquisition of the benefits of this training were discussed in the research (Balci et al., 2012; Çalık, 2006; Goldman and Manders, 2008; Kartal, 2005; Mowday et al., 1979; Saks and Ashforth, 1997; Sezer et al., 1991; Tekişik, 2009). According to the findings of the research, teachers were not subject to an advanced training before new curriculum. So, acquisition of skills for the application of programs and especially introduction of renewals related to the teaching program played a significant role. Turkish Language and Literature Teachers emphasized the importance of teaching leadership role for the school management and also efficiency of their performance. They drew attention to in-service training, and accordingly, without any obligation, they stated that they felt themselves desired for participating into in-service training. In parallel with the research results, Çelik (2011) drew attention upon the fact that the efficiency in language and literature teaching could be provided through the competence of literature teachers. And it was emphasized that teacher competences could be provided through in-service trainings adapting into the theories and methods in language teaching. One of the three factors of this research in terms of higher education implementations was the academic training process of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers. Higher education or academic activities were the basic implementations for educating teachers. In this research, it was found that Turkish Language and Literature Teachers did not find higher education system successful, and did not consider it as a solution for their psychological, social, and some other problems.

Teachers thought that higher education institutions failed to satisfy the required skills and abilities in the 21st century and equip pre-service teachers with a rich, vocational and general knowledge atmosphere; and they also stated that they could not acquire special teaching skills in the field of Turkish Language and Literature. It can be claimed that this was caused by the incoordination between the higher education institutions and Ministry of National Education. Dilidüzgün (2002) indicated that successful Turkish and Literature teachers could be trained when there is an efficient planning and coordination between the higher education institutions and Ministry of National Education. Not only in this research but many other researches carried out before

have claimed that higher education system was insufficient for educating pre-service teachers well enough (Baki, 2009; Dilidüzgün, 2001; Gökalp-Alpaslan, 2000; Gündüz, 2009; Karagözoğlu, 2009; Kavcar, 1987; Kavcar, 1994; Kavcar, 2003; Kerman, 2009; Kısakürek, 2009; MNE, 2006; Oğuzkan, 1994; Özoğlu, 2010; Öztürk, 2005; Sever, 1996). It was noticed that Turkish Language and Literature Teachers regarded teaching of higher education implementations successful in terms of general knowledge courses and acquisition of the required skills. It was ascertained that they found the performances of lecturers who were specialist in a certain field as successful. The final purpose of academic teacher training systems and implementations was to provide teachers with a high level of vocational socialization and make them competent. In this research, it was discussed on which level this purpose could be achieved. One of the basic elements of vocational socialization was organizational socialization. This research showed that organizational socialization did not provide vocational socialization for teachers. Teachers emphasized failure in different ways focusing on the negative effects. Turkish Language and Literature Teachers thought that they did not have the social status that they deserved in 2000s. In organizational socialization implementations, it was determined that vocational socialization signs such as job satisfaction, giving value, consulting the teacher, and promoting them depending on the real performance criteria not carried out effectively. Turkish Language and Literature teachers considered that Ministry of Education which has to undertake some functions in terms of organizational socialization not fulfilling its responsibilities. They pointed out that there was no coordination between Ministry of Education and provincial and district directorate for national education and school management.

Turkish language and Literature teachers emphasized that they worked fulltime in terms of performance and they were always in contact with their colleagues, and tried to find solutions when they had conflict with them. One of the results of this research was that teachers' council had a democratic quality.

Suggestions

Depending upon the aforementioned results obtained from this research, it is possible to offer the suggestions below:

1. In order to make teaching profession more reputable, Ministry of Education should internalize the importance of the profession and make presentations to the public to show that they are aware of how important this profession is.
2. A unique strategy for teacher education should be

developed in order to educate teachers who are compatible with national and social values special to Turkey, and support democratic compromise and do not look up other politics and applications.

3. Ministry of Education should consult the views of teachers in the process of any kind of decree and application related to the education system.
4. Lecturers carrying on their duties in higher education institutions should have teaching leadership to make pre-service teachers acquire academic, social and democratic skills.
5. It should be compulsory for Turkish Language and Literature Teachers to graduate from a relevant and appropriate field.
6. Training for pre-service teachers should get rid of ordinary process; and on the contrary, should be transformed into a professional process conducted by specialists.
7. Turkish Language and Literature Teachers should be provided with opportunities for improving themselves in their career as teacher leaders.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

The effect of hidden curriculum on the criteria parents use to select schools and teachers

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A framework of school and teacher qualities has been established by research. The need to identify families' school and teacher selection criteria, in particular, is the main motive behind the present study. It mainly aims to identify the criteria parents use when selecting schools and teachers, or the influence of hidden curriculum on school and teachers' selection. The study adopted the descriptive scanning model, and employed quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments. The main data source are parents whose children attend private schools. "Parents' School Selection Criteria Scale" and "Parents' Teacher Selection Criteria Scale" were administered to 202 parents, and an interview form was used to collect qualitative data from 12 parents. Scores showing parents' opinion about school and teacher selection criteria were discussed with reference to set intervals. ANOVA and t-test were used to identify whether there is a significant difference between these opinions with respect to parents' level of education. The results of the analysis were interpreted at .05 level of significance, and only the items revealing a significant difference are presented in the tables. The data collected from the interviews were interpreted by content analysis, and the results are accompanied by direct quotations for enhanced meaning. It was found out that the main criteria used for school and teacher selection consist of the elements of hidden curriculum related with the school and teacher, that the parents attach greater importance to teachers than they do to schools, and the qualities of teacher is the major criterion used for school selection.

Key words: School selection, teacher selection, hidden curriculum.

INTRODUCTION

Moving with the times and meeting the educational standards of developed countries is possible only by means of modern, high-quality, and effective education. Today, increasing importance is attached to the necessity of top-notch education, and thus to the necessity of training better equipped teachers.

Schools are institutions where education is given within an organized setting in a planned and systematic fashion

(Ada and Baysal, 2010). An individual learns not only the socially acceptable behavior types, but also different ways of communicating with adults and peers outside their own families at school, which is the institution officially responsible for preparing individuals for future and transferring societal values (Oktay, 2010).

Schools are generally supposed to provide equal opportunity to every student when teaching the behaviors

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that they have to teach (Bloom, 1995). Although schools serve the same cause and are expected to have the same features theoretically, they differ from each other in terms of the processes they follow in implementing the formal curriculum and the unwritten characteristics they possess. Put differently, just as each individual learns differently, each school has its own teaching and learning environment (Başaran, 1996). These differences can be explained by hidden curriculum, which is often defined as unspoken features. Hidden curriculum is the knowledge, ideas, and practices, other than the goals and activities of the teaching-learning process indicated in the official curriculum (Tan, 2007). Hidden curriculum involves the architectural features and decoration of the school building, the classes and the time allocated to classes, extracurricular activities and time devoted to these activities (Yüksel, 2004), the behaviors, attitudes, values, beliefs of teachers and administrators at school, the nature of the school atmosphere, the interaction patterns and opportunities the school provides to students, and the unwritten rules of the school (Demirel, 2011). They may be even more influential in determining the quality of schools than the written rules of the school. A study carried out by Anyon (1981) demonstrated that the education service provided by schools changes according to the socio-economic background of students. This study revealed that every school has a hidden curriculum depending on the socio-economic status of students, and the hidden curriculum of schools varies greatly although everything is the same in the formal curriculum.

The families rightfully hope for the best quality and most ideal school conditions for their children. However, since the very first day the concept of school emerged, what the "ideal" features of a school are have always been debated (Ural, 2009). This discussion also means that families are given the chance to select schools for their children (Abdulkadiroğlu and Sönmez, 2003). On the other hand, the school choice has gained increasing importance as a strategy that increases academic performance (Cullen et al., 2006). Because there are many dimensions affecting the efficiency of the school, several factors should be considered together when selecting the school (Hoxby, 2003).

Bernal (2005) found out that low-income families prefer state schools, while middle- and high-income families prefer private schools. The socio-economic variety of student sources drastically influences the school and classroom climate. This may be the reason why parents prefer schools which they believe are more prestigious although elementary and secondary schools have to, by law, follow the same formal curriculum. At this point, the families may tend to prefer private schools to state schools. However, private schools, too, may have different properties as to the elements of hidden curriculum (educational philosophies, features of teachers and other staff, unique environment characteristics, and representation of certain religious and political

perspectives) (İnan, 2003).

Another deciding factor in school selection is the teacher. The qualities of the teacher who creates the environment conducive to teaching and learning are extremely important, and the success of a school is restricted with its teachers (Arı, 2003). No matter which model, approach, or strategy is observed in the learning process, the teacher is in the core of everything (Erdoğan, 2009). The teacher's role is critical for school performance and personality development, particularly for the elementary school student. Indeed, the most dominant role outside of a child's family belongs to the teacher, and its impact continues even after the school years (Oktay, 2010). Because of this, teacher selection is as important as school selection in a child's life.

Leaving from the principle "schools are only as successful as their teachers", the teacher is a sole issue that needs to be decided, let alone being an important factor affecting the school choice (Yavuzer, 2001).

The role of the teacher throughout the teaching learning process, who directs and accomplishes teaching (Duman, 2011) should assist children to gain desired behaviors and make this process possible. Teachers should serve this process by implementing the curriculum effectively, arranging for the suitable learning environment, and determining the achievement levels (Senemoğlu, 1994). A modern teacher is generally accepted to be consistent, conscious, flexible, and open to developments, democratic, cooperative and ready to take criticism (Bilen, 2006).

Teachers have to follow the same formal curriculum, yet they do not follow the same teaching processes. Because different viewpoints, thoughts, and understandings of teachers are reflected in educational practices, different educational processes emerge in different schooling institutions, or even in different classes at the same school. Just as this difference can be a consequence of teachers' own personal traits, beliefs, and opinions, so can it be due to the circumstances or the educational philosophy of the school, teachers' different levels of professional development and their implications for the education processes. According to Chen (2013), professional development of teachers depends on the professional training they received and their own willingness to develop professionally. These characteristics associated with the concept of hidden curriculum has a far greater influence on students than the formal curriculum (Yüksel, 2004). Although scientific studies have constructed a framework of school and teacher qualities, the main motive behind this study is the need to establish the school and teacher selection criteria according to the expectations of families. As a matter of fact, the main goal of the present study is to identify the criteria according to which parents select schools and teachers, or put differently to identify the influence of hidden curriculum on the school and teacher selection.

To this end, the present study seeks answers to the

Table 1. Personal information about the sample.

| | | f | % |
|------------------|------------------------------------|-----|------|
| School graduated | Elementary or secondary school | 20 | 9,9 |
| | High school | 22 | 10.9 |
| | University | 160 | 79.2 |
| | Total | 202 | 100 |
| Income | Equal to or less than the expenses | 133 | 65.9 |
| | Greater than expenses | 69 | 34.1 |
| | Total | 202 | 100 |

following research questions:

- 1) What criteria do parents use for school selection?
- 2) What is the effect of the following on parents' school selection criteria?
 - a) Their education level
 - b) Their income
- 3) What criteria do parents use for teacher selection?
- 4) What is the effect of the following on parents' teacher selection criteria?
 - a) Their education level
 - b) Their income

METHODS

The study, which aims to determine the school and teacher selection criteria used by parents, adopted descriptive scanning model.

Participants

As for state elementary schools, students must by law enroll in the school nearest to their addresses registered in the national address database; thus, parents are not entitled to prefer schools or teachers. Therefore, the study focused on parents whose children attend private schools. Of the 507 parents whose children are 1st, 2nd, and 3rd graders at three private schools in Balıkesir, a total of 202 volunteered to participate in the study; quantitative data was collected from these parents by using the scales developed as part of this study. The demographic information about these participants is displayed in Table 1.

As can be seen in Table 1, the majority (79.2%) of the parents that participated in the study are university graduates, and more than half (62.4%) have incomes equivalent of their expenses.

Qualitative data were collected from 12 parents by using an interview form. These parents participated in the study on voluntary basis. A total of 12 parents were interviewed, 4 from each school.

Data collection

Quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments were used together to obtain data pertaining to the sub-questions of the research both holistically and in a detailed way. Two scales, namely "Parents' Criteria for School Selection" (PCSS) and "Parents' Criteria for Teacher Selection" (PCTS), and an interview form were utilized as the data collection instruments in the study. The scales

have 21 items and were developed by the researcher. Each item in the tool used a 5-point Likert scale with response categories of 'unimportant', 'partially important', 'important', 'fairly important', and 'absolutely important', allowing the participants to indicate their opinions about school and teacher selection. The scale items were constructed based on the literature focusing on ideal school and teacher properties (Abdulkadiroglu and Sonmez, 2003; Cullen et al., 2006; Elacqua et al., 2006; Hesapçioğlu and Nohutçu, 1999; Hoxby, 2003; Keskin and Turna, 2010; Topaç et al., 2012).

The construct validity of instruments was ensured by the help of 12 expert views. To identify the factorial structure of the scales, Kasier-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Barlett test results were evaluated to find out whether the data at the onset of factor analysis is suitable for factor analysis or not, and the results have proven statistically significant according to PCSS (KMO=0.79; Barlett test=1.1933; df=210; p<.000) and PCTS (KMO=0.80; Barlett test=1.1463; df=210; p<.000). So as to test the structure validity of the scales, factor analysis was performed with data belonging to 202 participants through principal component analysis by using varimax rotation. Factor loadings of the 22 items in PCSS vary between the given values: .40 and .82 in the first matrix (5 items), .45 and .79 in the second matrix (6 items), .63 and .77 in the third matrix (3 items), .69 and .73 in the fourth matrix (2 items), .51 and .80 in the fifth matrix (3 items), and .54 and .59 in the sixth matrix (2 items). The PCSS scale scores had an adequate internal consistency ($\alpha=0.84$). Factor loadings of the 22 items in PCTS vary between the following values: .57 and .75 in the first matrix (4 items), .43 and .6 in the second matrix (5 items), .44 and .72 in the third matrix (5 items), .69 and .70 in the fourth matrix (2 items), .46 and .67 in the fifth matrix (3 items), and .42 and .80 in the sixth matrix (2 items). The PCTS scale scores also had an adequate internal consistency ($\alpha=0.73$). That all the items in both scales have factor loadings higher than .30 may indicate that the items of the scale effectively measure what they are meant to measure. According to Tavşancıl (2002), between .30 and .40 can be taken as the factor loadings intersection value. The analysis revealed that they are both six-matrix scales. PCSS explains a total variance of 58.316%. The first factor explains a variance of 14.227%; second factor, 13.397%; third factor, 8.926%; fourth factor, 7.999%; fifth factor, 7.589% and sixth factor, 6.179%. PCTS explain 58.860% of the total variance. The first factor explains 12.324%; the second factor, 11.949%; the third factor, 10.986%; the fourth factor, 9.342%; the fifth factor, 7.891%, and the sixth factor, 6.329%. Büyüköztürk (2005) stated that the total variance explained should be 30% and higher in single-factor scales, and it should be higher in multi-factor scales.

There are 6 items on school selection and 5 items on teacher selection on the research-prepared design to probe the criteria used by parents for school and teacher selection. While preparing the items, the researcher paid attention to consistency with the items in the interview form, school and teacher qualities, and

Table 2. School selection criteria.

| | N | X | S |
|---|-----|------|------|
| Schools' performance according to students' success in national exams | 202 | 4.10 | .071 |
| School's being near home or easily accessible | 202 | 2.80 | .085 |
| Extracurricular activities (trips, sports, drama, and similar activities) | 202 | 3.57 | .071 |
| Physical conditions of the school (playground, library, laboratories, sportshall, etc.) | 202 | 4.20 | .062 |
| A family member or a close acquaintance being the alumni of the school | 202 | 1.76 | .077 |
| Recommendations about the school | 202 | 3.07 | .072 |
| The generally positive fame of the school | 202 | 3.54 | .074 |
| Child's opinion or preference | 202 | 3.68 | .077 |
| Relatives or acquaintance among the school staff | 202 | 1.34 | .057 |
| Qualified teachers | 202 | 4.54 | .054 |
| Physical structure and appearance of the school | 202 | 3.65 | .075 |
| Small class size | 202 | 4.14 | .068 |
| School administrators' and staff's attitude toward parents | 202 | 4.29 | .063 |
| The school's being a national or an international franchise | 202 | 3.15 | .091 |
| Half-day or extended education provided | 202 | 3.65 | .082 |
| Registration fee and other costs | 202 | 3.92 | .072 |
| Other parents' recommendations | 202 | 3.10 | .076 |
| Order and hygiene in the environment | 202 | 4.57 | .048 |
| Security and safety regulations at school | 202 | 4.68 | .045 |
| Whether the school is centrally located or not | 202 | 2.80 | .096 |
| Success of the school in fields of art and sports | 202 | 3.46 | .079 |

principles of developing interview forms (Yıldırım, 2013). The interview form was finalized based on the experts' view.

The researcher enclosed the questionnaires in envelopes and had the students take them home to their parents, and the parents sent them back in the same way. A total of 12 parents, who were selected according to convenience principle, were interviewed face-to-face, and the interviews were tape-recorded.

Data analysis

The quantitative data collected to seek an answer to the subquestions of the research were analyzed by SPSS. The values indicating parents' opinion about school and teacher selection criteria were analyzed with reference to the set intervals. The scales used had 5 Likert options and 4 intervals (4:5=0.8), so the intervals were evaluated within the 0.8 range, starting from 1 and extending to 5 (1-1.80 "Unimportant", 1.81-2.60 "Partially Important", 2.61-3.40 "Important", 3.41-4.20 "Fairly important" and 4.21-5.0 "Absolutely important"). When the responses were analyzed, the data that fall right between two response categories were considered to belong to the higher category. To test whether parents' opinion about school and teacher selection criteria vary according to their education level, ANOVA was run because the variances were homogeneous; and to test whether it varies according to parents' income level, t-test was used. The significance level of the difference between results was accepted to be .05, and only the significant differences were included in the tables.

The data obtained by interviews were interpreted by content analysis. The data collected were categorized into the pre-determined themes and analyzed accordingly. This type of data analysis presents the organized and analyzed data to the reader (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2013). The data thus collected from the interviews were described around the themes determined according to the sub-questions of the research, and these descriptions were

supported by verbatim quotes taken from the interviews. The parents interviewed were numbered from 1 to 12, and when the quotes were presented to the reader, a "P" code accompanied by a number was used. To triangulate data, qualitative results, tables displaying descriptive statistics pertaining to parents' views on schools and teacher selection, and quantitative results are presented together.

RESULTS

This subsection includes visual representations of results derived from the scales. It also presents direct quotations taken from interview forms to validate the consistency of results obtained from different data sources. Table 2 presents the results pertaining to parents' school selection.

An analysis of parents' opinion on school selection criteria in Table 2 indicates that five criteria are rated as "definitely important": "Physical conditions of the school", "Qualified teachers", "Attitude of school administration and staff to parents", "Sanitary conditions and orderliness", and "Adequate safety and security regulation at school". "A family member or a close acquaintance being the alumni of the school" and "presence of relatives or acquaintances among the school staff" criteria were rated as unimportant by the parents. The results obtained show that parents take into account such scientific and current criteria as institutional structure, and teacher qualities.

The interview results revealed that half of the parents find extra-curricular activities (e.g. trips, sports, drama) an

important criterion because they believe these activities assist the development of children in all aspects, while for the other half find it insignificant. For example, a parent (P-12) stated the following: *"...It is definitely an important factor. Extra-curricular activities are essential for children's physical and social development, and the presence of these activities influences our decision about a school ..."* On the other hand, another parent (P-4) expressed disagreement: *"It is not a determinant factor. I discovered this aspect of the school much later, so I can tell it is not an influential factor"*.

The interview results pointed to an overwhelming agreement among parents about the importance of how well the school is physically equipped (playground, library, laboratories, sports hall, the class sizes, etc.). However, parents attach varying degrees of importance to these factors. Indeed, a parent (P-8) stated the following *"...These are very important properties influencing school choice. Is there a playground? Is it sufficient for children? And is there a sports hall? I took all these into consideration. In addition, the classroom environment is very important. I think this is the very reason why private schools are preferred to state schools. I'd like my child to be educated in a reasonably sized class rather than in a crowded class."* On the other hand, another parent (P-6) stated his opinion as follows: *"...It is important that children have the space where they can play. The existence of utilities such as sports hall and laboratories appeals to me just as it does other parents. The conditions in the classroom are of secondary importance to me. My priority is the conditions of the school in general ..."*

As for the item which probes the effect of whether a relative or an acquaintance received education at that institution, a parent (P-8), like the big majority, stated that it *"...did not have any effect because no relative or acquaintance had gone to the school we preferred,"* while few said it had an effect. For example, (P-4) said the following: *"A close relative's child was at the same school. Their experiences were important to us. For example; we saw a dramatic increase in the child's performance, which influenced our decision"*.

The interview results reveal three main response categories pertaining to the importance of recommendations about the school: "effective", "ineffective", and "effective but not determinant". In the view of one parent (P-3) who thinks this is effective: *"The comments and saying about a school is determinant. I have made a mini survey to find out what people in my environment think about the school. My decision became certain in the light of these."* A parent (P-6) who does not think it is has an effect says the following: *"...it is not a criterion for me because my own observation means more to me. Of course you hear some comments, but I never act according to them. My own observation and what I think after I talk to the school*

administration is the most important for me..." A parent (P-3) who falls in the third group, i.e. who thinks it is important yet not a determinant factor stated the following on this issue: *"...It had an effect but was not a sole determinant. That it was an institutional brand name appealed to us. Comments about the school did not mean much to us..."*

Parallel to the majority of the parents who participated in the study, a parent (P-4) expressed the following: *"...When a person in charge directly contacts you, it makes you feel special. Naturally when you feel you are cared for, it influences your decision."* Thus, he emphasizes the importance of the school administrators' and staff's attitude for the school choice. Few parents (e.g., P-8) said it was not important: *"...It had no effect whatsoever. I had already made my decision about which school to choose based on the information I had collected. Therefore, I was not impressed by the attitude of the school administration and staff."*

The interview results show that almost all of the parents, especially mothers, find sanitary conditions and orderliness at school a determinant criterion. (P-2)'s opinion is as follows: *"...I am a mother, so it is extremely important for me. When I was trying to make a choice, I analyzed as such detail as the toilets of the school. This may be very typical to all the mothers ..."* Still another parent (P-9) stated this: *"...I am a mother, so this is one of the first few things that attract my attention at school. This is the very reason why I prefer private schools to state schools. Thus, when I am to make up my mind about a school, I check out this ..."*

An analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data together shows, about the school selection criteria, that the physical equipment at school and in classrooms, the public opinion of and recommendations about the school, the administrators' and staff's attitude towards parents, and sanitary conditions and orderliness are the major criteria in school selection, whereas whether a relative or family member received education at the same school or not is not that much important.

An analysis of parents' school preference criteria according to their education level is demonstrated in Table 3.

Table 3 demonstrates that the school selection criteria as to "a family member or a close acquaintance being the alumni of the school", "relatives or acquaintances among the school staff", "existence of generally qualified teachers", "small sized classes at school", and "whether the school is centrally located or not" significantly vary among parents according to their education level. 'Whether a family member or a close acquaintance attended that school' emerged as an important criterion among parents who completed elementary school or secondary school, while it was an insignificant criterion for parents who are university graduates. 'Relatives or acquaintances among the school staff' were a partially important criterion for

Table 3. Variance of school selection criteria according to parents' education level.

| Item | Education level | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | f | p |
|--|---------------------------------------|-----|------|----------------|-------|-------|
| A family member or a close acquaintance being the alumni of the school | Elementary school or secondary school | 20 | 2.65 | 1.34 | 8.204 | .000* |
| | High school | 22 | 1.86 | .99 | | |
| | University | 160 | 1.63 | 1.03 | | |
| Relatives or acquaintances among the school staff | Elementary school or secondary school | 20 | 1.65 | .98 | 6.585 | .002* |
| | High school | 22 | 1.81 | 1.25 | | |
| | University | 160 | 1.24 | .68 | | |
| Qualified teachers | Elementary school or secondary school | 20 | 4.05 | 1.50 | 5.985 | .003* |
| | High school | 22 | 4.36 | 1.00 | | |
| | University | 160 | 4.63 | .66 | | |
| Small size of classes | Elementary school or secondary school | 20 | 3.60 | 1.23 | 4.158 | .017* |
| | High school | 22 | 4.40 | 1.00 | | |
| | University | 160 | 4.18 | .91 | | |
| Success of the school in fields of art and sports | Elementary school or secondary school | 20 | 3.40 | 1.39 | 4.415 | .013* |
| | High school | 22 | 3.31 | 1.32 | | |
| | University | 160 | 2.66 | 1.34 | | |

*p<.05.

Table 4. Variance of school selection criteria according to parents' income level.

| Item | Income | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | f | p |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----|--------|----------------|-------|-------|
| The child's opinion or preference | Lower than or equal to my expenses | 133 | 3.6391 | 1.16 | 4.808 | .029* |
| | Higher than my expenses | 69 | 3.4681 | .95 | | |
| Qualified teachers | Lower than or equal to my expenses | 133 | 4.5940 | 1.08 | 4.480 | .036* |
| | Higher than my expenses | 69 | 4.4493 | 1.07 | | |

*p<.05.

parents who completed high school, while the remaining parents found it important. All of the parents rated the criterion 'Qualified teachers' as a fairly important or an absolutely important criterion for school selection, which highlights the determinant role of this criterion. It can also be seen that the higher the education level of parents, the greater importance they give to qualifications of the teacher, and the less importance they give to whether the school is centrally located or not.

An analysis of parents' school preference criteria according to their income level is demonstrated in Table 4.

Table 4 displays differences between parents' school selection criteria by their income. It can be seen that the criterion "the child's opinion or preference" is rated as "fairly important" by the parents whose income is lower than or equal to their expenses. It shows that these

parents take into account their children's preference in the school selection process. On the other hand, the criterion "qualified teachers" is rated as "definitely important" by the parents whose income is lower than or equal to their expenses. It shows that these parents take into account the teachers' qualifications in the school selection process.

Table 5 demonstrates parents' views on teacher selection criteria.

Table 5 shows that parents rated four criteria as *definitely important*: "teacher's attitude towards students", "teacher's education level", "teacher's communicative competence", and "whether the student will complete the elementary education with the same teacher or not"; they rated two criteria as *unimportant*: "teacher's gender" and "being a relative or an acquaintance to the teacher". In

Table 5. Teacher selection criteria.

| | N | X | S |
|--|-----|------|------|
| Teacher's gender | 202 | 1.76 | .078 |
| Teacher's age | 202 | 2.42 | .077 |
| Length of teaching experience | 202 | 3.16 | .081 |
| Teacher's having a child or not | 202 | 2.29 | .087 |
| General opinion and recommendations about the teacher | 202 | 3.26 | .079 |
| Child's opinion and preference | 202 | 3.79 | .073 |
| Teacher's success in preparing students for the national exams | 202 | 3.71 | .078 |
| A family member or a close acquaintance being a former student of the teacher | 202 | 2.09 | .089 |
| Teacher's attitude towards students | 202 | 4.66 | .049 |
| The teacher's having deserved popularity | 202 | 3.33 | .087 |
| Physical appearance of the teacher | 202 | 1.95 | .078 |
| Whether the teacher gives homework or not | 202 | 3.22 | .089 |
| Religious and political views of the teacher | 202 | 3.14 | .109 |
| Educational background of the teacher | 202 | 4.36 | .062 |
| Communicative competence of the teacher | 202 | 4.53 | .064 |
| Being a relative or acquaintance to the teacher | 202 | 1.38 | .064 |
| Health state of the teacher | 202 | 3.68 | .077 |
| Number of students in the teacher's class | 202 | 4.05 | .077 |
| Whether the student will complete the elementary education with the same teacher | 202 | 4.31 | .072 |
| Other parents' recommendations about the teacher | 202 | 3.05 | .085 |
| Teacher's ethnic identity | 202 | 2.11 | .092 |

brief, the results show that parents, when choosing teachers, give priority to teachers' teaching skills, and they do not favor the idea of changing teachers in elementary education. On the other hand, the parents showed consensus over that the gender of the teacher and being a relative to or acquaintance of the teacher is not important criteria for teacher selection.

The interview results about the teacher selection revealed that all the parents pointed to job experience as the most important criterion, and some highlighted the importance of certain personality features in addition to this. For example, a participant (P-6) said "...*Job experience is the most important property among the others. His or her having a child is also important to me because, then I think, he or she will have empathy. I also would rather the teacher is not very old, nor very young, too old or too young.*"

The parents interviewed agreed on the determinant power of the hearings and sayings about the teacher as a teacher selection criterion. Here is what P-10 stated about it: "*It dramatically influenced our teacher selection. We found out what other teachers, parents of former students think about the teacher before we made up our mind about the teacher*"; another parent (P-6) made the following comment: "*I carried out a special investigation about it. I collected information about the teacher from the colleagues and administrators at her previous workplace.*"

The majority of the participants point to physical

appearance as an important criterion for teacher selection. P-4 elaborates what he thinks about it: "...*It is an important point for me. The teacher should be elegant and neat. A person who cares for him/herself will also care for the students. I would never prefer a teacher who is physically handicapped because I believe it will have an adverse effect on the child.*" Few (e.g. P-9) thought differently: "*It had no effect on our decision. We did not decide according to physical appearance. All that matters is the teacher's attitude to children, personality, and experience.*"

One of the many participants who advocated that the teacher's religious and political perspective is an important criterion in teacher selection (P-1) said, "...*Important, I think it will shape the way he or she approaches the student. If the teacher has radical views, this will somewhat be reflected on the teaching, which is why I don't favor it. I believe, a person's religious and political standing is reflected on his life to some extent ...*", while another participant who thinks this factor is not really important in teacher selection (P-4) stated the following: "...*It is not a significant criterion for me. An experienced teacher would not reflect this anyway. That is why I did not take this criterion seriously.*"

As for the impact of being a relative or acquaintance to the teacher, half of the parents (e.g., P-7) expressed such opinions as this one: "...*I would like the teacher to be a relative or an acquaintance. Then, the teacher would know the child better, communicate with the child easily,*

Table 6. Variance of teacher selection criteria according to parents' education level.

| Item | EducationLevel | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | f | p |
|---|---------------------------------------|-----|------|----------------|--------|-------|
| Whether the teacher gives homework or not | Elementary school or secondary school | 20 | 4.15 | .98 | 6.257 | .002* |
| | High school | 22 | 3.04 | 1.296 | | |
| | University | 160 | 3.13 | 1.25 | | |
| Teacher's ethnic identity | Elementary school or secondary school | 20 | 3.70 | 1.45 | 23.998 | .000* |
| | High school | 22 | 2.63 | 1.43 | | |
| | University | 160 | 1.85 | 1.11 | | |

*p<.05.

Table 7. Variance of teacher selection criteria according to parents' income level.

| Items | Income | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | f | p |
|--|-----------------------------------|-----|------|----------------|-------|-------|
| Other parents' recommendation of the teacher | Less than or equal to my expenses | 133 | 2.96 | 1.15 | 5.487 | .020* |
| | Higher than my expenses | 69 | 3.23 | 1.33 | | |

*p<.05.

or intervene when extra help is needed", whereas the other half somewhat disagreed. For example, P-8 indicated its disadvantages: *"I would not particularly prefer for a teacher who is a relative or an acquaintance. I wouldn't like my child to suffer from role conflict. My child should acknowledge the teacher as the teacher only"*.

An analysis of quantitative and qualitative findings about teacher selection together revealed that the professional experience of the teacher, recommendations about the teacher, teacher's religious and political perspective are *important* criteria, and the physical appearance of the teacher, whether the teacher is a relative/family member are *partially important* criteria.

An analysis of parents' teacherselection criteria according to their education level is demonstrated in Table 6.

Table 6 demonstrates that two teacher selection criteria vary significantly according to the education level of parents: "Whether the teacher gives homework or not" and "Teacher's ethnic identity". Elementary school or secondary school graduates give greater importance to the criterion of "whether the teacher gives homework or not" than high school and university graduates do. The importance attached to the criterion "teacher's ethnic identity" does not vary among different parent groups, but they all find it somewhat important. At this point, it is noteworthy that the higher the parents' education level is, the less importance they attach to ethnic identity.

An analysis of parents' teacher selection criteria according to their income level is presented in Table 7.

Table 7 reveals that the parents that participated in the

study give 'importance' to other parents' suggestions about the teacher, yet those parents whose income is greater than their expenses give greater importance to these suggestions.

DISCUSSION

Selection of schools and teachers directly and indirectly influences the personality development of individuals and their tendencies in the future, as well as acquisition of certain knowledge, skills, and attitudes set prior to the education. Therefore, it is evident that the choice of school and teacher is important for families. Nevertheless, the optimum features as to the school and teacher may vary from one family to another.

The overall results of the study aiming to identify parents' criteria for teacher and school selection, or the effect of hidden curriculum on teacher and school selection, reveal that five criteria are significant: 'presence of qualified teachers working at school', 'physical equipment in the classrooms and at school', 'the attitude of school administrators and staff towards parents', 'sanitary conditions and orderliness', 'recommendations about the school'. By contrast, two factors seem to be insignificant selection criteria: the presence of relatives or acquaintances among the school staff. In brief, the parents attach importance to scientific and contemporary assets such as organizational structure and teacher qualities.

The related literature widely points to the size of

classes, classroom activities, technological instruments and equipment, existence of laboratories, and security as the deciding factors in the selection of school (Dimaki et al., 2005; Bernal, 2005; Jacob and Lefgren, 2007; Tamm, 2008; Friedman et al., 2007), which is significant in that it shows the consistency among the results of similar studies. McNally (2002) investigated how families decide on which school to send their children to and found out that the most important factors are qualified teachers (quality), the class size, security, and discipline at school. These results are parallel to those found out by Hesapçioğlu and Nohutçu (1999).

The findings of the current study revealed that, similar to what Woods (1996) reported, parents tend to select schools based on the quality of teachers' pedagogical skills and feedbacks and rumors they receive from their environment. Likewise, a study conducted by Friedman et al. (2006) demonstrated that teacher efficiency, security at school and school's activities are the major factors shaping the school selection. Another study conducted by Topaç et al. (2012) showed that parents, while choosing early education institutions, take into account teacher's education background and experience, the utilities of the school, class sizes, convenient location of the school, and other parents' recommendations about the school. The result may indicate that parents use similar criteria when selecting early childhood education and elementary school institutions. That there is a concordance between the results of the present study and those found in the literature can be evidence of the consistency of study results.

To conclude, the results of the present study demonstrate that five of the schools and teacher selection criteria used by parents tend to vary significantly according to parents' education level: "A family member or a close acquaintance being the alumni of the school", "Relatives or acquaintances among the school staff", "qualified teachers", "Small sized classes at school", and "Whether the school is centrally located or not". On the other hand, two of them tend to vary according to parents' income level: "The child's opinion or preference" and "presence of qualified teachers". An overall comparison of the results has interestingly shown that the criterion "qualified teachers" differs significantly according to all the variables. The results about the variables influencing parents' school and teacher selection criteria seem to be in concordance with those of the studies conducted by Elacqua et al. (2006), Hesapçioğlu and Nohutçu (1999), and Keskin and Turna (2010).

It was found out that the following criteria are dramatically important in teacher selection: professional experience, recommendations about the teacher, teacher's religious and political perspective, teacher's attitude towards the students, teacher's educational background, teacher's communicative ability, and whether the student will complete the elementary education with the same teacher or not. 'The gender of the teacher' and 'the

teacher's being a relative or an acquaintance' did not emerge as a marked criterion for teacher selection. The results indicated that, for the parents, the professional experience is on top of other criteria for teacher preference. Similar findings are obtained in Gençtürk and Memiş's (2010) study where teachers tend to feel more competent as they get experienced. Campbell (1996) and Daughtery (2005) also reported similar results. Professional experience appeared to be a major criterion for both parents and the teachers.

The research results demonstrate that there is a significant difference between the degrees of importance given by parents to "whether the teacher gives homework or not" and "teacher's ethnic identity" according to their education level. Similarly, there is a significant difference between the degrees of importance given by parents to "other parents' recommendations about the teacher" according to their income level.

Whether the school or parents come first as a school and teacher selection criterion was not one of the subquestions of this study. Still, several themes as a response to this question emerged during the analysis of interview results. Therefore, it is worth sharing these results. Although by nature the two factors interact with each other, it was observed that parents quite explicitly express their opinions about which is more important for them. The majority of the participants who expressed their opinions on this issue stated that they choose the school according to the teacher, while few gave priority to school. This once again confirms the claim that "schools are just as qualified as their teachers". A noteworthy finding at this point is that parents who express priority of school prefer schools that are aligned with certain religious and political views.

In general terms, the research has revealed three results: the main school and teacher selection criteria comprise components of hidden curriculum related to school and teacher; teacher is given higher priority in this selection process; the qualifications of the teacher is the most influential factor in school selection.

The results indicate that determining the school and the teacher is a difficult process for families, entailing a diversity of variables. Thus, it should be a multi-dimensional decision based on different perspectives. Improving the quality of teachers working at state schools will not only close the gap between state and private schools but it will also make the selection process easier for the parents. In addition, when trying to select a school or teacher, criteria established by scientific research may help parents in making better decisions. To this end, consultancy centers for parents can be established; they can help parents along the process of school selection, providing them with reliable and objective information. Considering the fact that a teacher qualification is the number-one criterion used by parents, a school's popularity may increase if it gives enough attention to this issue. Further research can be carried out to identify the

priorities related to school and teacher selection, and reasons behind them.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interest.

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Full Length Research Paper

The relating level of teacher candidates based on scientific information with their daily lives: A case of Atatürk and Caucasian universities

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The aim of this research is to determine and compare candidate teachers' level of relating scientific information with their daily lives. The teachers were studying in the 1st and 4th classes in Atatürk and Caucasian Universities, Education Faculty, Elementary School Science Teaching Department during the 2012-2013 academic year. The research was carried out on a sampling group made of 120 individuals. Survey of science and technology usage in daily life was used as data collection tool. The obtained quantitative data were evaluated in SPSS 17.0 program. When the sources used in obtaining scientific data in the daily life of teacher candidates were compared in terms of gender, it was found that there was no statistically meaningful difference between answers; on the other hand, when the comparison was made in terms of their grade and university education, it was seen that there were differences between answers in terms of sources of obtaining scientific data. When sources of what teachers use in solving the problems they face in daily life are compared in terms of gender and university attended, it was found that there was no statistically meaningful difference between answers; on the other hand, when the comparison was made in terms of class variable, it was determined that there were statistically meaningful differences between answers (except managers' ideas). It was determined that candidate teachers could transfer their knowledge on the field of physics to their daily lives. But it was also determined that the transfer level of knowledge on the field of biology was less than the transfer level of knowledge in the field of physics; and transfer level of knowledge in the field of chemistry was less than the transfer level of knowledge in the field of physics and biology. Using the class variable of candidate teachers, there was a meaningful difference between transferring scientific knowledge to daily life in terms of physics and chemistry; there was no meaningful difference in terms of the field of biology. At the same time, there was no meaningful difference on the issue of transferring knowledge in physics, chemistry and biology knowledge to daily life according to gender and university variables of candidate teachers.

Key words: Science, daily life, candidate teacher, teacher training.

INTRODUCTION

In today's world, there is a constant increase and development in science and information. It is quite

significant to transfer the information obtained in schools to daily life and use the obtained information properly.

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This is why education activities in schools should be life-oriented. By ensuring this, it will be possible to use what is learnt in schools in daily life, which is one of the most significant goals of education, and permanence of this information will be increased.

In recent years, educators have been emphasizing that, the goal of science class is not only to prepare students for university education and help them have a profession, but also to raise them as individuals who are closely connected to scientific and technologic developments and adapted to today's society. This is why science education should be closely related with daily life (Pınarbaşı et al., 1998).

Most of the phenomenon occurring in the world is included in the topics of science class. This is probably the most important fact that eases relating this class with daily life. Science and technology are a significant part of our daily life. This is why teachers who give science education have crucial roles. Teachers should make associations with daily life, give necessary examples and use an approach that activates students during class. In this way, information about science and technology that we constantly meet in daily life becomes clearer and more meaningful for students and they are able to understand life better (Karagölge and Ceyhun, 2002; Kıyıcı, 2008).

The aim of science education should not only be based on giving information to students that will be used in education process; students should be able to gain knowledge that is necessary for making reasonable and creative solutions to the problems they face in daily life and they should have scientific thinking ability. The most significant feature of basic sciences is that their effects and results can be applied in many fields and in daily life. One of the basic goals of science education is to enable students correlate what they learn in school with the events they encounter in daily life (Ayas and Özmen, 1998).

The concept of daily life is explained as; *events that occur naturally and continue ordinarily around an individual in society* (McCann, 2001). The concept of daily life is not only used for the daily life of students in science classes; it also includes their life out of the classes (Andree, 2005).

As examples about daily life are not used often during education in science classes, generally students have troubles in understanding topics (Yiğit et al., 2002). Understanding the concepts used in science classes is easier when the connections of them with daily life are understood and problems that are encountered on a daily basis are seen more clearly. When science is related with daily life, students can explain daily problems through scientific facts. For most of the science teachers, one of the reasons why scientific information is used in daily life is that they are motivational (Göçmençelebi and Özkan, 2009; Kıyıcı, 2008).

Researchers state that science education is mostly about remembering scientific concepts and making

experiments based on specific instructions and scientific thinking, which will enable making connections with daily life (Lebak, 2005). Establishing connection between daily life and science is an important topic both for researchers and pragmatists. The most common argument today is making a connection with science. Use of daily life in science classes is an important tool for the motivation of students. In some discussions about science literacy, it is claimed that the use of daily life is a way of educating scientifically literate societies (Andree, 2005).

At this point, the duty of teachers is to encourage students learn the facts of the world of science in school environment and enable them benefit from this information in daily life.

Significance

Science and technology class aims at conveying scientific literacy and relating society's daily life with science education (Rubba, 1991). The necessity of science education as a part of daily life has become an internal motivation tool in science education. When the related literature is analyzed, it can be seen that the duty of making up the difference between scientific thinking and daily life should be carried out in schools (McCann, 2001).

Students of today are faced with a world where abilities focused on local, national and global problems are necessary (Edmondson, 2005). This is why teachers who raise individuals and prepare students for future have significant responsibilities. Science teachers should move daily life problems to the center of education, and give education through activities that include experiences and information with which students are familiar. Throughout science education history, science educators have tried to establish connections between science and daily life through school activities.

Problem

What are the sources of science teacher candidates used in obtaining scientific information and what is their level of relating this information with their daily lives?

Sub-problems

Based on the research problem, the following questions will be answered,

1. Do the scientific information resources of science teacher candidates used in obtaining information in daily life meaningfully vary according to the variables of gender, grade and university?
2. Do the answers of science teacher candidates to the questions about transforming scientific information to

daily life (Physics, chemistry, biology) meaningfully vary according to the variables of gender, grade and university?

3. Do the resources used by science teacher candidates in solving problems they face in daily life meaningfully vary according to the variables of gender, grade and university?

Limitations

1. Limited with 2012-2013 Academic Year.
2. The research is limited with the 1st and 4th grade students in Atatürk University and Caucasian University Education Faculty, Elementary School Science Teaching Department (a total of 120 students).
3. Data of the study are limited with the data obtained from "Survey of science and technology usage in daily life".

METHOD

Model of the research

In this research, scanning model, which is one of the quantitative research methods, is used. Scanning model is used when the aim is to obtain data in order to determine the features of a group (Büyükoztürk et al., 2008). Scanning model, one of the quantitative research types, aims at describing a past or present situation as the way it is (Karasar, 1999). The goal of this study is to determine how science teacher candidates obtain information and transfer them to daily life. This is why scanning model is used.

Population

The participants were composed of teacher candidates who were studying in the 1st and 4th classes in Atatürk and Caucasian Universities. They majored in Education and took courses in, Elementary School Science Teaching Department in 2012-2013 academic years.

Sample

Sample of this research includes a total of 120 teacher candidates, who are determined with purposeful sampling method, studying in the 1st and 4th classes in Atatürk and Caucasian Universities, Education Faculty, Elementary School Science Teaching Department. The study group was chosen by purposive sampling model.

Data collection tools

In the process of obtaining data, while collecting the data, *Survey of Science and Technology Usage in Daily Life* (reference) was used as the measuring tool, which was developed by Kiyıcı (2008). Cronbach Alpha value of the research was calculated as 0, 87. Survey was made of 2 sections. In the first section, there were questions about students' resources of specific and daily information and producing solution to the problems they encounter in daily life. 5 points likert type scale was used in order to evaluate

these questions. In the second section of the survey, 20 questions including 6th, 7th and 8th grade physics, chemistry and biology topics were asked to teacher candidates. For each question, survey item was coded as correct (3), incorrect (2) and blank (1) and evaluation was made with 3 point likert type scale. In order to calculate internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach Alpha coefficient) of the survey, it was firstly conducted on a group of 80 teacher candidates in Atatürk University Education Faculty, Elementary School Science Teaching Department in 2009-2010 academic years. The pre-application is a stage when the understandability and validity of the survey are questioned through observation based data. This process has a critical significance in determining possible problems and if it is conducted on a group that is similar to the target group, it is a very important step for obtaining valid and reliable results (Mertens, 1998; Büyükoztürk, 2005).

After evaluating the survey, internal reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alpha coefficient) was found to be 0, 82; according to this, it can be said that survey's reliability is high (Kayış, 2005).

After pilot applications, the survey was conducted on a total of 120 teacher candidates studying at 1st and 4th classes in Atatürk and Caucasian Universities, Education Faculty, Elementary School Science Teaching Department and necessary data were collected. Applications were carried out under the supervision of researchers. On the other hand, survey forms that were given to the teacher candidates were collected after giving sufficient amount of time and then evaluated.

Data analysis

Data of the research were analyzed with SPSS 17.0 package program. Evaluation of the first part of the survey was made with 5 points likert type scale. In evaluating the second part of the survey, including 20 questions about 6th, 7th and 8th grade physics, chemistry and biology question, survey item for each question was evaluated with 3 points likert type scale as correct (3), incorrect (2) and blank (1).

An independent group t-test was employed in order to determine if the difference between students' answers according to gender, grade and university to the question about transferring scientific information of physics, chemistry, biology to daily life was meaningful (Table 1). Green et al. (2000) stated that independent group t-test is used in order to calculate the arithmetic mean of dependent variables whose measurements are taken as 2 independent groups for one or more dependent variables, and to compare these two arithmetic means.

Descriptive analysis methods and t-test were used in order to determine the sources of scientific information from which science teacher candidates learn scientific information that they use in daily life, and how much these sources are used.

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

Findings and Interpretations about the source of obtaining Scientific Information that teacher candidates use in daily life

Findings about the sources of obtaining scientific information that teacher candidates use in daily life according to the variable of gender are presented in Table 2.

According to the data in Table 2, when findings about the sources of obtaining scientific information that teacher candidates use in daily life according to the variable of gender were analyzed, it was seen that the difference

Table 1. Distribution of teacher candidates in the research according to gender, grade and university.

| Gender | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Male | 51 | 42.5 |
| Female | 69 | 57.5 |
| Total | 120 | 100 |
| Grade | | |
| 1st grade | 60 | 50 |
| 4th grade | 60 | 50 |
| Total | 120 | 100 |
| University | | |
| Atatürk | 60 | 50 |
| Caucasian | 60 | 50 |
| Total | 120 | 100 |

Table 2. Results of T-Test about the source of obtaining scientific information that teacher candidates use in daily life according to the variable of gender

| | Gender | N | M | SS | t | P |
|---------------------|---------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| School | Male | 51 | 4.407 | 0.962 | -1.554 | .124 |
| | Female | 69 | 4.646 | 0.648 | | |
| Family | Male | 51 | 3.833 | 0.966 | -1.107 | .270 |
| | Female | 69 | 4.015 | 0.832 | | |
| Scientific program | Male | 51 | 3.055 | 1.054 | -0.698 | .487 |
| | Female | 69 | 3.181 | 0.928 | | |
| Radio | Male | 51 | 2.037 | 1.098 | -1.358 | .177 |
| | Female | 69 | 2.318 | 1.152 | | |
| Magazine, newspaper | Male | 51 | 2.500 | 1.489 | -1.130 | .261 |
| | Female | 69 | 2.803 | 1.438 | | |
| Science Magazine | Male | 51 | 2.741 | 1.306 | -0.614 | .541 |
| | Female | 69 | 2.879 | 1.157 | | |
| Museums | Male | 51 | 1.944 | 1.054 | 0.472 | .638 |
| | Female | 69 | 1.864 | 0.821 | | |
| Zoos | Male | 51 | 1.722 | 1.188 | 0.379 | .705 |
| | Female | 69 | 1.652 | 0.850 | | |
| Science centers | Male | 51 | 2,333 | 1.441 | 1.421 | .158 |
| | Female | 69 | 1.985 | 1.196 | | |
| Technology centers | Male | 51 | 2.3889 | 1.509 | 1.106 | .271 |
| | Female | 69 | 2.106 | 1.291 | | |
| Internet | Male | 51 | 4.426 | 0.882 | -0.190 | .850 |
| | Female | 69 | 4.455 | 0.768 | | |
| Other | Male | 34 | 3,382 | 1.371 | 0.706 | .483 |
| | Female | 33 | 3.152 | 1.302 | | |

Table 3. Results of T-test about the source of obtaining scientific information that teacher candidates use in daily life according to the variable of grade.

| | Grade | N | M | SS | t | P |
|---------------------|----------|----|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| School | 1. grade | 60 | 4.620 | .790 | 1.088 | .279 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 4.459 | .828 | | |
| Family | 1. grade | 60 | 3.966 | .808 | .393 | .695 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 3.901 | .978 | | |
| Scientific program | 1. grade | 60 | 3.016 | 1.008 | -1.186 | .238 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 3.229 | .955 | | |
| Radio | 1. grade | 60 | 1.830 | .985 | -3.605 | *.000 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 2.541 | 1.162 | | |
| Magazine, newspaper | 1. grade | 60 | 2.050 | 1.443 | -4.952 | *.000 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 3.262 | 1.223 | | |
| Science Magazine | 1. grade | 60 | 2.457 | 1.208 | -3.291 | *.001 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 3.163 | 1.142 | | |
| Museums | 1. grade | 60 | 1.661 | .902 | -2.852 | *.005 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 2.131 | .903 | | |
| Zoos | 1. grade | 60 | 1.559 | 1.004 | -1.324 | .188 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 1.803 | 1.013 | | |
| Science centers | 1. grade | 60 | 1.881 | 1.287 | -2.161 | *.033 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 2.393 | 1.307 | | |
| Technology centers | 1. grade | 60 | 2.050 | 1.455 | -1.416 | .160 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 2.409 | 1.321 | | |
| Internet | 1. grade | 60 | 4.372 | .888 | -.905 | .367 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 4.508 | .744 | | |
| Other | 1. grade | 42 | 3.238 | 1.321 | -.242 | .810 |
| | 4. grade | 25 | 3.320 | 1.375 | | |

*p<.05.

between answers was not statistically meaningful ($p>.05$).

Findings about the sources of obtaining scientific information that teacher candidates use in daily life according to the variable of grade are summarized in Table 3.

According to the data in Table 3, when findings about the sources of obtaining scientific information that teacher candidates use in daily life according to the variable of grade were analyzed, it was seen that the difference between answers was statistically meaningful in some of scientific information sources ($p<.05$).

When the state of using radio as a source of obtaining

scientific information used in daily life by teacher candidates was analyzed in terms of grade, it was seen that radio is used more by 4th grade students ($M=2.54$) when compared to 1st grade ($M=1.83$).

Teacher candidates in 4th grade use magazine-newspaper as a source of obtaining scientific information ($M=3.26$) more than the teacher candidates in 1st grade ($M=2.05$).

Teacher candidates in 4th grade use science magazines as a source of obtaining scientific information ($M=3.16$) more than the teacher candidates in 1st grade ($M=2.46$).

Teacher candidates in 4th grade use museums as a

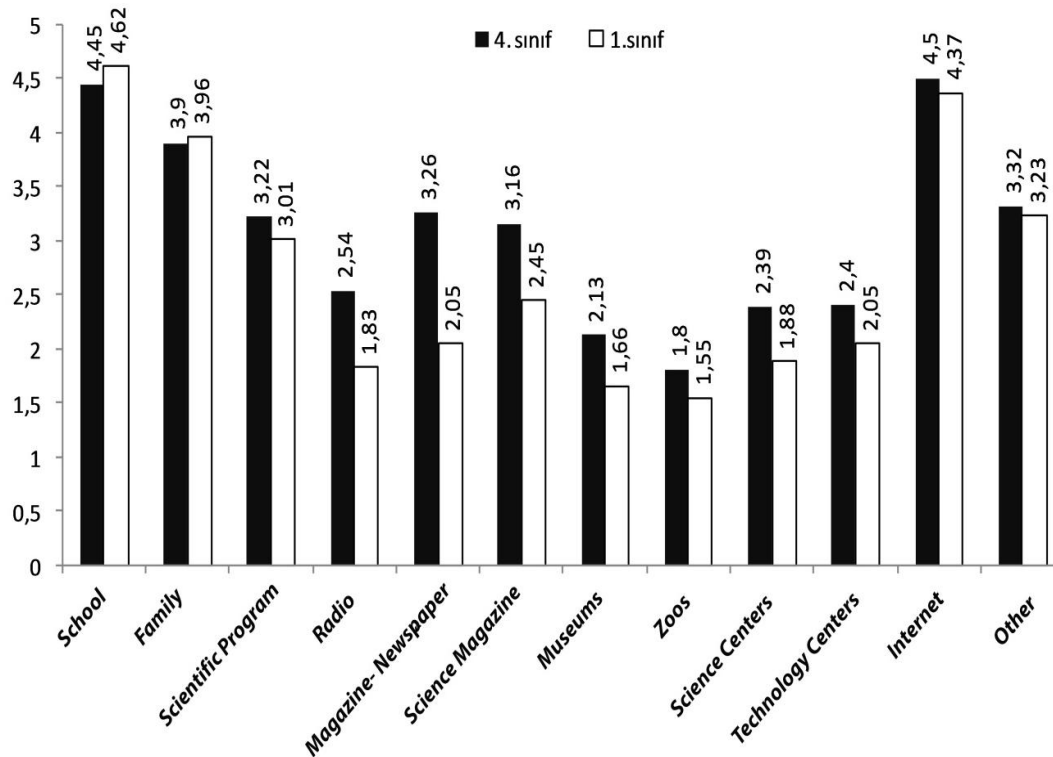


Figure 1. Distribution of the sources of obtaining scientific information used in daily life by teacher candidates according to the variable of grade.

source of obtaining scientific information ($M=2.13$) more than the teacher candidates in 1st grade ($M=1.66$). Teacher candidates in 4th grade use science centers as a source of obtaining scientific information ($M=2.39$) more than the teacher candidates in 1st grade ($M=1.88$) (Figure 1).

Findings about the sources of obtaining scientific information that teacher candidates use in daily life according to the variable of university are summarized in Table 4.

According to the data in Table 4, when findings about the sources of obtaining scientific information that teacher candidates use in daily life according university were analyzed, it was seen that the difference between answers was statistically meaningful in terms of some variables ($p<.05$).

When the state of using radio as a source of obtaining scientific information used in daily life by teacher candidates was analyzed, it was seen that radio is used more by the students in Atatürk University ($M =2.41$) when compared to the students in Caucasian University ($M=1.96$).

Teacher candidates in Atatürk University use magazine-newspaper as a source of obtaining scientific information ($M=3.03$) more than the teacher candidates in Caucasian University ($M=2.30$).

Teacher candidates in Atatürk University use science magazines as a source of obtaining scientific information

($M=3.33$) more than the teacher candidates in Caucasian University ($M=2.30$).

Teacher candidates in Atatürk University use museums as a source of obtaining scientific information ($M=2.16$) more than the teacher candidates in Caucasian University ($M=1.63$).

Teacher candidates in Atatürk University use science centers as a source of obtaining scientific information ($M=2.65$) more than the teacher candidates in Caucasian University ($M=1.63$).

Teacher candidates in Atatürk University use technology centers as a source of obtaining scientific information ($M=2.85$) more than the teacher candidates in Caucasian University ($M=1.61$) (Figure 2).

Findings and interpretation about the sources from which teacher candidates benefit while solving problems they face in daily life

Findings about the sources of information that teacher candidates use while solving problems that they face in daily life according to the variable of gender are summarized in Table 5.

According to the data in Table 5, when findings about the sources of information that teacher candidates use in solving problems that they face in daily life according to the variable of gender were analyzed, it was seen that

Table 4. Results of T-Test about the source of obtaining scientific information that teacher candidates use in daily life according to the variable of university.

| | University | N | M | SS | t | P |
|---------------------|----------------------|----|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| School | Atatürk university | 60 | 4.457 | .934 | -1.070 | .287 |
| | Caucasian university | 60 | 4.616 | .666 | | |
| Family | Atatürk university | 60 | 3.866 | .891 | -.814 | .417 |
| | Caucasian university | 60 | 4.000 | .901 | | |
| Scientific program | Atatürk university | 60 | 3.300 | 1.062 | 1.973 | .051 |
| | Caucasian university | 60 | 2.950 | .871 | | |
| Radio | Atatürk university | 60 | 2.416 | 1.197 | 2.212 | *.029 |
| | Caucasian university | 60 | 1.966 | 1.024 | | |
| Magazine, newspaper | Atatürk university | 60 | 3.033 | 1.484 | 2.825 | *.006 |
| | Caucasian university | 60 | 2.300 | 1.356 | | |
| Science Magazine | Atatürk university | 60 | 3.333 | 1.188 | 5.089 | *.000 |
| | Caucasian university | 60 | 2.300 | 1.030 | | |
| Museums | Atatürk university | 60 | 2.166 | .959 | 3.268 | *.001 |
| | Caucasian university | 60 | 1.633 | .822 | | |
| Zoos | Atatürk university | 60 | 1.850 | 1.161 | 1.821 | .071 |
| | Caucasian university | 60 | 1.516 | .812 | | |
| Science centers | Atatürk university | 60 | 2.650 | 1.412 | 4.565 | *.000 |
| | Caucasian university | 60 | 1.633 | .990 | | |
| Technology centers | Atatürk university | 60 | 2.850 | 1.482 | 5.383 | *.000 |
| | Caucasian university | 60 | 1.616 | .975 | | |
| Internet | Atatürk university | 60 | 4.500 | .747 | .780 | .437 |
| | Caucasian university | 60 | 4.383 | .884 | | |
| Other | Atatürk university | 32 | 3.312 | 1.424 | .256 | .799 |
| | Caucasian university | 35 | 3.228 | 1.262 | | |

*p<.05.

the difference between answers was not statistically meaningful ($p>.05$).

Findings about the sources of information that teacher candidates use while solving problems that they face in daily life according to the variable of grade are summarized in Table 6.

According to the data in Table 6, when the findings about the sources of information that teacher candidates use in solving problems that they face in daily life according to the variable of grade were analyzed, it was seen that the difference between answers was statistically meaningful (excepts managers' ideas) ($p<.05$).

When the state of using scientific information while solving problems by teacher candidates was analyzed, it

was seen that scientific information is used more by 4th grade students ($M=4.55$) when compared to 1st grade ($M=4.03$).

When the state of using past experiences while solving problems by teacher candidates was analyzed, it was seen that past experiences are used more by 4th grade students ($M=4.37$) when compared to 1st grade ($M=3.93$).

When the state of using customs and traditions while solving problems by teacher candidates was analyzed, it was seen that customs and traditions are used more by 4th grade students ($M=3.54$) when compared to 1st grade ($M=3.15$).

When the state of using what is learnt from families while solving problems by teacher candidates was

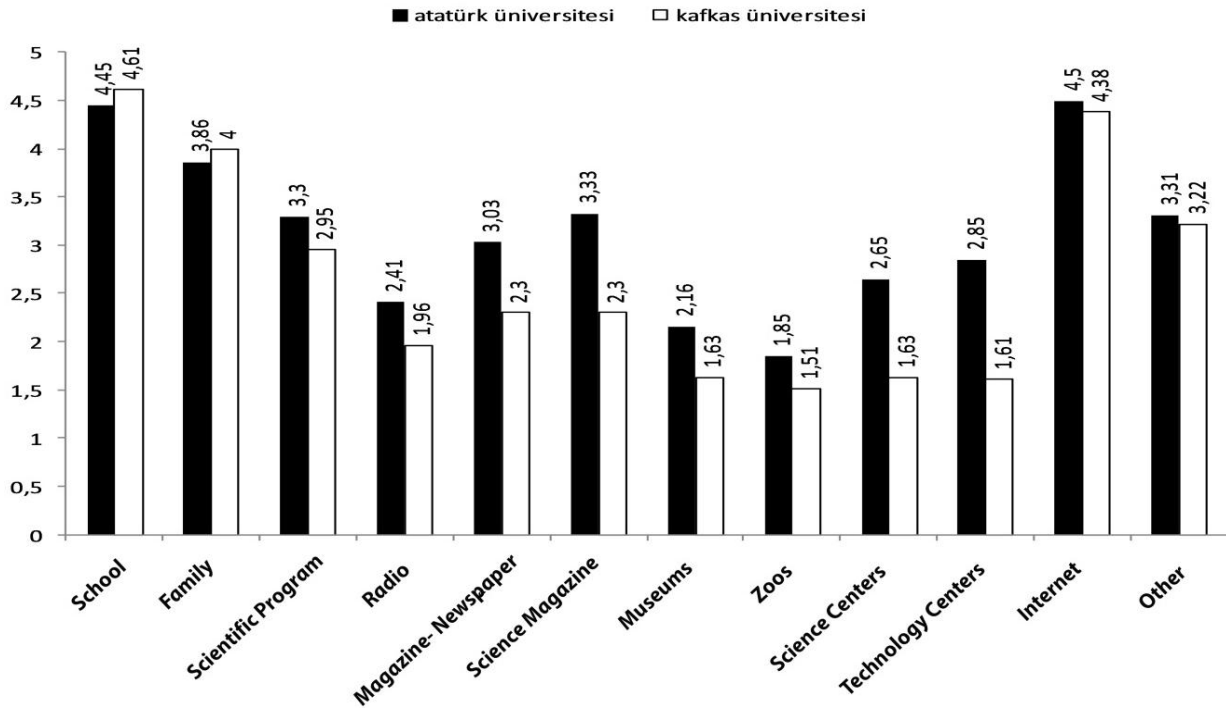


Figure 2. Distribution of the sources of obtaining scientific information used in daily life by teacher candidates according to the variable of University.

Table 5. Results of T-Test about the sources of information that teacher candidates use while solving problems that they face in daily life according to the variable of gender.

| | Gender | N | M | SS | t | p |
|--|--------|----|-------|-------|-------|------|
| Benefiting from Scientific Information | Male | 51 | 4.425 | .837 | 1.64 | .102 |
| | Female | 69 | 4.181 | .782 | 7 | |
| Past experiences | Male | 51 | 4.277 | .833 | 1.54 | .126 |
| | Female | 69 | 4.060 | .676 | 3 | |
| Customs, traditions | Male | 51 | 3.388 | .979 | .434 | .665 |
| | Female | 69 | 3.318 | .806 | | |
| What is learnt from family | Male | 51 | 3.796 | .997 | .317 | .752 |
| | Female | 69 | 3.742 | .864 | | |
| Specialists | Male | 51 | 3.925 | .928 | .011 | .991 |
| | Female | 69 | 3.924 | .790 | | |
| Managers' Ideas | Male | 51 | 3.518 | 1.041 | -.539 | .591 |
| | Female | 69 | 3.621 | 1.034 | | |

analyzed, it was seen that the information and experiences learnt from families are used more by 4th grade students ($M=3.98$) when compared to 1st grade students ($M=3.15$).

When the state of benefiting from specialists while solving problems by teacher candidates was analyzed, it was seen that information obtained from specialists are used more by 1st grade students ($M=4.11$) when

Table 6. Results of T-Test about the sources of information that teacher candidates use while solving problems that they face in daily life according to the variable of grade.

| | Grade | N | M | SS | t | P |
|--|----------|----|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| Benefiting from Scientific Information | 1. grade | 60 | 4.559 | .676 | 3.731 | *.000 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 4.032 | .855 | | |
| Past experiences | 1. grade | 60 | 3.932 | .739 | -3.359 | *.001 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 4.377 | .710 | | |
| Customs, traditions | 1. grade | 60 | 3.152 | .826 | -2.456 | *.015 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 3.541 | .905 | | |
| What is learnt from family | 1. grade | 60 | 3.542 | .915 | -2.684 | *.008 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 3.983 | .884 | | |
| Specialists | 1. grade | 60 | 4.118 | .767 | 2.503 | *.014 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 3.737 | .892 | | |
| Managers' Ideas | 1. grade | 60 | 3.627 | .980 | .541 | .589 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 3.524 | 1.089 | | |

*p<.05.

Table 7. Results of T-Test about the sources of information that teacher candidates use while solving problems that they face in daily life according to the variable of university.

| | University | N | M | SS | t | P |
|--|----------------------|----|-------|-------|-------|------|
| Benefiting from Scientific Information | Atatürk University | 60 | 4.283 | .761 | -.112 | .911 |
| | Caucasian University | 60 | 4.300 | .869 | | |
| Past experiences | Atatürk University | 60 | 4.250 | .654 | 1.333 | .185 |
| | Caucasian University | 60 | 4.066 | .841 | | |
| Customs, traditions | Atatürk University | 60 | 3.500 | .853 | 1.875 | .063 |
| | Caucasian University | 60 | 3.200 | .898 | | |
| What is learnt from family | Atatürk University | 60 | 3.833 | .905 | .790 | .431 |
| | Caucasian University | 60 | 3.700 | .944 | | |
| Specialists | Atatürk University | 60 | 3.883 | .903 | -.534 | .594 |
| | Caucasian University | 60 | 3.966 | .801 | | |
| Managers' Ideas | Atatürk University | 60 | 3.733 | .954 | 1.690 | .094 |
| | Caucasian University | 60 | 3.416 | 1.093 | | |

compared to 4th grade (M=3.73).

Findings about some sources of information that teacher candidates use while solving problems that they face in daily life according to the variable of university are summarized in Table 7.

According to the data in Table 7, when findings about the sources of information that teacher candidates use in solving problems that they face in daily life according to the variable of university were analyzed, it was seen that the difference between answers wasn't statistically

Table 8. Results of t-Test about the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of gender.

| | Gender | N | M | SS | t | p |
|-------------|--------|----|-------|------|-------|------|
| General Sum | Male | 51 | 2.592 | .258 | -.634 | .527 |
| | Female | 69 | 2.622 | .247 | | |

Table 9. Results of T-Test about the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of grade

| | Grade | N | M | SS | t | p |
|-------------|---------|----|-------|------|--------|-------|
| General sum | 1.grade | 60 | 2.550 | .234 | -2.571 | *.011 |
| | 4.grade | 60 | 2.665 | .256 | | |

*p<.05.

Table 10. Results of T-Test about the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of university.

| | University | N | M | SS | t | P |
|-------------|----------------------|----|-------|------|-------|------|
| General sum | Atatürk University | 60 | 2.606 | .247 | -.090 | .928 |
| | Caucasian University | 60 | 2.610 | .257 | | |

meaningful ($p > .05$).

Findings and interpretation about the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life

Findings about the results of t-test including questions evaluating the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of gender are presented in Table 8.

According to the data in Table 8, when findings about the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of gender were analyzed, it was seen that the difference between answers was not statistically meaningful ($p > .05$).

Findings about the results of t-test including questions which evaluates the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of grade are presented in Table 9.

According to the data in Table 9, when findings about the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of grade were analyzed, it was seen that the difference between answers was statistically meaningful ($p < .05$).

When the answers of teacher candidates to the question of relating scientific information with daily life were analyzed in terms of the variable of grade, it was

seen that, 4th grade students transfer scientific information more ($M=2.66$) when compared to 1st grade students ($M=2.55$).

Findings about the results of t-test including questions which evaluates the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of university are presented in Table 10.

According to the data in Table 10, when findings about the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of university were analyzed, it was seen that the difference between answers was not statistically meaningful ($p > .05$). Findings about the results of t-test including physics, chemistry, biology questions which evaluate the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of university are presented in Table 11.

According to the data in Table 11, when findings about the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of gender were analyzed, it was seen that the difference between answers was not statistically meaningful ($p > .05$). Findings about the results of t-test including physics, chemistry, biology questions which evaluate the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of grade are presented in Table 12.

According to the data in Table 12, when findings based

Table 11. Results of t-Test about the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information (*Physics, Chemistry, and Biology*) with daily life according to the variable of gender.

| | Gender | N | M | SS | t | p |
|-----------------|--------|----|-------|------|-------|------|
| Physics Total | Male | 51 | 2.771 | .249 | -.080 | .937 |
| | Female | 69 | 2.775 | .248 | | |
| Chemistry Total | Male | 51 | 2.486 | .324 | -.835 | .405 |
| | Female | 69 | 2.534 | .302 | | |
| Biology total | Male | 51 | 2.545 | .388 | -.479 | .633 |
| | Female | 69 | 2.779 | .362 | | |

Table 12. Results of T-Test about the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information (*Physics, Chemistry, and Biology*) with daily life according to the variable of grade.

| | Grade | N | M | SS | t | p |
|-----------------|----------|----|-------|------|--------|-------|
| Physics Total | 1.grade | 60 | 2.723 | .244 | -2.227 | *.028 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 2.822 | .243 | | |
| Chemistry Total | 1. grade | 60 | 2.431 | .304 | -2.925 | *.004 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 2.592 | .300 | | |
| Biology total | 1. grade | 60 | 2.520 | .360 | -1.230 | .221 |
| | 4. grade | 60 | 2.604 | .383 | | |

*p<.05.

on physics, chemistry and biology questions evaluating the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of grade were analyzed, it was seen that the difference between answers was statistically meaningful ($p < .05$).

When the answers of teacher candidates to the physics questions about relating scientific information with daily life were analyzed in terms of the variable of grade, it was seen that, 4th grade students transfer physics information more ($M=2.82$) when compared to 1st grade students ($M=2.72$).

When the answers of teacher candidates to the chemistry questions about relating scientific information with daily life were analyzed in terms of the variable of grade, it was seen that, 4th grade students transfer chemistry information more ($M=2.59$) when compared to 1st grade students ($M=2.43$).

Distribution of the results of questions about physics, chemistry, biology physics, chemistry, biology questions which evaluate the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of grade are presented in Table 13.

According to the data in Table 13, when findings based on physics, chemistry and biology questions evaluating

the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information with daily life according to the variable of university were analyzed, it was seen that the difference between answers was not statistically meaningful ($p > .05$).

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This research is carried out in order to determine the resources from which science teacher candidates benefit while obtaining scientific information and their level of relating this information with daily life in terms of some variables. Sample of this research includes a total of 120 teacher candidates, studying in the 1st and 4th classes in Atatürk and Caucasian Universities, Education Faculty, Elementary School Science Teaching Department. Results of the research are as follows:

1. 51 of teacher candidates who participated in the research (42.5%) were males while 69 (57.5) were females.
2. 60 of teacher candidates who participated in the research (50%) were at 1st grade while 60 (50%) were at 4th grade.

Table 13. t-test results of questions about the level of teacher candidates' relating scientific information (*Physics, Chemistry, and Biology*) with daily life according to the variable of university.

| | University | N | M | SS | t | p |
|-----------------|----------------------|----|-------|------|--------|------|
| Physics Total | Atatürk University | 60 | 2.797 | .269 | -1.043 | .299 |
| | Caucasian University | 60 | 2.750 | .224 | | |
| Chemistry Total | Atatürk University | 60 | 2.531 | .302 | -.626 | .533 |
| | Caucasian University | 60 | 2.495 | .322 | | |
| Biology total | Atatürk University | 60 | 2.519 | .346 | -1.296 | .197 |
| | Caucasian University | 60 | 2.607 | .395 | | |

3. 60 of teacher candidates who participated in the research (50%) were in Atatürk University while 60 (50%) were in Caucasian University.

Result and discussion about the resources from which teacher candidates benefit while obtaining scientific information used in daily life

When the resources of obtaining scientific information in daily life by teacher candidates who participated in this research were compared in terms of gender, it was determined that there was no statistically meaningful difference between answers.

When the resources of obtaining scientific information in daily life by teacher candidates who participated in this research were compared in terms of grade, it was determined that there was statistically meaningful difference between the answers. These differences were;

1. 4th grade students use radio more than 1st grade students.
2. 4th grade students use magazine/newspaper more than 1st grade students.
3. 4th grade students use science magazines more than 1st grade students.
4. 4th grade students use museums more than 1st grade students.
5. 4th grade students use science centers more than 1st grade students.

When the resources of obtaining scientific information in daily life by teacher candidates who participated in this research were compared in terms of the variable of university, it was determined that there was statistically meaningful difference between the answers.

1. Students in Atatürk University use radio more than the students in Caucasian University.
2. Students in Atatürk University use magazine/newspaper more than the students in Caucasian

University.

3. Students in Atatürk University use science magazines more than the students in Caucasian University.

4. Students in Atatürk University use museums more than the students in Caucasian University.

5. Students in Atatürk University use science centers more than the students in Caucasian University.

6. Students in Atatürk University use technology centers more than the students in Caucasian University.

In this research, it was determined that scientific information resources used by teacher candidates the most are the school and internet. They also use radio, museums, zoos, science centers less as resources of scientific information.

According to others, individuals can gain more experience in out-of-class environments about science education (Kıyıcı, 2008; Lebak, 2005; NRC, 1996). Out-of-class centers are very important in science education and they should be actively used.

Results and discussion about the resources from which teacher candidates benefit while solving problems in daily life

When resources of obtaining scientific information while solving problems in daily life by teacher candidates who participated in this research were compared in terms of the variable of gender, it was determined that there was not statistically meaningful difference between the answers.

When resources of obtaining scientific information while solving information in daily life by teacher candidates who participated in this research were compared in terms of the variable of grade, it was determined that there was statistically meaningful difference between the answers.

1. Teacher candidates in the 1st grade benefit from scientific information more than teacher candidates in the 4th grade.

2. Teacher candidates in the 4th grade benefit from past experiences more than teacher candidates in the 1st grade.
3. Teacher candidates in the 4th grade benefit from customs and traditions more than teacher candidates in the 1st grade.
4. Teacher candidates in the 4th grade benefit from what is learnt from families more than teacher candidates in the 1st grade.
5. Teacher candidates in the 1st grade benefit from specialists more than teacher candidates in the 4th grade.

When resources of obtaining scientific information while solving problems in daily life by teacher candidates who participated in this research were compared in terms of university, it was determined that there was not statistically meaningful difference between the answers. It is thought that, location of universities in the same geographical areas and similar student profiles is the reason of this result.

But according to the research by Kıyıcı (2008), students in different universities prefer different resources for obtaining information. Learning or information obtaining resource may vary for each individual. French (2007) noted that learning can occur in different environments.

Results and discussion about the teacher candidates' level of relating scientific information with daily life

When the answers of teacher candidates to the questions about transferring scientific information to daily life were compared in terms of the variable of gender, it was seen that there was not statistically meaningful difference between answers. Kıyıcı's (2008) study supported this result; he asked questions to male and female teacher candidates in order to determine their level of relating scientific information with daily life. In this study, it was determined that there was not statistically meaningful difference between answers.

When the answers of teacher candidates to the questions about transferring scientific information to daily life were compared in terms of the variable of grade, it was seen that there was statistically meaningful difference between the answers.

It was seen that teacher candidates in 4th grade transfer scientific information more to daily life when compared to teacher candidates in 1st grade.

According to the result of a study, teacher candidates can not relate scientific information with daily life completely. But the most significant feature and effect of Basic Sciences is that it can be applied in many fields including daily life (Kıyıcı, 2008; Karagölge and Ceyhun, 2002).

When the answers of teacher candidates who

participated in the study to the question of transferring scientific information to daily life were compared in terms of the variable of university, it was determined that there was not statistically meaningful difference between answers. In contrast to this result, according to the research by Kıyıcı (2008), teacher candidates' level of transferring scientific information to daily life significantly varied according to the university and teacher candidates in Gazi University transferred more scientific information to daily life. When the answers of teacher candidates who participated in the study of physics, chemistry and biology questions about transferring scientific information to daily life were compared in terms of the variable of gender, it was determined that there was not statistically meaningful difference between answers. According to the study by Kıyıcı (2008), when the answers of male and female teacher candidates who participated in the study of physics and chemistry questions about transferring scientific information to daily life were compared, it was seen that there was not statistically meaningful difference between genders. On the other hand, when the answers of male and female teacher candidates who participated in the study of biology questions about transferring scientific information to daily life were compared, it was seen that there was statistically meaningful difference between genders. Female teacher candidates transfer scientific information about biology more than male teacher candidates.

When the answers of teacher candidates who participated in the study of physics, chemistry and biology questions about transferring scientific information to daily life were compared in terms of the variable of grade, it was determined that there was statistically meaningful difference between answers.

1. It was seen that teacher candidates in 4th grade transfer physics information more to daily life when compared to teacher candidates in 1st grade.
2. It was seen that teacher candidates in 4th grade transfer chemistry information more to daily life when compared to teacher candidates in 1st grade.

When the answers of teacher candidates who participated in the study of physics, chemistry and biology questions about transferring scientific information to daily life were compared in terms of the variable of grade, it was determined that there was not statistically meaningful difference between answers. In parallel with this research Karagölge and Ceyhun (2002), Kıyıcı (2008) and Pınarbaşı et al. (1998) determined that teacher candidates' level of transferring physics, chemistry and biology information did not significantly vary according to the variable of type of university.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interest.

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Full Length Research Paper

The evaluation of micro teaching method used in the training of primary school teachers in Turkey

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Micro teaching, one of the most frequently used methods in the pre-service education of teachers, is used in many lectures for the training of teachers in the faculties of education in Turkey. Micro teaching is a teaching method which is especially used in the pre-service training of teachers and it aims to train prospective teachers by making systematic trials in terms of their teaching behaviours. However, because of various reasons, some problems are encountered in the implementation of this method. In this research, it is aimed to evaluate the status of the use of micro teaching method, according to opinions of the primary school teacher candidates. The study was figured as an action research in survey type. The semi-structured interviewing technique was used to collect data in the research. 24 students studying in the department of primary school teacher training in a public university in spring semester of 2012-2013 education year participated in the research. Volunteering was the basis of the selection of the students. The semi-structured interview form developed by the researcher was used as a means of collecting data. Descriptive analysis was used to analyse the data. In the research, it was concluded that except for one course, the micro teaching method is not used in the teacher training courses. The participants have expressed that they find the micro teaching method, which is implemented in only one lecture, very useful in many ways and proposed the use of micro teaching method in all education lectures.

Key words: Micro teaching, primary school teacher candidates, teaching method.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching, which is a very old profession, has become very different in terms of profession nowadays. In the new educational paradigm, rather than teacher-centred teaching, student-centred educational approach in which the teacher learns together with the students by guiding them in the class prevails. In this approach, teachers have to create an effective and interactive learning environment, choosing the methods and activities that can provide students participate in the lesson and can be

applied in the classroom. Therefore, teachers need to be trained to have the expected competencies during their pre-service education.

"Teacher training is a comprehensive and multi-dimensional issue. The selection of teacher candidates, pre-service training, practice (internship) period and the monitoring and the evaluation studies in this period, topics like in-service training, totally enters into teacher training concept" (Kavcar, 2002: 1).

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Teaching experience applied in pre-service teacher education has a very important role in teacher training. Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs may be affected by the applications performed in the academic courses of the faculty of education programs and the experiences in the internship schools. Therefore, it is important to provide teachers with the training methods which will enable them to see their own self-efficacy in the faculty of education courses. The inadequate pre-service teacher education lies on the basis of the problem of the quality of teachers. With the traditional understanding and practices, only upbringing of traditional individuals can be achieved. Therefore, teachers need to be trained in new ways that they can keep up with the times and adapt to the changing needs of the society (Meral et al., 1998).

It is hard to say that just one method is effective in teaching (Rao and Lakshmi, 2010). Therefore, in the training of teachers, different methods have been used until today. 'Practical activities are indispensable elements for the program in the teacher training programs. It is extremely important for a teacher to find the opportunity to apply the principles and theories he/she has. One of the applications which are thought to contribute to achieving this and create an effective means between theory and practice is micro teaching (Görge, 2003: 56).

Micro teaching method was first revealed at Stanford University in the United States (USA). This method of teaching has taken its present shape in the 1960s and 1970s, when American educators focused their work on it. This method is used particularly in pre-service teacher education and also in in-service training of private and public organizations (Demirel, 2009; Güney and Ersoy, 2010).

Micro teaching is the presentation of the audio-visual records of the teacher training institution students' teaching experiences to them. These records are to be discussed by the consultants who are responsible for the lesson (Alan, 1979). Micro teaching can also be used in pre-service of teachers both in Turkey and other countries as well as in many areas (Çakır and Aksan, 1992; Oliver, 1993; Kazu, 1996; Dennick, 1998; Güney and Ersoy, 2010; Semerci, 2011; Erdem et al., 2012). Allen (1979) stated that micro teaching can be utilized both in pre-service and in-service training of teachers.

Teaching experience has a very important place in teacher training for primary education. Self-efficacy beliefs are affected by the experiences in education faculties and practices in schools (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). When considered from this perspective, micro teaching emerges as an important method to improve the quality of teacher candidates (Güney and Ersoy, 2010; Kartal et al., 2012).

Micro teaching is a teaching method which aims at raising teachers by making systematic trials in terms of their teaching behaviors and is used in their pre-service training (Taşdemir, 2006). This method can be regarded

as a minimized and condensed teaching experiment in terms of number of students, teaching time and subject (Küçükahmet, 1999; Aydın, 2005). Thanks to micro teaching method, prospective teachers have teaching experiences albeit short-term and with this feedback, they have the opportunity to see and resolve their inadequacy (Küçükoğlu et al., 2012).

The camera shot which is one of the most important stages in micro teaching remains inadequate for some reasons. The candidate's self-assessment and especially self-monitoring can only be realized by this stage. Despite all the problems, micro teaching is the most commonly used method as a teacher training method in education faculties in Turkey.

No matter in what way it is used, micro teaching has taken its place not only as an integral part of the educational programs in teacher training faculties, but also in in service training of teachers enabling them to improve themselves continuously for many years in European countries and in America (Meral et al., 1998: 760).

The class where the method is going to be applied should be sufficient in terms of instructional technology. With this method, teachers are given the opportunity to have experience and improve themselves in a low-risk environment. However, in faculties of education in Turkey, the application of this method has some problems. Restriction of time and lack of infrastructure are the biggest ones. Kazu (1998) also stated that the overcrowding of classes pose problems in terms of the implementation of the microteaching. Despite all these problems, in the survey made by Peker (2009), Özçınar and Deryakulu (2011), Güney and Ersoy (2010), micro teaching in teacher training has been shown to be effective. In a survey conducted by Ekşi (2012), it has been stated that teacher candidates find micro teaching useful in professional development because they reconcile theory and practice.

Purpose

In this study, it is aimed to evaluate the micro teaching method in training primary school teachers based on the view of teacher candidates. For this purpose, answers to following sub-problems were sought:

- 1- What are the opinions of primary school teacher candidates regarding the use of micro teaching method in their lesson presentations?
- 2- What are the opinions of primary school teacher candidates about the advantages of micro teaching method?
- 3- What are the opinions of primary school teacher candidates about the disadvantages of micro teaching method?

4- What are the opinions of primary school teacher candidates about the use of camera in micro teaching method?

5- What are the suggestions of primary school teacher candidates about the application of micro teaching method?

METHOD

The model of the research

This is an action research which has a survey type pattern in order to detect an existing situation. Ekiz (2003: 43) defines action research as a kind of research or survey that is carried out by implementers in order to improve education technics and aims to understand, evaluate and change these technics systematically. In this study, data were collected through interviews.

Study group

This research was done in Primary School Teaching Department of the Education Faculty of Mersin University, which is a public university in Turkey. The research was conducted with twenty-four students who are studying in the third grade of the primary school teacher training department, in the end of the 2011-2012 academic year spring semester. Ten of the participants were males and fourteen of them were females. The selection of the students in the study group was based on volunteerism.

Data collection tool

Semi-structured interview form developed by the researcher was used as the data collection tool. Literature was utilized in the development of the interview form. The interview form consisted of two parts. In the first part, there were questions about the personal information of the participants, and in the second part there were research questions. Pre-application has been conducted and experts' opinions are taken for the reliability and the validity study of the interview form. Ten students were interviewed in the pre-application. The expert consulted for the validity of the interview form works in the primary school teacher teaching department of the education faculty. The interview form was finalized after the experts' opinion and the pre-application.

Data analysis

Descriptive analysis was used in data analysis because the sub-problems of the research were pre-determined. After being analysed, the interviews were collected under pre-determined headings and interpreted generally. In order to exemplify and understand the reviews better, some of the participants' opinions were cited. To hide the name of the participant whose views were quoted, coding was used instead of the names of the primary school teacher candidates. F represents the female participants and M represents the male participants in the encoding.

Application

Interviews were recorded with an audio recorder. The participants were previously informed about audio recording. The interviews

ranged from 3 to 9 min. While transferring the opinions to writing, we were careful not to disrupt the meaning. However, some corrections were made where there were narrative and grammatical mistakes. To improve reliability, the analysis of the recording was done by another expert too. In this way the accuracy of the data recording into writing was checked. In the examination made by the expert, no problems were found in the analysis of the audio recordings.

FINDINGS

Opinions about the use of micro teaching method in the course presentation

The teacher candidates who participated in the study stated that micro teaching was not used in course presentation except in one course. The participants expressed that they made their course presentations they were assigned in teaching lessons using only the narration method.

...Micro teaching was applied in only one course, not in the others... (M4)

...When I watched, I exactly saw what I did and how I walked. I think it is a useful application. Other presentations were temporary but in micro teaching method we have the camera shot... (F11)

...Micro teaching was applied in just one course. In most of the lessons the lecturers don't care how the course is done. Instead, these lecturers tell us to come and do the presentation and go. We do our presentations generally reading from power point slides. Only the well-prepared ones can tell without reading. It can't be said that much attention has been paid to how the teaching is done in the lessons in which micro teaching is not used... (M1)

...In most of the lessons the lecturer does not even listen to us. We just tell the lesson and go. In fact, just doing the slide show is enough for some lecturers... (M3)

Micro teaching was found to be applied in only one course in the first three years of the primary school teacher teaching department. The results of the study show that opinions regarding the full implementation of the micro teaching method are generally positive. Some of the participants stating opinions this way have expressions as follows:

...I think micro teaching is the best method that provides student participation. It is even the best method we have seen in our faculty so far. We evaluated ourselves in the lessons in which micro teaching was applied. And this made us more active during the lesson. Moreover, our friends evaluated us too. However, only the lecturers evaluated us in the lessons in which micro teaching was not applied... (M4)

...I watched myself at home, too. I could see that I had deficiencies. Moreover, I realized that there were some students disrupting the lesson and even I was laughing with them. But I couldn't see that during my course

presentation. I could see that clearly when I watched the camera shot... (F8)

...We saw and evaluated ourselves (thanks to camera shots) in micro teaching. We just prepare and do our presentations and go in the lessons in which micro teaching isn't done, that's all. We don't do the critique of our presentations. We are able to evaluate ourselves better because we see ourselves when micro teaching is applied... (M2)

Opinions about the advantages of micro teaching method

It has been expressed that there are many advantages of applying micro teaching in the lessons. Especially the camera shot and watching it after the lesson helped the teacher candidates see themselves more clearly and objectively. Following are some examples to the opinions of the participants:

...When I watched myself, I realized that I had made unnecessary hand gestures. You can see your deficiencies. If there hadn't been camera shot in micro teaching, I couldn't have remembered anything but, it was very effective when I watched myself later. It helped me make my other presentations more effective... (F4)

...I also watch myself at home. I can see my deficiencies more clearly... (F5)

..In all the lessons in which micro teaching is not applied, we just give the lesson but in micro teaching we are more careful about what we say... (M1)

Making comments after the presentations which teacher candidates prepare, evaluation of the lecturer, self-assessment and peer-assessment are stated as some of the advantages of micro teaching method.

...I liked the evaluation part of micro teaching. At the end of the course presentation, the student evaluated himself/herself, two friends evaluated him/her, and the lecturer evaluated him/her. At the end of this evaluation, we had an average assessment. This was an important detail because the assessment part of micro teaching was different. We had never evaluated ourselves before. The lecturers always graded us... (F2)

It is remarkable that some participants say they learned how micro teaching is done and what its contents are when micro teaching was applied.

...I had heard only the name of micro teaching before. By practicing it, I could understand what it was and how it was applied... (F6)

...I learned that there was a camera shot in the lesson in which micro teaching was done. The evaluation was very different in micro teaching because there was self-assessment, peer-assessment and lecturer assessment. It was different because no attention was paid to these in

other academic courses... (F2)

Opinions about the disadvantages of micro teaching

Micro teaching was generally described as a good method by the participants and the question whether there are disadvantages of this method or not was generally answered as there are not disadvantages of this method. The disadvantages which some participants stated were the concern that some teacher candidates may get excited because of the camera shooting and the method is time consuming.

Here are some examples of the opinions in this regard:

...The shortness of time is a disadvantage of this method... (M7)

...We could not always watch ourselves fully in the lessons in which micro teaching was done. I could watch myself completely only at home... (F3)

...Teacher candidates may be anxious because of the camera shooting... (M1)

...Some of the friends may not like camera shooting... (M6)

Opinions about camera use in micro teaching

Camera recording is an important subject in micro teaching. In the interviews, the teacher candidates regard camera shooting as nearly the whole part of micro teaching. Participants are generally observed to take a bright view of camera shooting.

...If there weren't camera shots and I didn't watch myself in the class, I couldn't see my mistakes... (M6)

...Actually I don't like taking photos or videos of myself. But thanks to camera shots we could watch and see our mistakes... (M10)

About micro teaching applications where the presentations were shot with a camera and watched afterwards, primary school teacher candidates stated that their opinions were negative at first but changed positively later.

...In each course, we make applications. But in micro teaching, camera can cause stress for some of us. But this situation lasts for a short time until you get used to it... (F9)

There are also participants who think that the use of camera affects the teacher candidates adversely during their presentations.

...Course presentation is made once. Because of the recording, the mistakes we make are documented. I could be more comfortable if there wasn't camera

shooting. I am more comfortable in the course presentations in which there is not a camera. Still, I can't say I make my presentations better without a camera... (F11)

...When I got very high marks in the lessons without camera shooting, I used to think that I deserved those marks. Camera shooting made me realize that actually I am not so good... (F8)

...We began to have prejudice against the lesson when we heard there would be camera shooting because we were going to watch it again when we made a mistake in front of so many people. We come with a traditional approach, and when we see something new, we oppose to it with prejudices... (M2)

Suggestions about the application of micro teaching

Some of the suggestions about the application of micro teaching are as follows:

...More time should be allowed for the watching process of the camera shot at the end of the micro teaching. This cannot be done because the class is crowded... (F4)

...Duration should be longer in the course presentations... (M7)

...The camera shooting of the presentation can be done secretly. Or test shots can be done to eliminate the excitement of the teacher candidates... (M1)

...Micro teaching should be applied in all the academic courses in which we make presentations... (F1)

...It would be better if there weren't grading process. There shouldn't be grading... (F2)

...Micro teaching should be done with the teacher candidates who volunteer... (M6)

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

It is very important for the quality of the education that teachers have experience with their own presentations in front of their friends and improve their teaching skills before starting to work as a teacher. Because of this, the teaching methods used in the pre-service of teachers come forward. Micro teaching has been the most outstanding of these methods in teacher training recently. Micro teaching is known as a method applied in the classroom. Due to this method, teacher candidates can make their sample presentations in an environment in which they will feel secure in front of their friends and under the guidance of the lecturers.

Various studies are encountered about the status of the use of micro teaching method in the education faculties in Turkey. When these researches are examined, it has

been concluded that micro teaching helps the teacher candidates to identify and resolve their deficiencies, overcome their excitement, and gain teaching skills (Kazu, 1996; Görden, 2003; Gürses et al., 2005; Sarı et al., 2005; Peker, 2009; Erökten and Durkan, 2010; Kuran, 2009; Erdem and friends, 2012; Güney and Ersoy, 2010; Ekşi, 2012; Karadağ and Akkaya, 2013). In this study, the status of micro teaching methods in the primary teaching departments in Turkey was evaluated according to the opinions of the students.

Primary school teacher candidates who participated in the research stated that micro teaching method is not used except for one course. It is understood from the views of the participants that in the academic courses, presentations are limited to be made in front the class. However, it is observed that the participants stated even one experience of micro teaching method they had in one course brought them a lot of competency in terms of teaching skills. Of course it is the lecturer's choice not to use this method. But it is obvious that making the presentations only with the narrative method and evaluation of the presentation only by the lecturer will be quite inefficient. In the research done by Karadağ and Akkaya (2013), it is observed that some participants say micro teaching is applied in few lessons in the department. In the research done by Çakır (2000) in Gazi, Hacettepe and Anadolu Universities, it is concluded that the lecturers want to apply micro teaching but they do not use it for various reasons. In the research done by Yıldırım and Demirtaş (2008), it is concluded that in some courses in department of primary school teacher training, theory and practice should be together. Kuran (2009) noted that micro teaching should be done in the academic courses of the department of elementary school teacher training.

It is inferred from the replies of some participants given to the research questions that only camera recording is understood as micro teaching. However, camera recording is applied only as a stage in micro teaching.

In this research, it is concluded that the use of micro teaching is advantageous in many ways for the teacher candidates. Especially camera shooting and watching it afterwards and seeing themselves more clearly and objectively are the main advantages of micro teaching. Furthermore, it is stated that the critics, evaluation of the lecturer, self-assessment, and peer-assessment after the presentations are the advantageous sides of micro-teaching. It is observed that primary teaching department students say the use of micro teaching in the lessons improve their teaching skills in the research done by Karadağ and Akkaya (2013). In the research done by Küçükoğlu and et al. (2012), it is found that teacher candidates have less difficulty showing their teaching skills with micro teaching applications. In the studies conducted by Şen (2009) and Sevim (2013), teacher candidates noted that they had more self-confidence,

their excitement became less, they had the opportunity to see themselves and they had more experience with micro teaching applications. Çakır and Aksan (1992) stated that micro teaching is an obligation before internship. In this respect, it can be said that micro teaching allows students to see their deficiencies and eliminate them before starting their profession.

In the research done by Sevim (2013), it is stated that micro teaching gives students the opportunity to evaluate themselves better than they do with the traditional methods. In this research, the participants also found the assessment of their presentations more useful when micro teaching is applied. Because in the presentations in which micro teaching is not applied, only the lecturer does the evaluation. But in micro teaching, as well as the lecturer, the people watching the presenter also take part in the evaluation. The fact that teachers' presentations are not evaluated well enough points out that there are some problems in this field. In the research carried out by Çakır (2000), it appears that only half of the lecturers in three universities think the evaluation in micro teaching should be done with the students. In the research carried out by Yalçın et al. (2012), in Mersin University, it is concluded that lessons are not made student-centered enough, few of the lecturers give place to self-assessment, performance observation, and peer-assessment in the assessment process used in presentations.

Primary school teacher candidates stated that using micro teaching in the courses does not have many disadvantages. In only a few of the opinions which argues micro teaching has some disadvantages, it is mentioned that camera shooting may cause teacher candidates to be excited and the method is time consuming. "In some situations, the excitement of the teacher candidate, which is because of the camera shooting, can cause the teacher candidate not to show his/her real performance" (Çakır 2000: 64). In the research conducted by Gürses (2005) it was determined that in the beginning, being recorded with a camera causes teacher candidates to be excited and stressed, but after beginning the lesson, this negative impact decreases. In the research done by Sevim (2013) and Çakır (2000), it is concluded that teacher candidates have to spend more time and effort to apply micro teaching method.

Videotaped lessons will enable the teacher candidates to see their strengths and weaknesses giving them the chance to evaluate their own lessons (Allen, 1979). Watching the camera shot of the course presentation is expected to affect later presentations positively. In this research, the participants expressed that video shots in micro teaching contributes positively to their other presentations, too. In the research done by Gürses and et al. (2005), it is also determined that at the end of the second presentation made after watching the camera

shot, these skills improved even more. However, some teacher candidates stated that camera recording of their presentations made them excited. Görgen (2003) and Sevim (2013), some teacher candidates expressed that video shooting may affect students' presentations negatively albeit at low rates, increase the teacher candidates' excitement, lower the efficiency because it is a new application.

Linmann (1980) supports the idea that recording the lesson and watching it afterwards is an effective way for micro teaching (Erdem et al., 2012). In this research though, primary school teacher candidates indicated that micro teaching is not applied in faculty of education except one lesson. "Video shooting during the lesson is described as useful in terms of evaluating themselves by the teacher candidates" (Erdem et al., 2012). In the study made by Çakır (2000), in three universities (Gazi, Anadolu and Hacettepe), the lecturers using a recording device in micro teaching were only the quarter of the ones who participated in the research.

In micro teaching method, teacher candidates do the presentation in front of the other teacher candidates and the lecturer in the class. The ones in the classroom criticize the presentation (Erdem et al., 2012). The lecturer generally observes the performance of the teacher candidate's presentation. The lecturer notes down the mistakes, and corrects them during the review of the presentation but never interrupts the lesson (Kpanja, 2001). However; in this research, it is observed that some participants say the lecturers do not make any comments after the presentations. This situation might be interpreted as a deficiency in teacher training and it means teaching cannot be done completely.

Micro teaching laboratories which have enough auidial and technological hardware to make video recordings are needed for micro teaching applications which are most frequently used in teacher training. This is because lack of infrastructure which is the most common problem during the implementation phase causes important problems for the implementation of this method. In the research conducted by Yalçın İncik and Tanrıseven (2012) in the Education Faculty of Mersin University, it is concluded that the lecturers find the faculty's physical conditions insufficient in terms of student-centered education. Similar results were emphasized by Çakır (2000) who did research on micro teaching in Gazi, Hacettepe and Anadolu Universities.

About the application of micro teaching, few participants suggested that the time allowed for the application and watching the camera shots should be long enough, micro teaching should be applied in all the lessons, there should no camera recording, camera shooting should be done secretly, presentations should not be graded, and it should be done voluntarily.

The following results have been achieved in the light of the data gained from the research:

1. In the primary school teaching department of the university where the research was conducted, teacher candidates do many presentations and make lessons, but it is pointed out that micro teaching is applied only in one lesson in the first three education years.
2. Micro teaching method was seen as a method to contribute to teaching skills by all of the participants.
3. Teacher candidates stated that video recording helped them to see and evaluate themselves more clearly.
4. It was found useful that other teacher candidates criticize the ones who do the presentations.
5. Participants stated that the evaluation of micro teaching made multiple contributions to teaching skills.
6. It is emphasized that the time allocated for micro teaching is short and it should be increased.
7. It is mentioned that micro teaching should be applied in the other courses of primary school teaching program.

Based on the conclusion obtained from this research, these suggestions are made:

1. Why micro teaching is not preferred by the lecturers should be researched.
2. Necessary regulations should be made in teacher training programs for the micro teaching method to be used in all academic courses.
3. Research that will demonstrate how course presentations are evaluated in primary school teaching departments should be carried out.
4. In training courses, course presentations conducted by teacher candidates should be recorded by a camera and monitored.
5. Micro teaching should also be used during the in-service of teachers.
6. Hours of the training courses in primary school teaching degree programs should be rearranged.
7. Laboratory environment necessary for micro teaching should be established in education faculties and the infrastructure and equipment necessary for this laboratory should be provided to the lecturers.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Measuring Technology Acceptance level of Turkish pre-service English teachers by using technology acceptance Model

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The aim of this study is to investigate technology acceptance of prospective English teachers by using Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) in Turkish context. The study is based on Structural Equation Model (SEM). The participants of the study from English Language Teaching Departments of Hacettepe, Gazi and Başkent Universities. The participants are 213 pre-service English teachers. In order to collect data, Computer Attitude Scale (CAS), developed by Selwyn (1997), was used. As a first step in the study, prospective English teachers' general attitudes towards technology were assessed. The results indicated that prospective English teachers had positive attitudes towards technology and technology use in lessons. As a next step, an ANOVA test was used to compare participants from different grade levels in terms of their attitudes towards technology use. The results indicated that first grade prospective English teachers have relatively lower levels of positive attitudes towards technology. Then, the model fit indices were calculated and the scale was subjected to factor analysis. As a result, the model that was constructed within the scope of the study was found to be perfect based on the results of a number of fit test indices and reasonable based on few fit test indices. Therefore, the model was found to be meaningful and usable. The results indicated that four of the hypotheses formed within the scope of the study were proven and one of them was rejected. Overall, it must be noted that there is a strong positive correlation between attitudes towards computer use and behavioral intention to use computers.

Key words: Technology use, prospective English teachers, computer self-efficacy, TAM model.

INTRODUCTION

The issue of technology acceptance has been on the agenda of researchers as educational technologies have kept on evolving. The main objective is to integrate technology into classroom settings so that the teaching

and learning process can be facilitated. According to literature, the level of technology use is closely related to teachers' technology acceptance (Aypay et al., 2012). In this case, it is vital that students in language classes be

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provided with the necessary technology. However, the level of technology application does not seem to be adequate for the time being. Now that they are teachers who are supposed to initiate technology use in classes (Zhao et al., 2001), it is important to investigate prospective English teachers' attitudes towards technology and the factors that shape prospective English teachers attitudes (Teo et al., 2007). According to Teo et al. (2007), teachers' attitudes towards technology and their willingness to use technology are important determinant of successful technology use in classroom. According to Wong et al. (2012), the integration of technology into language classes highly depends on teachers' willingness and effective teachers are needed for efficient educational technology use.

In this study, Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), put forward by Davis (1989), was used in order to investigate the factors that affect technology use of pre-service English teachers. According to Technology Acceptance Model, perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness are the most important factors that determine technology use. Perceived usefulness can be defined as the extent to which technology increases occupational competence. Perceived ease of use denotes an effortless use of technology on the part of teachers (Davis, 1989). Therefore, as sub-dimensions of technology acceptance model, perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness are the most important factors influencing teachers' attitudes to use technology and a bulk of research has been carried out since this model was proposed (Teo and Noyes, 2011; Venkatesh and Davis, 2000; King and He, 2006). According to literature, studies that have been carried out in different countries accentuate the role of teachers (Almekhlafi and Almeqdadi, 2010; Rasimah et al., 2011; Wong and Teo, 2009). This again demonstrates the importance of teacher attitudes towards technology use in classes.

TAM has become one of the most widely used models in technology embedded education research (Kılıç, 2014). What makes the TAM model widespread is its understandability and simplicity (King and He, 2006). There are a number of studies that focus on the TAM in order to investigate the relation between users' beliefs and their intentions to use technology (Teo, 2009, 2010; Teo and Noyes 2011; Venkatesh and Davis, 2000). As we can understand from the literature, technology acceptance model can be used to measure attitudes towards instructional technology use. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to measure technology acceptance of pre-service English teachers in Turkish context.

RELATED LITERATURE

Wong et al. (2012) carried out a study in order to find evidence for and support the technology acceptance model (TAM) in an educational context and secondarily to

explore the role of gender and computer teaching efficacy as external variables in technology acceptance in Malaysian context. They found that the model was adequately explained by the data. The model accounted for 36.8 percent of the variance in intention to use computers among student teachers. Sumak et al. (2011) found that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use were factors that directly affected students' attitude, and perceived usefulness was the strongest and most significant determinant of students' attitude toward using technology in learning. Hişmanoğlu (2012) carried out a study in Turkish context in order to investigate the perceptions of prospective EFL teachers in the distance higher education system toward ICT implementation in teaching English as a foreign language. Hişmanoğlu's study (2012) found that training that will enable teachers to become competent in and receptive to ICT is quite critical.

Teo (2009) carried out a study based on technology acceptance model and investigated teacher candidates in Singapore. The study found that technology acceptance of teachers increased their effective technology use in their lessons. In a similar vein, using technology acceptance model, Dikbaş et al. (2006) investigated perceptions of teachers about using technology in lessons. The authors found that perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness are important predictors of effective technology use.

There are other studies that focus on teachers' technology use in classes in Turkish context. Aypay and Özbaşı (2008), for example, worked on teachers' attitudes towards computers and found that demographic background, experience, motivation, and teaching methods influence teachers' technology use. Another striking finding of their study was that teachers with low technological self-efficacy avoid using technology in classes; teachers with moderate technology self-efficacy tend to use technology moderately. This finding emphasizes the fact that self-efficacy is a very important predictor of technology use on the part of teachers. Studies also found that institutional and occupational opportunities and the availability of computers at schools contribute to teachers' willingness to integrate technology into their lessons (Altun, 2003; Aşkar and Usluel, 2003; Aypay, 2010; Demiraslan and Usluel, 2005; Uşun, 2004).

There are a number of other studies that report that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use impact attitude toward technology use and behavioral intention to use technology (Rasimah et al., 2011; Teo, 2011; Wong and Teo, 2009; Sumak et al., 2011). Most of these studies re-discovered the impact of perceived usefulness on intention to use and perceived ease of use influence intention to use indirectly through attitudes (Wong et al., 2012). We can understand from the stated studies that there is ample evidence that support the Technology Acceptance Model in related literature.

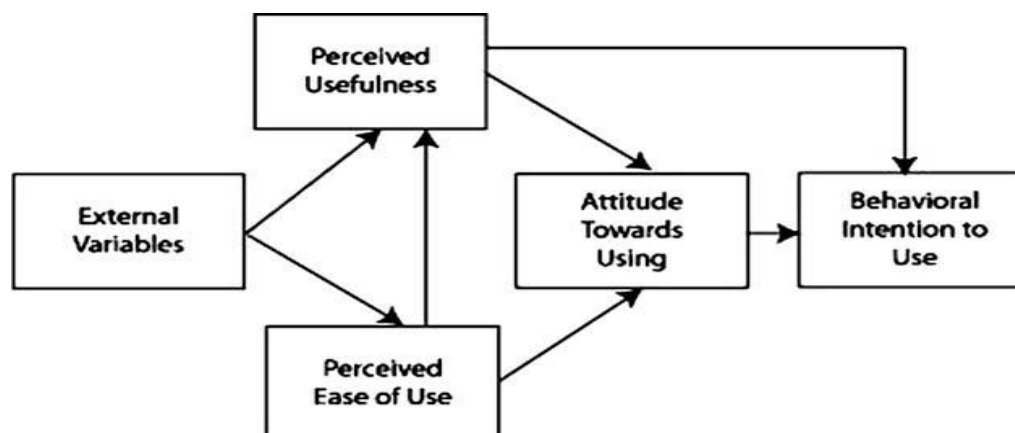


Figure 1. Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) (Davis, 1989).

Theoretical background

Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) was introduced by Davis (1989). It provided a theoretical context that explained the relationship of attitude-intention-behaviour (Figure 1). TAM model basically puts forward that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use are the fundamental determinants of technology acceptance. The main claim of the TAM is that technology users' beliefs and their attitudes affect the intention to use a specific piece of technology. User attitudes to technology are determined by perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use.

As of the 1970s, researchers have made an attempt to account for conditions and factors that are related to facilitation of technology use in business life (Legris et al., 2003). Most of the effort was placed on developing and testing models that could help in predicting technology usage. One of the most popular of these models is Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). Up to now, TAM has been used in a huge number of studies and it has been scientifically proven to be highly successful in predicting technology acceptance (Legris et al., 2003).

The TAM model dates back to Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) theory of reasoned action (TRA). TRA was interested in how beliefs and attitudes influence individuals' intentions to perform. TAM was developed by Davis (1989) as a theoretical extension of TRA.

The sub-dimensions of technology acceptance model are computer self-efficacy, perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, attitudes towards computers, and behavioral intention to use computers and the model claims that each of these sub-dimensions affects each other and they collectively affect behavioral intention to use computers. According to Technology Acceptance Model, perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use

sub-dimensions are the most important sub-dimensions that predict technology use.

According to technology acceptance model, there is a causal relationship among perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, attitudes towards computer, and behavioral intention to use computers. Together with perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use affects teachers' willingness to integrate technology into their lessons. The technology acceptance model is given in Figure 1.

According to Social Cognitive Theory of Bandura (1997), self-efficacy refers to the confidence levels of individuals in dealing with different tasks and their ability to influence events that are influential in their lives. The literature indicates that individuals who have high levels of self-efficacy view challenging tasks as "meaningful challenges" (Tsai et al., 2011: 223). Facilitating conditions refer to the type of support that the individuals get with the aim of affecting their use of technology (Venkatesh et al., 2008). As for facilitating conditions on the part of teachers, training programs, knowledge, supporting services could be counted (Aypay et al., 2012). In a study that was carried out in Taiwan, facilitating conditions were found to be one of the critical factors that influence behavioral intention to use technology in classes (Lu et al., 2005).

In short, there are four important factors related to technology acceptance: the perceived ease of use of technology; the perceived usefulness of technology; the attitudes toward the use of technology; and the frequency of use of technology. This means that when people believe that technology is easy to use and will be beneficial to them in their professional practices, they develop positive attitudes toward its use. In turn, when teachers have positive attitudes towards technology use, they will have more intention to use technology in their classes.

Research questions

1. What are the pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding:

- a) perceived usefulness
- b) perceived ease of use
- c) facilitating conditions
- d) computer attitudes
- e) technological complexity
- f) computer self-efficacy
- g) behavioral intention to use technology

2. Are there differences among the grade levels in terms of the following:

- a) perceived usefulness
- b) perceived ease of use
- c) facilitating conditions
- d) computer attitudes
- e) technological complexity
- f) computer self-efficacy
- g) behavioral intention to use technology

3. Does attitude toward computer use (ATCU) significantly and positively influence pre-service English teachers' behavioral intention to use computers (BI)?

4. Does perceived ease of use (PEU) significantly and positively influence pre-service English teachers' attitude toward computer use (ATCU) and perceived usefulness (PU)?

5. Does perceived usefulness (PU) significantly and positively influence pre-service English teachers' behavioral intention to use computer (BI) and pre-service English teachers' attitude toward computer use (ATCU)?

METHODOLOGY

The study is based on survey method and structural equation model.

Participants

The total number of the participants of the study is 213. All the participants are pre-service English teachers from two major universities in Ankara. The number of the participants from Hacettepe University English Language Teaching Department is 147 (69.0%), and the number of the pre-service teachers from Gazi University English Language and Teaching Department is 66 (31.0%). The number of female students is 166 (77.9%), and the number of male students is 47 (22.1%). The number of participants in the 1st grade is 49 (23.0%); 2nd grade, 60 (28.2%); 3rd grade, 50 (23.5%), and 4th grade, 54 (25.4%).

Data collection tool

As data collection tool, Computer Attitude Scale (CAS), developed

by Selwyn'in (1997), was used. The instrument consists of 22 items in total. CAS measures technology acceptance in relation to 5 interrelated variables: (1) Perceived usefulness (PU), (2) Perceived ease of use (PEU), (3) Facilitating conditions (FC), (4) Attitude toward Computer Use (ATCU), (5) Technological complexity (TC), (6) Computer Self-efficacy (CSE), (7) Behavioral Intention to Use Technology (BI). Participants responded to the Computer Attitude Scale using a five-point scale of strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5).

Perceived usefulness (PU) can be defined as the extent to which a person believes that using a particular technology will improve his or her job performance (Davis et al., 1989). Davies (1989) makes the point that most people decide on whether to use technological device or not in their professional lives based on their belief that it will decrease time for doing the job, or achieving more efficiency and accuracy. Perceived ease of use (PEU) is mainly related to the effort that is needed in using a particular technology (Davis et al., 1989). It is quite likely that people may perceive computers as highly versatile while at the same time think that they are too difficult to use. Therefore, it can be speculated that high level of PU promotes positive attitudes. Facilitating conditions refer to factors that are present in the environment that exert an influence over a person's desire to perform a task. In general, attitudes are defined as the way an individual responds to and is disposed towards an object. In the context of technological acceptance, Attitudes toward Computer Use (ATCU) play a major role and there is evidence that computer attitudes are major predictors for future computer use (Myers and Halpin, 2002). Behavioral intention (BI) is one of the major variables of TAM. As was stated, TAM includes two behavioral beliefs, PU and PEU, and the model hypothesizes that these influence an individual's intention to use computers. That is to say, BI paves the way for the actual use of technologies (Teo et al., 2008). In the present study, the descriptive analyses have been carried out for all the stated variables. For the model employed, the variables that are peculiar to TAM were included. These are PEU, PU, ATCU, and BI.

Data analysis

The statistical analysis consists of two stages. The first stage includes descriptive statistics of the measurement items. The second stage involves testing the proposed research model and assessing the contributions and significance of the manifest variables.

RESULTS

Research question 1: What are the perceptions of pre-service English teachers on (a) perceived usefulness, (b) perceived ease of use, (c) facilitating conditions, (d) computer attitudes, (e) technological complexity, (f) computer self-efficacy, and (g) behavioral intention?

When we examine Table 1, we can see the mean scores for perceived usefulness (12.50), perceived ease of use (15.41), facilitating conditions (10.22), attitudes towards computer use (15.94), technological complexity (9.72), computer self-efficacy (15.85), and behavioral intention (8.40). As we can understand from mean scores, the participants have positive perceptions about the

Table 1. Descriptive statistics about the variables.

| Variables | M | Mod | Median | sd | Range |
|-------------------------------|-------|-------|--------|------|-------|
| perceived usefulness | 12.50 | 15.00 | 12.00 | 2.43 | 9.00 |
| perceived ease of use | 15.41 | 16.00 | 16.00 | 3.05 | 13.00 |
| facilitating conditions | 10.22 | 9.00 | 10.00 | 2.67 | 12.00 |
| attitudes toward computer use | 15.94 | 20.00 | 16.00 | 3.25 | 13.00 |
| technological complexity | 9.72 | 8.00 | 9.00 | 3.89 | 16.00 |
| computer self-efficacy | 15.85 | 20.00 | 16.00 | 3.24 | 12.00 |
| behavioral intention | 8.40 | 9.00 | 9.00 | 1.08 | 4.00 |

variables.

Research question 2: Are there differences among the grade levels in terms of (a) perceived usefulness, (b) perceived ease of use, (c) facilitating conditions, (d) computer attitudes, (e) technological complexity, (f) computer self-efficacy

In order to determine whether there are differences between various grade levels of pre-service English teachers in terms of (a) perceived usefulness, (b) perceived ease of use, (c) facilitating conditions, (d) computer attitudes, (e) technological complexity, (f) computer self-efficacy, ANOVA was carried out. The results are presented in Table 2.

When we examine Table 2, we can understand that there are no statistically significant differences among different grades in terms of perceived usefulness ($F_{3,205}=2.527$, $p>.05$). As for perceived ease of use (PEU), the results in Table 2 indicate that there is a statistically significant difference among grade levels ($F_{3,205}=4.693$, $p<.05$). In order to find out which grade levels differ in terms of perceived ease of use, post hoc test was applied and the results indicated that 1st grade ($\bar{X}=14.10$) and 2nd grade ($\bar{X}=15.85$) pre-service English teachers and 1st ($\bar{X}=14.10$) and 4th grade ($\bar{X}=16.25$) pre-service English teachers differ in terms of their perceptions about perceived ease of use. As we can understand from the mean scores presented, the mean scores increase as the grade level increases.

As for facilitating conditions, there are statistically significant differences among grade levels ($F_{3,205}=2.662$, $p<.05$). Post hoc tests indicate that there are statistically significant differences between 1st grade ($\bar{X}=9.29$) and 4th grade ($\bar{X}=10.65$) pre-service English teachers. Statistically significant differences were also observed in terms of attitudes toward computer use ($F_{3,205}=5.379$, $p<.05$). The results of the post hoc test indicated that there are statistically significant differences between 1st grade ($\bar{X}=14.52$) and 4th grade ($\bar{X}=17.02$) pre-service English teachers. As for technological complexity, no statistically significant differences were found among grade levels ($F_{3,205}=0.630$, $p>.05$). Finally, statistically

significant differences were found among grade levels in terms of computer self-efficacy ($F_{3,205}=4.838$, $p<.05$). The results of the post hoc test indicated that there are statistically significant differences between 1st grade ($\bar{X}=14.42$) and 4th grade ($\bar{X}=16.75$) pre-service English teachers. Finally, as for behavioral intention to use technology in their future teaching career, there are difference between grade levels ($F_{3,205}=22.721$, $p<.05$). Behavioral intention to use technology also increases as grade level increases. This indicates that pre-service English teachers develop positive intention to use technology in their classes.

As we can understand from the results of ANOVA and subsequent post hoc tests, there are statistically significant differences between grade levels in terms of perceived ease of use, facilitating conditions, attitudes toward computer use, and computer self-efficacy. Mainly, differences are between first grade and fourth grade pre-service English teachers. It may be speculated that the process of instruction from the first year through the fourth year makes significant changes in the technological acceptance of pre-service English teachers.

The model

Goodness-of-fit of the model

Figure 2 shows the relationships among the variables of technology acceptance model. According to the figure:

1. the variables that are shown in circle are implicit variables
2. the variables that are shown in small rectangles are observed variables
3. one-way arrows indicate one way relations

In the first place, a confirmatory factor analysis was carried out in order to ascertain the relationship among the variables shown in the figure above. As is known, confirmatory factor analysis is used to prove whether the model is supported by the collected data by showing the interrelations among variables. Figure 3 presents the

Table 2. ANOVA results for grade level.

| Variables | Status | N | M | F | Sig. |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------|----|-------|-------|------|
| perceived usefulness | 1 ST grade | 48 | 11.94 | 2,527 | .059 |
| | 2 nd grade | 60 | 12.65 | | |
| | 3 rd grade | 50 | 12.18 | | |
| | 4 th grade | 51 | 13.16 | | |
| perceived ease of use | 1 ST grade | 48 | 14,10 | 4,963 | .002 |
| | 2 nd grade | 60 | 15,85 | | |
| | 3 rd grade | 50 | 15,26 | | |
| | 4 th grade | 51 | 16,25 | | |
| facilitating conditions | 1 ST grade | 48 | 9,29 | 2,662 | .049 |
| | 2 nd grade | 60 | 10,48 | | |
| | 3 rd grade | 50 | 10,34 | | |
| | 4 th grade | 51 | 10,65 | | |
| attitudes toward computer use | 1 ST grade | 48 | 14,52 | 5,379 | .001 |
| | 2 nd grade | 60 | 15,92 | | |
| | 3 rd grade | 50 | 16,24 | | |
| | 4 th grade | 51 | 17,02 | | |
| technological complexity | 1 ST grade | 48 | 9,88 | ,630 | .596 |
| | 2 nd grade | 60 | 9,45 | | |
| | 3 rd grade | 50 | 10,28 | | |
| | 4 th grade | 51 | 9,33 | | |
| computer self-efficacy | 1 ST grade | 48 | 14,42 | 4,838 | .003 |
| | 2 nd grade | 60 | 16,05 | | |
| | 3 rd grade | 50 | 16,06 | | |
| | 4 th grade | 51 | 16,75 | | |
| Behavioral intention | 1 ST grade | 48 | 7,65 | 22.72 | .000 |
| | 2 nd grade | 60 | 8,15 | | |
| | 3 rd grade | 50 | 9,10 | | |
| | 4 th grade | 51 | 8,74 | | |

results of confirmatory factor analysis and standardized path co-efficients.

When we examine goodness-of-fit index (Table 3), we can see that all the indices for goodness except RMSEA and AGFI are almost perfect. For NFI, NNFI, RFI, and CFI indices, the values .95 and above indicate a perfect fit, and values .90 and above indicate good fit. Depending on this, we can say that the values obtained in this study are almost perfect. For RMR and SRMR, however, values .05 and below indicate perfect fit. The values obtained in this study are .037 and 0.046, respectively, and this indicates perfect fit. Similarly, the fact that the ratio of the chi-square value is below 3 indicates perfect

fit. Although RMSEA value (.062) is slightly below perfect fit value (.05), this is an acceptable situation in terms of model fitness (<.08). According to GFI and AGFI, the values that are below perfect fit value (.93 and .89, respectively) also indicate good fitness.

As a result, the model that was formed among latent and observable variables within the scope of the study has perfect fit based on the majority of goodness-of-fit indices, acceptable for few goodness-of-fit indices. Therefore, the model can be used for further analysis. The LISREL results of structural equation model (SEM) tests of the model are presented in Figure 2.

Figure 4 presents the standardized path analysis results

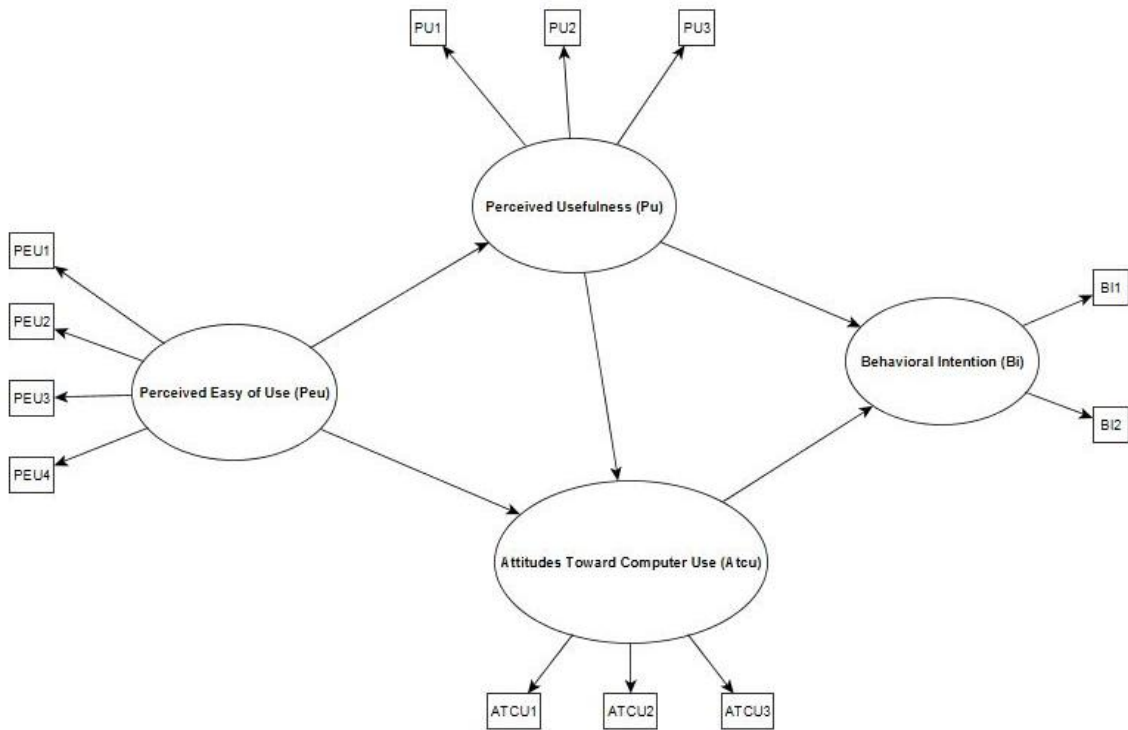
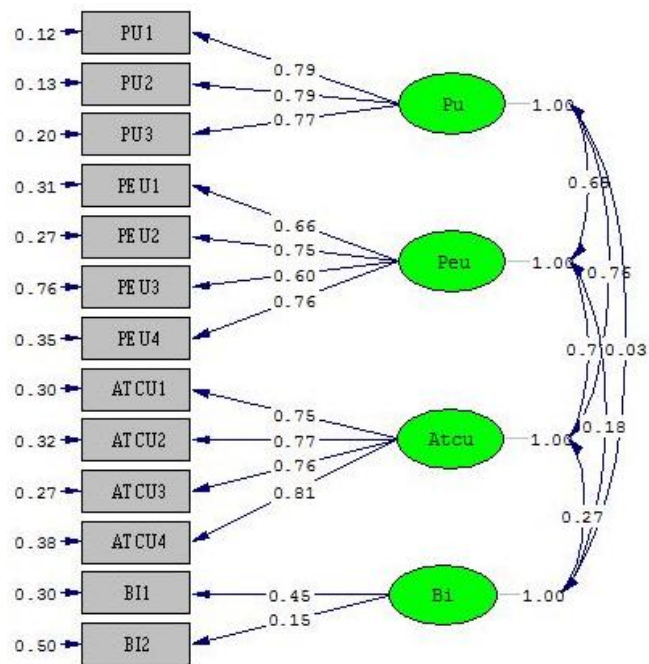


Figure 2. The relationships among the variables of technology acceptance model.

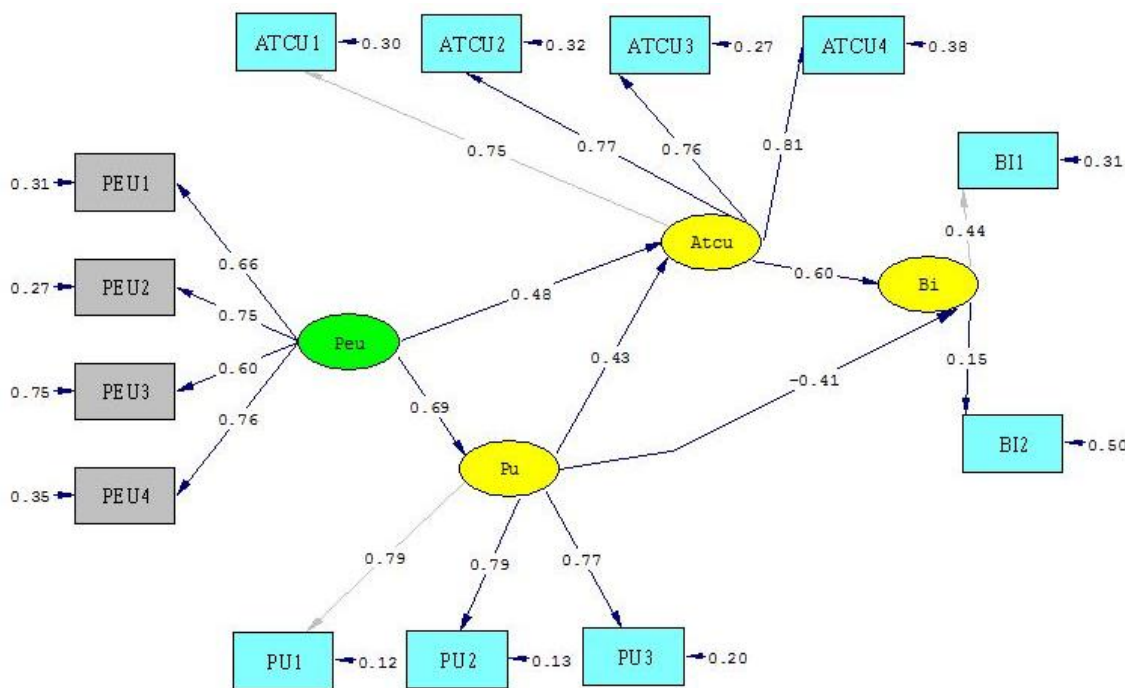


Chi-Square=105.62, df=59, P-value=0.00019, RMSEA=0.062

Figure 3. The results of confirmatory factor analysis to investigate the interrelations among latent and observable variables.

Table 3. The goodness-of-fit indices of the model.

| χ^2/sd | RMSEA | NFI | NNFI | CFI | RMR | SRMR | GFI | AGFI | RFI |
|-------------|-------|-----|------|-----|------|------|-----|------|-----|
| 1.790 | .062 | .97 | .98 | .99 | .037 | .046 | .93 | .89 | .96 |



Chi-Square=105.60, df=60, P-value=0.00026, RMSEA=0.060

Figure 4. The results of the path analysis among the latent and observable variables of the model.

Table 4. The goodness-of-fit indices of the model.

| χ^2/sd | RMSEA | NFI | NNFI | CFI | RMR | SRMR | GFI | AGFI | RFI |
|-------------|-------|-----|------|-----|------|------|-----|------|-----|
| 1.760 | .060 | .97 | .98 | .99 | .037 | .046 | .93 | .89 | .96 |

among the latent and observable variables of the model. The goodness-of-fit indices are given in Table 4.

When we examine the values in Table 4, we can see that the results of confirmatory factor analysis are very close. The chi-square value for the whole model decreased slightly and this produced better results in terms of goodness fit compared to confirmatory factor analysis. It is evident that the fit indices are equivalent to the results of confirmatory factor analysis and therefore what was said about CFA is valid for structural equation

model. In other words, the analysis of the model through SEM revealed that the data fit of the model was found to be perfect based on most of the fit indices and good based on few fitness indices. The t-values for the path analysis values and the significance of the relation among the latent and observable variables of the Structural Equation Model are presented in Figure 3.

Research question 3: Does attitude toward computer use (ATCU) significantly and positively influence pre-service

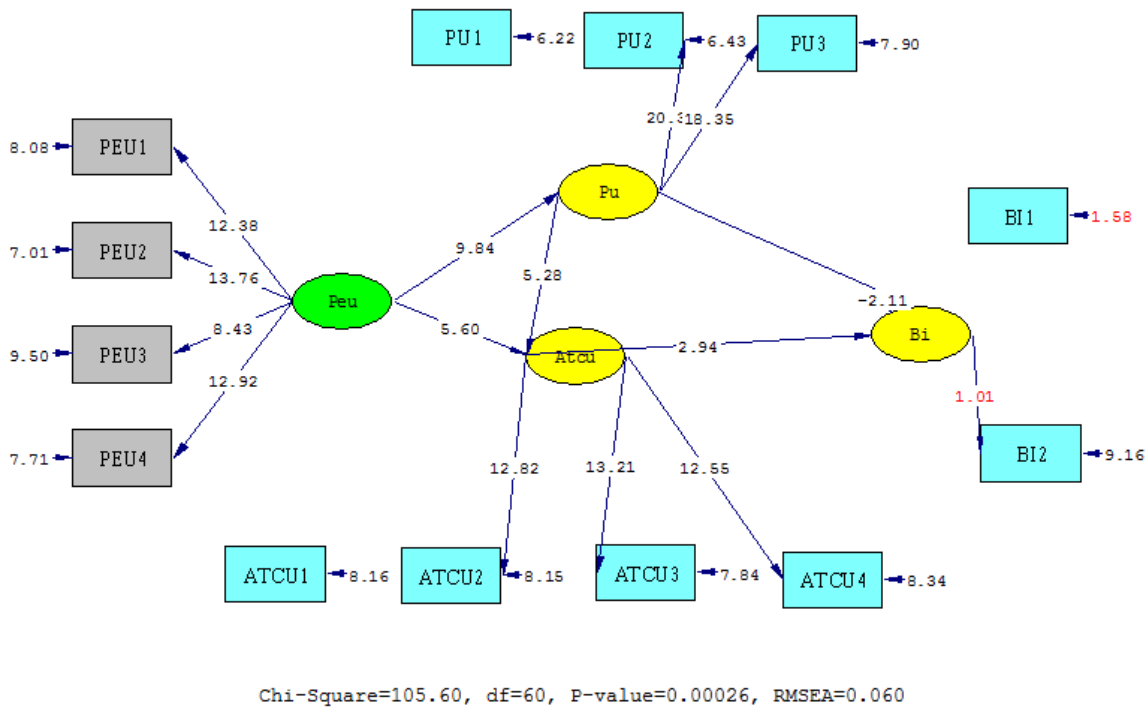


Figure 5. The t-values for the path analysis values and the significance of the relation among the latent and observable variables of the Structural Equation Model.

English teachers’ behavioral intention to use computers (BI)?

Based on Figure 5, it can be said that there is unidirectional positive relation between perceived usefulness and computer use ($t=5.28, p<.05$). Therefore, perceived usefulness is a predictor of attitudes towards computer and has a significant impact on it.

Research question 4: Does perceived ease of use (PEU) significantly and positively influence pre-service English teachers’ attitude toward computer use (ATCU) and perceived usefulness (PU)?

Based on the figure, it can be said that there is unidirectional positive relation between perceived usefulness and behavioral intention to use computers ($t=-2.11, p<.05$). However, the relation was found to be negative. In addition, it can be said that there is unidirectional positive relation between perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness ($t(13)=9.84, p<.05$). Perceived ease of use is a predictor of perceived usefulness and has a significant impact on it. We can say that perceived ease of use (PEU) has a considerable influence on attitudes to computer use and perceived usefulness.

Research question 5: Does perceived usefulness (PU)

significantly and positively influence pre-service English teachers’ behavioral intention to use computer (BI) and pre-service English teachers’ attitude toward computer use (ATCU)?

Based on the figure, it can be said that there is unidirectional positive relation between perceived ease of use and behavioral intention to use technology in lessons ($t=5.60, p<.05$). Perceived ease of use is a significant predictor of behavioral intention to use technology in lessons. Moreover, it can be said that there is unidirectional positive relation between attitudes towards computers and behavioral intention to use technology in lessons ($t=2.94, p<.05$). Attitudes towards computers are a significant predictor of behavioral intention to use technology in lessons.

DISCUSSION

The present study was intended to measure pre-service English teachers’ technology acceptance by using Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). The results found sound evidence to support the tenets of the TAM model. In the first place, descriptive statistics indicated that the participants have positive perceptions about *perceived ease of use, facilitating conditions, attitudes towards*

computer use, technological complexity, computer self-efficacy, and behavioral intention to use technology. This finding is in line with with other research studies (Abdullah et al., 2006; Kılıç, 2014; Cakir and Solak, 2014).

Descriptive statistics also indicated that there are statistically significant differences between grade levels in terms of *perceived ease of use, facilitating conditions, attitudes toward computer use, and computer self-efficacy.* Mainly, differences were found to be between first grade and fourth grade pre-service English teachers. It was speculated that the process of instruction from the first year through the fourth year makes significant changes in the technological acceptance of pre-service English teachers. A similar finding was also voiced by Adalier (2012), who worked on Turkish and English language teacher candidates' in Cyprus, and found that pre-service teachers differed in their attitudes to technology use in terms of grade level as opposed to other variables like department, age, gender and socio-economic level.

As is hypothesized by the model, the study found that perceived usefulness positively affects prospective English teachers' attitudes towards technology, perceived ease of use positively affects perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use positively affects attitudes towards technology use, and finally and most importantly attitudes towards computer use positively affect behavioral intention to use technology in classes. Interestingly, *perceived ease of use* was not found to affect behavioral intention to use computers in lessons. This finding is not in line with the general research findings. Current research suggests positive and strong relationship among perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and attitude toward computer use (Moran et al., 2010; Pynoo et al., 2011; Rasimah et al., 2011; Teo, 2011; Sumak et al., 2011). Therefore, it is important that TAM model can be used to measure technology acceptance of pre-service teachers.

The results of the present study suggested that there is a relationship between attitudes towards instructional technology use and behavioral intention to use technology. This finding is supported by other research studies. Teo et al. (2008), for example, found that despite the fact that perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use and computer attitudes had a different interactional pattern for Malaysian and Singaporean pre-service English teachers, there was no difference in the way the dependent variable (BI) had been treated by the participants. The results of this study also indicated that both Singaporean and Malaysian pre-service teachers would most likely integrate technology into their teaching-learning process. Kiraz and Özdemir (2006) also revealed in Turkish context that computer attitudes influence the behavioral intention to use instructional technology use in the classroom. The close relationship between attitudes to instructional technologies and

intention to use them has also been pointed out by Teo (2008).

Conclusion

The results of the study indicate that teacher educators need to understand the dimensions that influence pre-service teachers' attitudes towards computers to design teacher-training curricula in a way that will prepare teachers to face the challenges in the information age (Fisher, 2000). Since attitude toward computer use has been found to predict behavioral intention to use computers both in related literature and in the present study, a sound understanding of preservice English teachers' computer attitudes will shed light on future computer use by in-service teachers. The inadequacy of Turkish pre-service education programs in equipping students with positive attitudes and necessary skills has been voiced by some researchers in the Turkish context (Inan et al., 2004; Yildirim and Kiraz, 1999). Teachers play a crucial role in the implementation of instructional technologies in schools and their attitudes have proved to be significant predictors of technology use; teachers' attitude towards the use of ICT for educational purposes is one key factor for the success of the ICT utilization in schools. Therefore, pre-service education programs in Turkey must be empowered to include more education on the use of instructional technologies in their future careers.

The present study was carried out with pre-service teachers selected from three universities in Turkey. Now that some studies pointed out that research context makes a difference in results (Teo et al., 2008), future studies should be carried out in a wider context in order to facilitate comparison. In addition, the present study did not include an external variable. Future studies can include an external variable like motivation. Although the self-efficacy variable was not included in the model employed in the present study, the literature clearly shows that when teachers know how to use computers or become more comfortable with using them they are more likely to develop positive attitudes towards them as well (Teo, 2009). Furthermore, longitudinal studies can be designed to determine the stages of attitudinal changes pre-service teachers go through. Therefore, teacher education programs must attract more importance to the element of technology in their programs.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interest.

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Full Length Research Paper

The differences in the conceptualizations of autonomy by English language instructors regarding some variables

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With the changing trends and approaches in education various new concepts have emerged. Of these, learner autonomy stands out as a major concept. This study examined how Turkish instructors of English conceptualize learner autonomy and what they do to promote learner autonomy in their particular teaching contexts. Additionally, the study aimed at investigating the differences in the conceptualizations of autonomy by English language instructors with respect to some variables such as the years of teaching experience, gender, the highest degree obtained, and the type of institution. A total of 109 instructors working in the Schools of Foreign Languages at four state and two private universities participated in the study. The data were collected through an adapted version of the questionnaire originally developed by Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012). Several differences were found in the participating instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy with respect to gender and the type of institution. Female instructors were found to be more positive than their male counterparts about involving students in choosing their own learning materials. The study revealed that the instructors working at private universities, as compared to their colleagues working at state universities, were less in favor of involving students in the decisions about what would be learned, which learning materials would be used, and how learning would be assessed.

Key words: Autonomy, English Language teaching, conceptualizations of autonomy, practices of autonomy, Turkish instructors.

INTRODUCTION

As stated by Smith (2008), the notion of learner autonomy is not new. It has appeared in the field of English language teaching since the late 1990s. The concept of learner autonomy was first introduced in the field of language teaching through the Modern Languages Project initiated by the Council of Europe. The primary aim of the project was to provide adults with opportunities for lifelong learning. The project gave birth

to the establishment of the Centre de Recherches et d'Applications Pédagogiques en Langues (CRAPEL) in France in the early 1970s. To fulfill its mission, that is, to equip adult learners with lifelong learning skills, the first self-access resource centers were opened at CRAPEL and at Cambridge University. The underlying rationale for self-access centers was that the language learners would be exposed to a rich collection of second language

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materials through which they would be able to experiment with self-directed learning.

Since its conception, learner autonomy has been the focus of attention in foreign language teaching. In its broadest terms, learner autonomy operates on the premise that “learners have the power and right to learn for themselves” (Smith, 2008:2). Although much research has been done on the theoretical bases, application and potential benefits of autonomy with regard to language learners, the studies of how teachers conceptualize autonomy have been relatively limited.

According to Borg (2007), teachers’ instructional choices are influenced by their beliefs. Thus, it is important to know about teachers’ conceptualizations of autonomy. It should be noted that concepts come to life, serve better and can be translated into informed practices when they are well understood and interpreted by the practitioners. With this in mind, the current study had several goals. It first aimed to investigate how Turkish instructors of English conceptualize learner autonomy. Second, the study examined whether their conceptualizations of autonomy differed based on some variables, and finally the current study looked at the ways they translate their conceptualizations of learner autonomy into practices in their teaching. Using the definition of learner autonomy based on relevant literature, the importance of learner autonomy and the ways to promote it will be discussed.

With regard to the studies on learner autonomy, Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) argue that the existing studies on learner autonomy neglect the views of teachers. The present study will endeavour to provide insights into the concept of learner autonomy thereby contributing to a relatively limited body of research.

What is learner autonomy?

Although autonomy has been defined in various ways by a number of researchers to date, Holec’s (1981:3) following definition of learner autonomy still remains the most preferred one. Holec defined learner autonomy as “the capacity to take charge of ones’ own learning [which is] ...to have and to hold the responsibility for all decisions concerning all aspects of this learning, including, but not necessarily limited to, determining the objectives, defining the contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedures of acquisition, and evaluating what has been acquired”.

Benson, another influential researcher who contributed to the literature on learner autonomy, defined learning autonomy as ‘the capacity to take control of one’s own learning’ (2001:2). Similarly, Little (1991:4) defined learner autonomy as “essentially a matter of the learner’s psychological relation to the process and content of learning – a capacity for detachment, critical reflection,

decision-making, and independent action”. On the other hand, Dam and colleagues (1990) pointing out the social orientation of learner autonomy, that learning is a social activity processing in cooperation with others, defined learning autonomy as “a capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others, as a social, responsible person” (1990:102).

Defining autonomy as “the freedom and ability to manage one’s own affairs ...” Scharle and Szabo (2000:4) highlighted the connection between learner autonomy and responsibility. Likewise, in Thanasoulas’s terms, (2000) ‘learner autonomy is an ideal...that can, and should, be realized if we want self-sufficient learners and citizens capable of evaluating every single situation they find themselves in...’ (2000:10).

Given that the related literature is crowded with variants of autonomy definitions by either replacing the word ‘*capacity*’ with ‘*ability*’ or adding new dimensions such as ‘*cooperation*’, and ‘*language-awareness*’ it will be wise to look at what learner autonomy is not. Esch’s (1998; cited in Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012:4) following quote clarifies the complexities over the definition. According to Esch:

“it is not self-instruction/learning without a teacher;... it does not mean that intervention or initiative on the part of a teacher is banned; ... it is not something teachers do to learners; i.e. a new methodology; ... it is not a single easily identifiable behaviour; ... it is not a steady state achieved by learners once and for all”.

Similarly, Borg (2013) provided a list of attributes which characterize learner autonomy. Following are the core attributes of learner autonomy: Despite the many definition variations, what is obvious is that learner autonomy made its premier thirty some years ago and still maintains its status as one of the attention-raising topics in the field of language teaching and learning.

Why is learner autonomy important?

In general terms, one of the major promises learner autonomy has for learners is that it provides a quality language learning experience equipping learners with life-long learning skills and creating democratic societies (Little, 2003; McCarthy, 1998; Cotterall, 1995).

Operating on the premise that “learners have the power and right to learn for themselves” (Smith, 2008: 2), learner autonomy encourages learners to get involved in a number of decision-making processes. More specifically, within the concept of learner autonomy, learners are provided with the opportunity to set goals, get involved in organizing the learning process by selecting appropriate methods and to monitor and evaluate the outcome of the whole learning process.

By being the decision-makers, learners themselves develop ‘a personal agenda for learning’ (Little, 1994;

Chan, 2003). According to researchers, when learners are involved in the decision-making processes they turn out to be more enthusiastic about learning and their learning experience becomes more focused and meaningful (Littlejohn, 1985; Little, 1991; Dam, 1995). Furthermore, learner autonomy helps learners find their own paths of learning thereby providing them with space to adjust the whole learning process at their own pace. Along with these benefits, when learners are involved in some forms of planning and taking responsibility of their own learning, their awareness and motivation increase (Little, 2003; McCarthy, 1998).

Harmer (2001) states that since teaching time in classrooms is limited teachers are expected to find ways to help language learners be involved in learning practices beyond the classrooms. He maintains that motivation among learners can be sustained “by giving students ‘agency’ (enabling them to be the doers rather than the recipients of learning action)” (2001:394). It is worth noting that people learn better and their learning experiences become more meaningful and permanent when they are taking responsibility for their own learning (Crabbe, 1993). With regard to the quality of learning experienced through autonomy, Little (2000) argues that once learners reflect on their own learning they will tend to be more focused which, will lead to more efficient and effective learning.

Simply put, as stated by Benson (2001:2), “autonomous learning is more effective than non-autonomous learning, *and naturally* the development of autonomy implies better language learning”.

The ways to promote autonomy and teacher roles

According to Scharle and Szabo (2000), autonomy is closely linked with learners’ responsibility. The development of learners’ responsibility can be ensured through a process involving three stages. *Raising awareness*, being the first stage, includes the presentation of “new viewpoints and experiences to the learners...” (2000:9). In the second stage, *changing attitudes*, learners are encouraged to develop new roles and habits. They warn that, “this is a slow process requiring a lot of practice and patience”. The last stage, *transferring roles*, requires teachers to give “...a considerable amount of freedom to the students in accomplishing tasks, or even, in deciding about tasks” (2000:9).

Benson (2001), on the other hand, classified practices to promote autonomy under six broad titles as resource, technology, learner, classroom, curriculum and teacher-based approaches. The resource-based approaches emphasize the learner’s independent interaction with learning materials placed in, for example, self-access centers. Benson states that this type of learning “offers learners the opportunity to exercise control over learning plans, the selection of learning materials and the

evaluation of learning” (2001:113).

Technology-based approaches to the development of autonomy, on the other hand, include computer-assisted language learning and, internet applications. Learner-based approaches vary from giving direct advice to learners on language-learning strategies, encouraging them to discover the strategy which works well for them to giving training to learners about being a ‘good language learner’.

For the last three of the approaches, that is, classroom, curriculum and teacher-based ones to be effective, Benson states, “the key factor... is the opportunity for students to make decisions regarding their learning within a collaborative and supportive environment” (2001:151).

Illes (2012) identified a number of initiatives to promote learner autonomy such as self-access facilities, involving learners in the decision making process varying from choosing topics, materials to activities. Chan (2003) argued that, encouraging self-assessment, peer evaluation and group and pair work can also serve the aim of developing learner autonomy.

Another way of supporting the practice of language learner autonomy on a larger scale is the ‘European Language Portfolio’ which makes learners keep track of their own learning and assess their proficiency through “can do statements” (Little, 2009). Parallel to learners’ involvement in the decision making process, is a concept, which is becoming popular, called ‘process syllabus’. Categorized under the curriculum-based approaches to fostering autonomy, students have a say in each and every phase of the preparation of the syllabus. The syllabus designed through this concept is of a dynamic nature rather than a static one. According to Ma and Gao (2010), negotiating the syllabus with learners by prioritizing students’ choices, will definitely have a positive effect on motivation.

In order for autonomous learning to occur in the learning contexts teachers play a pivotal role since “the ability to behave autonomously for students is dependent upon teachers creating a classroom culture where autonomy is accepted” (Barfield et al., 2001:3). Likewise, according to Dam, ‘it is largely the teachers’ responsibility to develop learner autonomy’ (2003:135). Little (1995) argues that if teachers do not know what it means to be an autonomous learner it will be irrational to expect them to foster autonomy. Along the same line, Tütüniş (2011) states that students should be trained by their teachers to grasp things themselves in learner-centered classrooms where they can make decisions regarding their own learning endeavours.

As mentioned earlier, Borg (2007) states that teachers’ beliefs affect their *instructional choices* in the classroom. Therefore, understanding teachers’ beliefs about any particular concept is of importance. Learner autonomy requires teachers to take up roles as catalysts, consultants, observers, and facilitators. In line with this, an autonomous teacher is expected to help his students

set objectives, select instructional materials, and evaluate themselves. Additionally, in order to foster autonomy, teachers are expected to provide learners with adequate training to help them identify their learning styles and strategies.

To date, a number of research studies have been conducted on learner autonomy with regard to teachers' views. In a study, Camilleri (1999 cited in Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012:6) collected data via a 13-item questionnaire from 328 teachers working in six European countries to investigate whether teachers allow students to participate in a variety of decisions related to instruction such as setting up objectives of a course or deciding on course content. The findings revealed that although teachers were positive about students' involvement in decisions regarding the arrangement of desks and periodical self-assessment they were not positive about students choosing the textbooks or deciding the time and place of the lesson.

Another study was conducted by Al-Shaqsi (2009 cited in Borg and Al-Busaidi 2012:6) to investigate teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy. A total of 120 teachers working in state schools in Oman participated in the study. The teachers were asked to describe autonomous learners. The teachers described autonomous learners as the ones who can use a computer, use a dictionary and the ones who can ask the teacher to explain what they do not understand. In the same study, teachers stated that they try to promote learner autonomy by trying out different types of quizzes, increasing learners' talk time and rewarding learners' good performances. With regard to the types of activities the teachers reported, Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) argue that there is not an obvious connection between the proposed autonomy-fostering activities and learner autonomy.

In Turkey, learner autonomy has been investigated in a number of studies. In a comparative study, Çoban (2002) investigated the attitudes toward learner autonomy of the instructors working at two state universities. The findings of the study revealed that although the instructors at two institutions were positive about encouraging learners to take part in the learning process, they were found to be unwilling to involve students in decision-making processes regarding the selection of the course contents and methods.

In a study conducted by Özdere (2005) instructors' attitudes toward learner autonomy were investigated. A total of 72 instructors working at six state universities participated in the study. The data for the study were collected through a questionnaire and interviews with the participation of ten instructors. The findings revealed that the instructors have attitudes toward learner autonomy varying from neutral to slightly positive. One major finding of the study, though, was that the participating instructors were not positive about students' involvement in materials selection.

Balçıkınlı (2008) conducted an experimental study to investigate learner autonomy with 40 participants at a

state university in Turkey. The majority of the participants were enrolled in different departments at a state university and the majority of the students had preparatory English instruction experience. The control group took autonomy-free education and the experimental group took training with practices of learner autonomy. The implementation took 12 weeks and the comparison was made via pre and post questionnaires. The research proved that, the participants in the experimental group had a higher degree of learner autonomy after twelve weeks. Throughout the study, the portfolios kept by learners were found to be effective in promoting learner autonomy. Learning logs and language journals were also stated to be effective in fostering learner autonomy. As a major finding of the study Balçıkınlı stated that teachers should prepare their students to take more responsibility for their own learning, thereby making the students familiar with the concept.

In another study conducted by Balçıkınlı (2010), 112 teacher trainees' of English were investigated concerning their beliefs about learner autonomy. The researcher collected data via questionnaires and focus group interviews with 20 volunteer student teachers. The findings of the study revealed that although the participants were in favor of the principles of learner autonomy in general, most of them were not positive about involving their future students in the decision making process regarding when and where lessons would be delivered. The student teachers were also found to be less positive about their future students' involvement in coursebooks selection.

In a recent study, Oğuz (2013) investigated Turkish teachers' views of autonomy. The research was carried out with the participation of 492 teachers from different subject matters and different school types such as primary, secondary, regular and vocational high schools. Female teachers were found to be more positive about learner autonomy than their male counterparts. In addition to that, primary school teachers were found to be already utilizing autonomy-friendly activities in their classroom settings. Additionally, teachers working at vocational high schools reported having implemented learner autonomy less than teachers working at primary schools and other high schools.

The study conducted by Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) investigated the teachers' beliefs and practices regarding learner autonomy. A total of 61 out of 200 teachers working at the language center of Sultan Qaboos University in Oman participated in the study. The data for the study collected through the questionnaire which was developed by the researchers and the interviews with 20 volunteer instructors. The questionnaire was constructed based on the key themes included in the relevant literature on learner autonomy. After a series of rigorous drafting procedures the final version of the questionnaire yielded 37 items which were arranged on a five-point Likert scale with '*strongly disagree*', '*disagree*', '*unsure*', '*agree*' and '*strongly agree*'. The 37 items included in the

questionnaire were organized in a way that the groups of items represented different orientations regarding learner autonomy such as; psychological, technical, social, and critical. Using data collected through questionnaires and interviews, professional development workshops were organized to further teachers' understanding of learner autonomy.

The findings of the study revealed that teachers at the language center were positively disposed to learner autonomy. Their conceptualizations of learner autonomy were primarily found to be attached to the psychological orientation that 'learning how to learn is key to developing learner autonomy' received the highest level of agreement from the participants.

The analysis of the questionnaire data revealed that for 95.1 of the participating teachers autonomy means learners' making choices about how they learn. A great majority of teachers (93.4 %) agreed that learner autonomy has a positive effect on the overall success of the learners. Additionally, 85.2 % maintained that learner autonomy leads language learners to learn more effectively than they could achieve in educational settings which lack autonomy. The autonomy-fostering practices adopted by the teachers at the language center included activities such as talking to students about the importance of learner autonomy, motivating students to reflect on their own learning experiences, encouraging the learners to reflect on their learning preferences and learning strategies, designing in-class activities which encourage cooperative and peer learning, and assigning students out of class tasks which they bring them back to the classroom.

As mentioned earlier, teachers have an important role in promoting learner autonomy. However, in the related literature, "language teachers' perspectives on what autonomy means have not been awarded much attention" (Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012:283). With this in mind, the present study investigated English language instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy.

The study included English language instructors working at four state and two private universities in Turkey. To the best of this author's knowledge, there has not been a study on learner autonomy representing comparative conceptualizations of instructors who work at state and private universities.

Purposes of the study

The present research was guided by the following research questions. The research was conducted,

1. to find out the conceptualizations of autonomy by Turkish instructors of English
2. to investigate the differences in the instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy with respect to years of teaching experience, highest degree obtained, gender and the type of institution

3. to find out the major practices adopted by the instructors to promote autonomy in their teaching contexts

METHOD

Quantitative research method was employed in the present study. Descriptive statistics and non-parametric tests were used to analyze the data collected via questionnaires.

Participants

The study was conducted with 109 instructors working at four state universities and two private universities. 70 of the participants were females and 39 of the participants were males. 66% per cent of the participants obtained BA degree and 31% of the participants were MA holders. Of the participants only 2 participants had Ph. D degree. 54 participants presently work at state universities while 55 participants work at private universities. 46% per cent of the participants (51 participants) are ranked in the scale from 0 to 4 years of teaching experience. 28% per cent of the participants (31 participants) are in the scale of 5-9 years of experience. 12% per cent of the participants (14 participants) have 10-14 years of experience and 9 participants have been working for 15-19 years. 4 participants have 20-24 years of teaching experience.

Data collection instrument

Questionnaire

Data were collected through the adapted version of the questionnaire originally developed by Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012). Permission from both researchers and the directors of the Schools of Foreign Languages where the instructors work was obtained. The questionnaire was piloted with 20 instructors working in the School of Foreign Languages at the host university. The reliability of the questionnaire was found as 0.79. As the research was carried out with the participation of English instructors, the questionnaire was not translated into Turkish. The adapted version of the questionnaire included three parts. The first part included 37 items designed on a five point Likert scale from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly agree (5) eliciting instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy. The second part included an open-ended question regarding the practices to promote learner autonomy. The last part included questions to elicit information about the demographics of the participants.

Data collection

Questionnaires were administered in the Fall Semester of the 2013-2014 academic year. Data collection lasted almost four weeks. The envelopes of the questionnaires were mailed to the institutions and the directors were asked to randomly distribute them to the instructors.

Data analysis

SPSS version 17.0 was utilized to obtain frequencies and percentages of the first part of the questionnaire. In order to identify relationships between variables, inferential statistics computations were performed. Frequencies were computed. In order to investigate two independent groups median Mann-Whitney was

Table 1. Core attributes of learner autonomy:

| Learner autonomy is | Learner autonomy is NOT |
|---------------------|-------------------------|
| capacity | teacher-less |
| willingness | individual |
| responsibility | technology |
| motivation | Methodology |
| independence | State |

used. In addition, Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric tests were carried out to investigate more than two group comparisons. To analyze the open-ended question located in the second part of the questionnaire, content analysis was carried out and emerging themes were categorized. In order to realize the content analysis, each response was read several times and emerging categories were tabulated and the necessary grouping was made.

FINDINGS

In order to answer the first research question means values for each item in the first part of the questionnaire were computed. In the discussion of major findings, the means above 4.00 representing 'strongly agree' and 'agree' and the means below 2.56 for the 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' were included. The table below shows the means of items (Table 1).

As can be seen from the table, the participants were in agreement with (means above 4.00) the items: 37, 36, 35, 33, 29, 28, 25, 16, 14, 12, 11, 7, 4, 2. A close investigation of these items reveals that the participating instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy are associated with a psychological orientation of the concept. That is, the item '*learning how to learn is the key to develop learner autonomy*' has one of the highest mean degrees ($M= 4.46$). This was found to be the most-agreed upon item in the original study conducted by Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012). As mentioned earlier, learner autonomy is the state of being aware of learning. The other items which refer to the psychological orientation of the concept of learner autonomy are '*motivated language learners are more likely to develop learner autonomy than learners who are not motivated*' ($M=4.57$), and '*confident language learners are more likely to develop autonomy than those who lack confidence*' ($M=4.30$), and the item 37 '*to become autonomous, learners need to develop the ability to evaluate their own learning*' ($M= 4.33$).

The least agreed-upon items in the questionnaire were found to be 8, 20, 23, 24, and 18. The participating teachers are positive that the Turkish students can develop learner autonomy by disagreeing with the item '*learner autonomy is a concept which is not suited to non-Western learners*' ($M=2.37$). The results revealed that the participating instructors disagree with the item '*learner autonomy means learning without a teacher*' ($mean=2.56$). As stated earlier, one of the misconceptions

attributed to learner autonomy is the idea that learner autonomy is regarded as a '*teacher-less*' way of learning. Similarly, another item '*learner autonomy requires the learner to be totally independent of the teacher*' ($M=2.34$), as being one of the least-agreed upon items, prove that the instructors are familiar with the key elements which make up the core of the learner autonomy.

The second research question in the study aimed to find out whether the instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy change among the participants with regard to years of teaching experience, gender, the highest degree (Table 2).

The differences in instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy with respect to the years of teaching experience

In order to find out whether there is a significant difference in instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy according to the years of experience, Kruskal-Wallis test was used. The results of the analysis are shown in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3 shows that there is a significant difference in instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy in terms of the responses given to item 16 according to the years of teaching experience ($p=0,049$).

In order to find out the direction of the distribution, frequencies analysis was computed. The majority of the participating instructors (46.8 %) have teaching experience less than five years.

As can be seen from the table, instructors with less teaching experience favor cooperative activities more than instructors who have more than ten years of teaching experience. Of the instructors with 0-4 years of teaching experience 43.1 % ($N=22$), and 49 % ($N=25$) agree with the item that '*learner autonomy is promoted through cooperative activities which give learners opportunities to learn from each other*'.

The differences in instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy with respect to the highest degree obtained

In order to find out whether there is a significant difference in instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy with respect to the highest degree obtained, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used. The results of the analysis are shown in Tables 5, 6, 7 and 8.

Table 5 shows that there is a significant difference in the instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy in terms of the items 1, 20, and 33.

In order to find out the direction of the distribution, frequencies analysis was computed.

Of the instructors with bachelor's degree, 53% ($N=36$) agree that language '*learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy*' while 22.4% ($N=15$) of them are

Table 2. Conceptualizations of learner autonomy by the instructors

| Item No: | Statements | Mean | SD |
|----------|--|------|------|
| 1. | Language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy. | 3,52 | 1,05 |
| 2. | Independent study in the library is an activity which develops learner autonomy. | 4,28 | 0,67 |
| 3. | Learner autonomy is promoted through regular opportunities for learners to complete tasks alone. | 3,84 | 0,81 |
| 4. | Autonomy means that learners can make choices about how they learn. | 4,22 | 0,72 |
| 5. | Individuals who lack autonomy are not likely to be effective language learners. | 3,54 | 1,05 |
| 6. | Autonomy can develop most effectively through learning outside the classroom. | 3,72 | 1,12 |
| 7. | Involving learners in decisions about what to learn promotes learner autonomy. | 4,01 | 0,94 |
| 8. | Learner autonomy means learning without a teacher. | 2,56 | 1,16 |
| 9. | It is harder to promote learner autonomy with proficient language learners than it is with beginners. | 2,46 | 1,04 |
| 10. | It is possible to promote learner autonomy with both young language learners and with adults. | 3,80 | 0,97 |
| 11. | Confident language learners are more likely to develop autonomy than those who lack confidence. | 4,30 | 0,87 |
| 12. | Learner autonomy allows language learners to learn more effectively than they otherwise would. | 4,04 | 0,82 |
| 13. | Learner autonomy can be achieved by learners of all cultural backgrounds. | 3,68 | 0,98 |
| 14. | Learner autonomy is promoted when learners have some choice in the kinds of activities they do. | 4,07 | 0,73 |
| 15. | Learner autonomy cannot be promoted in teacher-centered classrooms. | 3,67 | 1,20 |
| 16. | Learner autonomy is promoted through activities which give learners opportunities to learn from each other. | 4,24 | 0,77 |
| 17. | Learner autonomy implies a rejection of traditional teacher-led ways of teaching. | 3,36 | 1,06 |
| 18. | Learner autonomy cannot develop without the help of the teacher. | 2,99 | 1,06 |
| 19. | Learner autonomy is promoted by activities that encourage learners to work together. | 3,97 | 0,73 |
| 20. | Learner autonomy is only possible with adult learners. | 2,21 | 0,98 |
| 21. | Learner autonomy is promoted by independent work in a self-access centre. | 3,77 | 0,74 |
| 22. | Learner autonomy is promoted when learners are free to decide how their learning will be assessed. | 3,53 | 0,94 |
| 23. | Learner autonomy is a concept which is not suited to non-Western learners. | 2,37 | 0,99 |
| 24. | Learner autonomy requires the learner to be totally independent of the teacher. | 2,34 | 0,83 |
| 25. | Co-operative group work activities support the development of learner autonomy. | 4,17 | 0,67 |
| 26. | Promoting autonomy is easier with beginning language learners than with more proficient learners. | 2,81 | 0,96 |
| 27. | Learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials. | 3,75 | 0,88 |
| 28. | Learner-centered classrooms provide ideal conditions for developing learner autonomy. | 4,23 | 0,74 |
| 29. | Learning how to learn is the key to develop learner autonomy. | 4,46 | 0,60 |
| 30. | Learning to work alone is central to the development of learner autonomy. | 3,49 | 0,96 |
| 31. | Out-of-class tasks which require learners to use the Internet promote learner autonomy. | 3,97 | 0,79 |
| 32. | The ability to monitor one's learning is central to learner autonomy | 3,90 | 0,84 |
| 33. | Motivated language learners are more likely to develop learner autonomy than learners who are not motivated. | 4,57 | 0,58 |
| 34. | The proficiency of a language learner does not affect their ability to develop autonomy. | 2,99 | 1,08 |
| 35. | The teacher has an important role to play in supporting learner autonomy. | 4,24 | 0,69 |
| 36. | Learner autonomy has a positive effect on success as a language learner. | 4,51 | 0,59 |
| 37. | To become autonomous, learners need to develop the ability to evaluate their own learning. | 4,33 | 0,70 |

unsure and 23% (N=16) disagree with this item.

However, more than half of the instructors with MA degrees (67%) are positive that language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy while only 16% of them disagree with the item.

As can be seen from Table 7, the groups of instructors

with BA and MA holders both disagree that '*learner autonomy is only possible with adult learners*'. More specifically, 78.8 % (N= 52) of the BA holders and 75.1 % (N= 24) of the MA holders reject the idea that learner autonomy can be achieved with only adult learners. However, the responses given to this item by the

Table 3. The Distribution of instructors' conceptualizations with respect to the years of teaching experience

| Hypothesis Test Summary (Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test) | | | | | | | | |
|--|------------------|-------------|----------------|------------------|---------------|----------------|------------------|-------------|
| Item No | Statistic | Sig. | Item No | Statistic | Sig. | Item No | Statistic | Sig. |
| 1 | 1,845 | 0,764 | 14 | 5,446 | 0,245 | 27 | 3,286 | 0,511 |
| 2 | 6,004 | 0,199 | 15 | 7,070 | 0,132 | 28 | 3,145 | 0,534 |
| 3 | 4,565 | 0,335 | 16 | 9,555 | 0,049* | 29 | 6,198 | 0,185 |
| 4 | 3,064 | 0,547 | 17 | 1,669 | 0,796 | 30 | 3,962 | 0,411 |
| 5 | 3,632 | 0,458 | 18 | 5,378 | 0,251 | 31 | 3,832 | 0,429 |
| 6 | 1,108 | 0,893 | 19 | 4,844 | 0,304 | 32 | 6,713 | 0,152 |
| 7 | 4,006 | 0,405 | 20 | 6,077 | 0,193 | 33 | 4,588 | 0,332 |
| 8 | 7,623 | 0,106 | 21 | 5,802 | 0,214 | 34 | 5,144 | 0,273 |
| 9 | 2,724 | 0,605 | 22 | 0,725 | 0,948 | 35 | 3,254 | 0,516 |
| 10 | 3,759 | 0,440 | 23 | 3,026 | 0,553 | 36 | 3,089 | 0,543 |
| 11 | 2,023 | 0,731 | 24 | 7,864 | 0,097 | 37 | 3,783 | 0,436 |
| 12 | 1,475 | 0,831 | 25 | 6,239 | 0,182 | | | |
| 13 | 1,923 | 0,750 | 26 | 1,427 | 0,840 | | | p* < 0,05 |

Table 4. The Distribution of the responses to item 16 with respect to the years of teaching experience

| | Years of teaching experience | | | | | Total |
|-------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| | 0-4 years | 5-9 years | 10-14 years | 15-19 years | 20-24 years | |
| Strongly Disagree | 1 | - | - | - | - | 1 |
| | 2,0% | - | - | - | - | 0,9% |
| Disagree | 1 | - | 2 | - | - | 3 |
| | 2,0% | - | 14,3% | - | - | 2,8% |
| Item 16 Unsure | 2 | 3 | 2 | - | - | 7 |
| | 3,9% | 9,7% | 14,3% | - | - | 6,4% |
| Agree | 22 | 18 | 7 | 8 | 1 | 56 |
| | 43,1% | 58,1% | 50,0% | 88,9% | 25,0% | 51,4% |
| Strongly Agree | 25 | 10 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 42 |
| | 49,0% | 32,3% | 21,4% | 11,1% | 75,0% | 38,5% |
| Total | 51 | 31 | 14 | 9 | 4 | 109 |
| | 46,8% | 28,4% | 12,8% | 8,3% | 3,7% | 100,0% |

Table 5. The Distribution of instructors' conceptualizations with respect to the highest degree obtained

| Hypothesis Test Summary (Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test) | | | | | | | | |
|--|------------------|---------------|----------------|------------------|---------------|----------------|------------------|---------------|
| Item No | Statistic | Sig. | Item No | Statistic | Sig. | Item No | Statistic | Sig. |
| 1 | 6,170 | 0,046* | 14 | 5,591 | 0,061 | 27 | 4,000 | 0,135 |
| 2 | 4,522 | 0,104 | 15 | 3,147 | 0,207 | 28 | 4,854 | 0,088 |
| 3 | 3,046 | 0,218 | 16 | 1,330 | 0,514 | 29 | 0,050 | 0,975 |
| 4 | 1,966 | 0,374 | 17 | 2,776 | 0,250 | 30 | 0,415 | 0,813 |
| 5 | 1,721 | 0,423 | 18 | 2,985 | 0,225 | 31 | 1,758 | 0,415 |
| 6 | 2,869 | 0,238 | 19 | 2,675 | 0,263 | 32 | 2,861 | 0,239 |
| 7 | 0,812 | 0,666 | 20 | 6,620 | 0,037* | 33 | 7,220 | 0,027* |
| 8 | 0,026 | 0,987 | 21 | 0,225 | 0,894 | 34 | 2,798 | 0,247 |
| 9 | 0,948 | 0,623 | 22 | 2,892 | 0,235 | 35 | 2,174 | 0,337 |
| 10 | 0,217 | 0,897 | 23 | 1,869 | 0,393 | 36 | 0,162 | 0,922 |
| 11 | 4,145 | 0,126 | 24 | 1,043 | 0,594 | 37 | 3,134 | 0,209 |
| 12 | 0,398 | 0,819 | 25 | 0,516 | 0,773 | | | |
| 13 | 4,152 | 0,125 | 26 | 1,613 | 0,446 | | | p* < 0,05 |

Table 6. The Distribution of the responses to item 1 with respect to the highest degree obtained

| | Highest Degree Obtained | | | Total |
|---------------|-------------------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|
| | Bachelor's | Master's | Ph.D. | |
| Item 1 | Strongly Disagree | 3 4,50% | - - | 3 3,00% |
| | Disagree | 13 19,40% | 5 16,10% | 18 18,00% |
| | Unsure | 15 22,40% | 5 16,10% | 20 20,00% |
| | Agree | 31 46,30% | 13 41,90% | 45 45,00% |
| | Strongly Agree | 5 7,50% | 8 25,80% | 14 14,00% |
| | Total | 67 67,00% | 31 31,00% | 100 100,00% |

Item 1: Language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy.

Table 7. The Distribution of the responses to item 20 with respect to the highest degree obtained

| | Highest Degree Obtained | | | Total |
|----------------|-------------------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|
| | Bachelor's | Master's | Ph.D. | |
| Item 20 | Strongly Disagree | 17 25,80% | 6 18,80% | 23 23,00% |
| | Disagree | 35 53,00% | 18 56,30% | 53 53,00% |
| | Unsure | 9 13,60% | 5 15,60% | 14 14,00% |
| | Agree | 3 4,50% | 3 9,40% | 7 7,00% |
| | Strongly Agree | 2 3,00% | - - | 3 3,00% |
| | Total | 66 66,00% | 32 32,00% | 100 100,00% |

Item 20: Learner autonomy is only possible with adult learners.

instructors with BA degree are not consistent with the responses of this group instructors gave to the item 1 that '*language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy*'. The mismatch in the responses of the instructors with BA degree can be interpreted in a way that the instructors with bachelor's degree are not sure about learner autonomy with regard to age factor.

In order to find out the direction of the distribution, frequencies analysis was computed.

27.9% of BA holders (N=19) agree and 69.1% (N= 47) strongly agree that learner autonomy works well with motivated learners. Of the MA holders, 46.9% (N=15) agree and 46.9% (N=15) strongly agree that motivated

learners make the best of learner autonomy.

The differences in instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy with respect to gender

In order to find out whether there is a significant difference in instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy with respect to gender, Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test was used. The results of the analysis are shown in Tables 9, 10 and 11.

Table 9 shows that there is a significant difference in instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy

Table 8. The Distribution of the responses to item 33 with respect to the highest degree obtained

| | Highest Degree Obtained | | | Total |
|-------------------|-------------------------|----------|---------|---------|
| | Bachelor's | Master's | Ph.D. | |
| Strongly Disagree | - | - | - | - |
| | - | - | - | - |
| Disagree | - | - | - | - |
| | - | - | - | - |
| Item 33 Unsure | 2 | 2 | - | 4 |
| | 2,90% | 6,30% | - | 3,90% |
| Agree | 19 | 15 | 2 | 36 |
| | 27,90% | 46,90% | 100,00% | 35,30% |
| Strongly Agree | 47 | 15 | - | 62 |
| | 69,10% | 46,90% | - | 60,80% |
| Total | 68 | 32 | 2 | 102 |
| | 66,7% | 31,4% | 2,00% | 100,00% |

Item 33: Motivated language learners are more likely to develop learner autonomy than learners who are not motivated.

Table 9. The Distribution of instructors' conceptualizations with respect to gender

| Hypothesis Test Summary (Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test) | | | | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-------|---------|-----------|--------|---------|-----------|---------|
| Item No | Statistic | Sig. | Item No | Statistic | Sig. | Item No | Statistic | Sig. |
| 1 | -1,237 | 0,216 | 14 | -0,075 | 0,940 | 27 | -2,598 | 0,009** |
| 2 | -0,505 | 0,614 | 15 | -0,079 | 0,937 | 28 | -1,547 | 0,122 |
| 3 | -0,024 | 0,981 | 16 | -2,241 | 0,025* | 29 | -1,007 | 0,314 |
| 4 | -0,065 | 0,948 | 17 | -0,451 | 0,652 | 30 | -1,128 | 0,259 |
| 5 | -1,083 | 0,279 | 18 | -1,447 | 0,148 | 31 | -0,242 | 0,809 |
| 6 | -0,861 | 0,389 | 19 | -0,872 | 0,383 | 32 | -0,444 | 0,657 |
| 7 | -1,702 | 0,089 | 20 | -1,573 | 0,116 | 33 | -0,289 | 0,773 |
| 8 | -0,431 | 0,667 | 21 | -1,179 | 0,238 | 34 | -0,286 | 0,775 |
| 9 | -0,920 | 0,357 | 22 | -1,063 | 0,288 | 35 | -1,575 | 0,115 |
| 10 | -0,403 | 0,687 | 23 | -1,072 | 0,284 | 36 | -0,047 | 0,962 |
| 11 | -1,009 | 0,313 | 24 | -1,110 | 0,267 | 37 | -1,645 | 0,100 |
| 12 | -0,563 | 0,574 | 25 | -0,683 | 0,495 | | | |
| 13 | -0,120 | 0,905 | 26 | -0,612 | 0,540 | | | |

p* < 0,05 and p** < 0.01

according to gender in terms of the responses given to items 16 ($p=0.025 < 0.05$) and 27 ($p=0.009 < 0.01$).

In order to find out the direction of the distribution, frequencies analysis was computed.

As can be seen from Table 9, 59% (N=23) of male instructors agree and 25.6% (N=10) strongly agree with the item that '*learner autonomy is promoted through activities which give learners opportunities to learn from each other*'. As for the female instructors, 47.1% (N=33) agree and 45.7% (N= 32) strongly agree that interactive activities help promote learner autonomy. Female and male instructors who participated in the study think differently in terms of promoting learner autonomy by allowing students to choose their own learning materials. While 75% of female instructors think positively that

learner autonomy can be promoted when students are allowed to choose their own learning materials; only 58% of the males are positive about giving freedom to the students in terms of choosing learning materials. This result might be attributed to the assumption that male teachers give more importance to classroom management and it might be possible that they consider that making the students choose their own materials is a potential risk for classroom management.

The differences in instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy with respect to the type of institution

In order to understand whether there is a significant

Table 10. The Distribution of the responses to item 16 with respect to gender

| | Gender | | Total |
|----------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Male | Female | |
| Item 16 | Strongly Disagree | 1 1,4% | 1 0,9% |
| | Disagree | 3 7,7% | 3 2,8% |
| | Unsure | 3 7,7% | 7 6,4% |
| | Agree | 23 59,0% | 56 51,4% |
| | Strongly Agree | 10 25,6% | 42 38,5% |
| | Total | 39 35,8% | 70 64,2% |

Item 16. Learner autonomy is promoted through activities which give learners opportunities to learn from each other.

Table 11. The Distribution of the responses to item 27 with respect to gender

| | Gender | | Total |
|----------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Male | Female | |
| Item 27 | Strongly Disagree | - | - |
| | Disagree | 9 23,1% | 13 11,9% |
| | Unsure | 7 17,9% | 20 18,3% |
| | Agree | 20 51,3% | 57 52,3% |
| | Strongly Agree | 3 7,7% | 19 17,4% |
| | Total | 39 35,8% | 70 64,2% |

Item 27: Learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials.

difference in instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy according to the type of institution Independent Samples Mann-Whitney U Test was used. The results are shown in Tables 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18.

Table 12 shows that there is a significant difference in instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy in terms of the items 7, 8, 16, 22, 27 and 29.

Of the instructors working at private institutions only 70% agree or strongly agree (N=24 and N= 14, respectively) that '*involving learners in decisions about what to learn promotes autonomy*' while 88% of the instructors working at state universities agree or strongly agree (N=28 and N=20, respectively) with this item. Of the instructors working at private universities 18% are

unsure whether involving learners in decisions about what to learn promotes learner autonomy while 11% of them are not positive about involving students in decisions at all. It seems that the instructors from state universities are more willing than their colleagues working at private universities in terms of involving learners in decision making process about what to learn. This finding is interesting as the private universities are presumably expected to follow more learner-centered approaches including the voices of students in decision making processes about teaching and learning practices.

More than half of the participants (69 %) from the private universities disagree that 'learner autonomy means learning without teacher' (N=10 strongly disagree

Table 12. The Distribution of the responses to item 7 with respect to the type of institution

| Hypothesis Test Summary (Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test) | | | | | | | | |
|--|------------------|-------------|----------------|------------------|-------------|----------------|------------------|-------------|
| Item No | Statistic | Sig. | Item No | Statistic | Sig. | Item No | Statistic | Sig. |
| 1 | -0,066 | 0,948 | 14 | -0,940 | 0,347 | 27 | -2,639 | 0,008** |
| 2 | -0,220 | 0,826 | 15 | -1,483 | 0,138 | 28 | -0,563 | 0,573 |
| 3 | -1,102 | 0,271 | 16 | -2,409 | 0,016* | 29 | -2,185 | 0,029* |
| 4 | -0,583 | 0,560 | 17 | -0,081 | 0,935 | 30 | -0,730 | 0,465 |
| 5 | -0,758 | 0,448 | 18 | -0,077 | 0,938 | 31 | -1,178 | 0,239 |
| 6 | -0,153 | 0,878 | 19 | -0,296 | 0,767 | 32 | -0,246 | 0,806 |
| 7 | -2,067 | 0,039* | 20 | -1,887 | 0,059 | 33 | -0,298 | 0,766 |
| 8 | -2,049 | 0,040* | 21 | -0,188 | 0,851 | 34 | -0,129 | 0,897 |
| 9 | -0,542 | 0,588 | 22 | -2,309 | 0,021* | 35 | -1,042 | 0,298 |
| 10 | -0,438 | 0,662 | 23 | -0,025 | 0,98 | 36 | -1,834 | 0,067 |
| 11 | -0,037 | 0,971 | 24 | -1,764 | 0,078 | 37 | -0,244 | 0,807 |
| 12 | -0,301 | 0,763 | 25 | -0,373 | 0,709 | | | |
| 13 | -1,747 | 0,081 | 26 | -1,894 | 0,058 | | | |

p* < 0,05 and p** < 0,01

Table 13. The distribution of the responses to item 7 with respect to the type of institution

| | Type of Institution | | Total | |
|---------------|----------------------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|
| | Private | State | | |
| Item 7 | Strongly Disagree | 1 1,90% | 2 3,70% | 3 2,80% |
| | Disagree | 5 9,30% | - | 5 4,60% |
| | Unsure | 10 18,50% | 4 7,40% | 14 13,00% |
| | Agree | 24 44,40% | 28 51,90% | 52 48,10% |
| | Strongly Agree | 14 25,90% | 20 37,00% | 34 31,50% |
| | Total | 54 50,00% | 54 50,00% | 108 100,00% |

Item 7: Involving learners in decisions about what to learn promotes learner autonomy.

Table 14. The Distribution of the responses to item 8 with respect to the type of institution

| | Type of Institution | | Total | |
|---------------|----------------------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|
| | Private | State | | |
| Item 8 | Strongly Disagree | 10 18,20% | 7 13,20% | 17 15,70% |
| | Disagree | 28 50,90% | 19 35,80% | 47 43,50% |
| | Unsure | 9 16,40% | 11 20,80% | 20 18,50% |
| | Agree | 5 9,10% | 10 18,90% | 15 13,90% |
| | Strongly Agree | 3 5,50% | 6 11,30% | 9 8,30% |
| | Total | 55 50,9% | 53 49,1% | 108 100,00% |

Item 8: Learner autonomy means learning without a teacher.

Table 15. The Distribution of the responses to item 16 with respect to the type of institution

| | Type of Institution | | Total |
|---------|---------------------|-------|--------|
| | Private | State | |
| Item 16 | Strongly Disagree | - | 1 |
| | | - | 1,9% |
| | Disagree | 1 | 2 |
| | | 1,8% | 3,7% |
| | Unsure | 4 | 3 |
| | | 7,3% | 5,6% |
| | 22 | 34 | 56 |
| | 40,0% | 63,0% | 51,4% |
| | 28 | 14 | 42 |
| | 50,9% | 25,9% | 38,5% |
| Total | 55 | 54 | 109 |
| | 50,5% | 49,5% | 100,0% |

Item 16: Learner autonomy is promoted through activities which give learners opportunities to learn from each other.

Table 16. The Distribution of the responses to item 22 with respect to the type of institution

| | Type of Institution | | Total |
|---------|---------------------|-------|--------|
| | Private | State | |
| Item 22 | Strongly Disagree | - | - |
| | | - | - |
| | Disagree | 14 | 6 |
| | | 25,5% | 11,1% |
| | Unsure | 15 | 10 |
| | | 27,3% | 18,5% |
| | 20 | 30 | 50 |
| | 36,4% | 55,6% | 45,9% |
| | 6 | 8 | 14 |
| | 10,9% | 14,8% | 12,8% |
| Total | 55 | 54 | 109 |
| | 50,5% | 49,5% | 100,0% |

Item 22: Learner autonomy is promoted when learners are free to decide how their learning will be assessed.

and N=28 disagree). Of the 53 instructors working at state universities 49% disagree with this item. That is, 30% of the instructors from state universities agree that (N=10 agree and N=6 strongly agree) learner autonomy means *teacher-less* learning. As mentioned earlier, learner autonomy by no means is a *teacher-less* learning. The presented percentages suggest that the instructors who work at private universities are more aware that learner autonomy does not mean *teacher-less* learning. Of the 55 instructors from the private universities 50 are positive that *'learner autonomy is promoted through activities which give learners opportunities to learn from*

each other' while 48 instructors from the state universities out of a total of 54 have agreement regarding this item (N=34 agree and N= 14 strongly agree). The percentages can be interpreted that both groups of the instructors favor activities through which learners can learn from each other. Of the 55 respondents from the private universities 25.5% (N=14) disagree while some others (N=15) are unsure. What is noteworthy is that unlike the instructors from the private universities, that is, only 47% agree that learner autonomy is promoted when learners are free to decide the assessment type, the great majority of the instructors (70%) working at state universities

Table 17. The Distribution of the responses to item 27 with respect to the type of institution

| | Type of Institution | | Total |
|----------------|---------------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Private | State | |
| Item 27 | Strongly Disagree | - | - |
| | Disagree | 10 18,2% | 3 5,6% |
| | Unsure | 14 25,5% | 6 11,1% |
| | Agree | 23 41,8% | 34 63,0% |
| | Strongly Agree | 8 14,5% | 11 20,4% |
| | Total | 55 50,5% | 54 49,5% |

Item 27: Learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials.

Table 18. The distribution of the responses to item 29 with respect to the type of institution

| | Type of Institution | | Total |
|----------------|---------------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Private | State | |
| Item 29 | Strongly Disagree | - | - |
| | Disagree | - | 1 1,9% |
| | Unsure | 1 1,9% | 2 3,7% |
| | Agree | 20 37,0% | 29 53,7% |
| | Strongly Agree | 33 61,1% | 22 40,7% |
| | Total | 54 50,0% | 54 50,0% |

Item 29: Learning how to learn is the key to develop learner autonomy.

believe that learner autonomy can be promoted when learners are involved in decisions about the assessment types (N=30 agree and N= 8 strongly agree). This finding refutes the prevailing idea in Turkey that the private universities have a tendency to involve students in decisions regarding overall learning process. Another striking finding of the study was that while 83% of the instructors from the state universities (N=34 agree and N= 11 strongly agree, respectively) believe that *'learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials'* only 56% of the instructors from private universities believe the item is true. That is, the instructors working at state universities are more willing

to involving learners in selection of learning materials. The percentages of the instructors from the private universities regarding the item 27, as can be seen from the table, 41.8 % (N=23) agree and 14.5 % (N=8) strongly agree; while 25.5 % (N= 14) are unsure. This finding is also striking as somewhat refuting the prevailing belief in Turkey that private universities provide students with more freedom in the matters regarding teaching/ learning practices.

'Learning how to learn is the key to develop learner autonomy' stands out as one of the core elements of learner autonomy. Of the participating instructors from both state and private universities almost all of them

Table 19. The Responses Given to the Open-ended Question by State School Instructors

| Activity | Number of the Teachers |
|---|-------------------------------|
| Asking the students to reflect on their own language learning experiences | 11 |
| Designing group work activities | 11 |
| Assigning out-of-class tasks | 10 |
| Sharing language-related websites with their students | 7 |
| Pair Work | 6 |
| Asking the students to prepare presentations in line with their interests | 3 |
| Trying to appeal different learning styles | 3 |
| Making the students organize classroom activities | 3 |
| Trying to make the students discover their learning styles | 3 |
| Peer Correction | 2 |

Table 20. The Responses Given to the Open-ended Question by Private School Instructors.

| Activity | Total number of the instructors |
|---|--|
| Designing group work activities | 19 |
| Assigning out-of-class tasks | 15 |
| Designing pair work activities | 15 |
| Familiarizing the students with language learning strategies | 9 |
| Sharing language-related websites with their students | 8 |
| Using Authentic Materials | 7 |
| Making the students organize classroom activities | 6 |
| Asking the students reflect on their own language learning experiences | 4 |
| Trying to make the students discover their learning styles | 3 |
| Peer Correction | 3 |
| Ask the students to keep diaries about their language learning experiences. | 3 |
| Initiating autonomous syllabus | 3 |
| Organizing debates | 3 |
| Setting the class rules together. | 2 |
| Creating a relaxing atmosphere | 2 |
| Encouraging self correction | 2 |

agree that *'learning how to learn is the key to develop learner autonomy'*.

Open-ended question

The third research question aimed at finding out the common practices the instructors employ to promote autonomy in their particular teaching contexts. In order to analyze the responses given to the open-ended question content analysis was used. Content analysis has been defined as the process of finding out the significance of certain words and concepts (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). In order to figure out the emerging themes the responses were read several times. Broad categories were created based on the emerging themes. The major themes and the counts for each theme were given in

Tables 19 and 20.

The results revealed in the tables show that designing group work activities are favored by both groups of instructors, 19 and 11 instructors from private and the state universities, respectively. However, it is worth noting that more instructors from the state universities ask their students to reflect on their own learning experiences (N=11 instructors from state and N=4 instructors from private).

Another popular practice to promote autonomy among instructors seems to be assigning out-of-class activities (15 and 10 instructors from private and state universities, respectively). As can be seen from the table, there is almost no theme which echoes 'freedom' or 'the right to choose' regarding the classroom practices except for a few instructors who make the students organize classroom activities and set the classroom rules together

with their students.

DISCUSSION

The present study investigated conceptualizations of autonomy by Turkish instructors of English working in the Schools of Foreign Languages at four state universities and two private universities. The study also looked at the differences in the conceptualizations of autonomy with respect to years of teaching experience, highest degree obtained, gender and the type of the institution where the participants work. A total of 109 instructors, 54 from state universities and 55 from private universities participated in the study. The data were collected through the adapted version of a questionnaire originally developed by Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012). The adapted version of the questionnaire included three parts. The first part included 37 items arranged on a five-point Likert scale from *strongly disagree* (1) to *Strongly-agree* (5). In the original study, data were collected from both questionnaires and interviews, that is, mixed-method research design has been adopted whereas the data for the present study were collected through only questionnaires, and this might be considered to be one limitation of the present study. However, the findings of the present research have potential to shed light onto the conceptualizations of instructors who work in state and private universities.

The first research question investigated the conceptualizations of learner autonomy of the participating instructors. In order to answer the first research question, means and standard deviations were computed. The results were consistent with the findings of the original study conducted by Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012). In both studies almost the same items received the highest agreement from the participants. The participating instructors' conceptualizations were primarily associated with a psychological orientation with regard to learner autonomy. That is, item 29 *'learning how to learn is the key to develop learner autonomy'* ($M= 4.46$), a mental attribute, was found to be one of the most-agreed upon items by the participants in both studies. The other items which were agreed by the participants in each study were items 33, 36, 37, 11 (Table 2). In both studies, the majority of the participating instructors believe that 'learner autonomy has a positive effect on success as a language learner'.

Of the questionnaire items with the lowest mean values such as *'learner autonomy means learning without a teacher'* ($M=2.56$), *'learner autonomy requires the learner to be totally independent of the teacher'* ($M= 2.37$), and *'learner autonomy cannot develop without the help of the teacher'* prove that the participating Turkish instructors are well aware of the fact that 'autonomy is not limited to learning without a teacher' (Little, 1991:3)

The second research question investigated whether the instructors' conceptualizations of learner autonomy differ

based on some variables such as the years of teaching experience, gender, the highest degree obtained and the type of institution where instructors work.

Gender was found to be significantly related to two items. While 65 of the female instructors (47.1% $N=33$ agree and 45.7% $N= 32$ strongly agree) stated that they agree with *'learner autonomy is promoted through activities which give learners opportunities to learn from each other'* only 33 of the male teachers agree/strongly agree. In a recent study conducted by Rahimi and Asadollahi (2012) on Iranian EFL teachers revealed that female and male teachers are different in terms of the activities they apply in the class. They state that female teachers show activities based on sensing and extroverting which is consistent with the present study's finding that 'learning from each other' is related somehow to sensing and extroverting.

Gender was also found to be significant in terms of the item *'learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials'*. Compared to the male instructors that participated in the study (58%), females were found to be more positive about students' choosing their own learning materials (75%).

The conceptualizations of learner autonomy revealed significant differences with regard to the variable 'the type of institution' where the participating instructors currently work. The majority of the instructors (out of 55 $N=38$) working at private universities disagree with the item *'learner autonomy means learning without a teacher'* while only 19 out of 53 instructors from the state universities disagree with this item. It seems that the misconception that learner autonomy is a 'teacher-less' way of learning is prevalent among the instructors working at the state universities.

In the present study, a number of differences in the conceptualizations of instructors working at state and private universities with regard to giving students 'choices' about their learning were evidenced.

The responses given to the item *'Involving learners in decisions about what to learn promotes learner autonomy'* are significantly different in terms of the type of institution. The instructors working at state universities seem to be more in favor of making the students have a say in the decisions about what to learn than the teachers working at private universities. As mentioned earlier, the core of learner autonomy is involving learners in decision making processes such as establishing goals, organizing content, and materials, selecting methods, monitoring the learning process and evaluating what has been acquired (Holec, 1981). In the present study, the majority of the instructors (88%) working at state universities were found to be in favor of including learners in decisions about what to learn whereas this percentage was 70% for the instructors working at private universities (18% of the participants were found to be unsure). This finding can be interpreted that unlike state universities, most of the private universities in Turkey assess the learners' English

proficiency on internationally-recognized, standardized exams. Therefore, they follow a fixed curriculum to help their students to succeed in the high-stakes exams.

Similarly, another striking finding was related to the item '*learner autonomy is promoted when learners are free to decide how their learning will be assessed*'. Surprisingly, more than half of the instructors (N=38 out of 54) working at state universities agree/strongly agree (N=30 and N=8, respectively) with the statement while only half of the instructors from the private universities agree with this item. Despite the fact that the assessment is more centralized at state universities teachers from state universities seem to be more willing to provide the students with the chance of having a say in the assessment procedure.

Additionally, teachers working at state and private universities were found to think differently in terms of students' role in determining the learning materials. Out of 54, 45 of the teachers working at state universities agree/strongly agree with item '*learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials*'. However, only 31 out of 55 of the instructors working at private universities agree/strongly agree with this statement while 25% of them stated they were not sure. This result also shows that the instructors working at state universities tend to be more flexible and involve the students in the decision-making process than the instructors working at private universities. This finding can be explained in relation with the competitive nature of the education system at private universities. As the majority of the students attending private universities are required to take high-stakes exams such as TOEFL and IELTS in order to receive a passing score the instructors have to follow a fixed syllabus designed toward success in these exams.

In Turkey to date, a number of studies have been conducted on learner autonomy. Of these studies, a few were conducted to investigate the views of English language teacher trainees' or instructors' regarding learner autonomy and their tendency toward sharing instructional responsibilities with their learners (Çoban, 2002; Özdere, 2005; Durmuş, 2006; Balçıkanlı, 2010). In general terms, the findings of the present study related to providing choices with students over instructional responsibilities are consistent with the findings of the studies conducted on teacher trainees and instructors in the Turkish context. For instance, Çoban (2002) investigated the instructors' attitudes toward learner autonomy at two state universities. The findings of the study revealed that although the instructors working at two state universities were generally positive about involving learners in the learning process they were not willing to include them in the decision making processes regarding course contents and methods. Similarly, Özdere (2005) investigated the attitudes of a total of 72 instructors working at six state universities toward learner autonomy. One major finding of the study was that the participating

instructors were not positive about involving students in materials selection. Likewise, Durmuş (2006) studied a total of 108 instructors' views of learner autonomy via questionnaires. The study revealed that the participating instructors were found to be positive about involving learners in the decisions regarding short-term objectives. The study conducted by Balçıkanlı (2010) on teacher trainees of English to investigate their beliefs about autonomy revealed that although the teacher trainees were positively disposed to learner autonomy they were not positive about including their future students in decisions about selection of the textbooks.

The above studies included either teacher trainees enrolled in state universities or the instructors working at state universities as sample. In the present study, though, the sample included the instructors who work at private universities along with the instructors working at state universities. The results concerning decision making processes were found to be more positive in favor of the instructors working at state universities. From this perspective, it is true to say that, although Turkish instructors of English are generally positive about learner autonomy, in light of the findings of the present study and, of course, within the limitations the study bears, the instructors who work at state universities have a tendency toward students' involvement in decision making processes. Although we cannot generalize the findings of the present study beyond its scope, what is obvious is that students' participation in decisions concerning instructional issues remains to be a problematic issue for Turkish instructors of English in general.

The third research question in the study aimed to find out the practices adopted by the participating instructors to foster autonomy. The findings revealed that *designing group work activities* are the most popular activities by instructors from both state and private universities as well. However, a close investigation of the findings showed differences with regard to the institution the participating instructors work. For instance, although 11 instructors from state universities stated that they were '*asking the learners to reflect on their learning experiences*' this was stated by only 4 instructors from private universities. Another activity which was reported by both groups of instructors was '*sharing language-related websites with students*' (N=7 for state and N=8 for private). As for the activities which allow students to take part in decision making processes regarding instructional matters such as setting objectives, selecting teaching materials, deciding course contents and methods, or defining evaluation processes there was no clear account of any kind of these activities.

The studies which have been conducted on learner autonomy, including the present study, to date have included findings collected through either questionnaires or interviews or both. However, in order to get broader views from what is actually going on in the classrooms and also learner autonomy being '*a notion around which*

theoretical ideals and pedagogical realities may not always concur, as argued by Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012:7), more studies based on observations of the actual classroom practices need to be conducted. The participants of the current study were found to be knowledgeable about learner autonomy. Their overall agreement was evidenced on some of the core principles of learner autonomy such as *'learning how to learn is the key to develop learner autonomy'*. It is obvious that, the classroom practices stated by the participating instructors do not exactly match with their knowledge.

Therefore, the researcher recommends that workshops be organized, as in the original study, to further familiarize the instructors with the notion of learner autonomy.

Conclusion

Learner autonomy has long been attracting researchers' attention in the field of English language teaching. It is evident that the concept of learner autonomy has a great potential to offer to language learning. From this perspective, we can say that learner autonomy should be prioritized in educational settings by teachers. Once we make teachers believe in the potential of learner autonomy and familiarize them with the foundational practices to foster it their efforts will pay off in the long run. The famous Chinese proverb summarizes the essence of learner autonomy in two sentences: 'Give a man a fish and you feed him for a day. Teach him to fish and you feed him for a lifetime'.

When we stop giving our students fish within teaching hours and instead equip them with tools with which they can catch fish, we will guarantee them a way of learning which will last for a lifetime.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Education in Dede Korkut's stories: Qualification of bravery in Boghach Khan and Uruz

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Dede Korkut's stories, one of the most important works in Turkish literature, are distinguished with their feature of reflecting the Oghuz culture. In this respect, it is possible to obtain information about children and their education in the light of the works. In the study, it is intended to reveal the education of the characters called Boghach Khan and Uruz in acquiring the qualification of bravery and the key educational elements which they confront during that process. Especially "the teacher, education methods used, punishment and reward applications" participated in the education process of the said heroes will be explained. For the education of the young ones, the focus is on particularly war educating providing their physical development and the character education (value etc.) ensuring their affective development. Who is responsible for children's education? Fathers. Fathers render a permanent education through the principle of "learning through practising and experiencing" and "demonstration" method. In the works, reward is preferred to reinforce youths' positive behaviours and achievements, while punishment is employed to prevent negative behaviours and failures.

Key words: Dede Korkut's stories, educational elements, reward, punishment, value.

INTRODUCTION

Considered as an important step in the transition from epic to story tradition, Dede Korkut's stories is as well among the most significant works in Turkish literature. Estimated to be written in the 15th century, Dede Korkut's stories, having two principal manuscripts, "Dresden" and "Vatican" consist of twelve stories. The work mentions the culture and civilization of the Oghuz tribe, especially the horse-nomadic lives and alp-type people (Günay, 1998: 3).

Ergin (1997: 24) expresses the characteristics of the stories based generally on the events an Oghuz Bey experiences and the customs and traditions of the society as stated in these words:

"...stories center around the Oghuz Beys who lived at the same region in the same era and were interdependent on each other in various ways. Each story, though primarily an adventure of just a single bey, is a sequence of events participated by the other beys in some degree or at least has their names mentioned somehow. Moreover, along with the beys in the foreground, the life of a whole Oghuz tribe is reflected in those stories with their customs, traditions and diverse aspects while visualizing the environment and the lives of the beys."

While the social life is depicted in the stories, one of the issues that are highlighted is children and having a child.

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It is believed that childless people have been cursed by Allah and consequently they are cast away by the society. The fact that people having sons sit in white tents, those having daughters, in red tent and those without any sit in black tent reflects this situation. *“He had made a white tent pitched in one place, a red tent in another, and a black tent in another. He had been told to put anyone who ever had no sons or daughters in the black tent, spread black felt beneath him, set before him mutton-stew made from the black sheep, if he pleases, he might eat; if he does not, he shall get up and leave”* (Ergin, 1995: 21).

This practice in the works shows that having children is influential in determining the reputation of a family in the society. It is recommended that those who do not have children should do good and obtain benediction to get out of this curse. For example, Dirse Khan with no children gives ear to his wife's advices on this regard and has a son in the end (Ergin, 1995: 24).

In the period when the events take place, they are not given names until they are 15 to 16 years old. They are named after a heroic, brave deed. Accordingly, Boğaç Khan earns his name after defeating a bull which everyone fears and runs from (Ergin, 1995: 23).

While this achievement/bravery is shown generally at the ages of 15-16, the process of the children getting to these ages is not mentioned in the stories and it is skipped from the infancy to youth through a rapid stream of time as in the fairy tales; *“The horse is quick of foot, the minstrel is quick of tongue. As the vertebrated grow, the ribbed develop. Son has turned fifteen”* (Ergin, 1995: 24). This indicates that rather than the experiences in childhood, the living in adolescence/youth when the characteristics of heroism, bravery are gained is noticed in Dede Korkut Stories.

According to the knowledge obtained in adolescence/youth, war/physical education underlies the education and by natural conditions, elements such as struggle, endurance, etc become prominent. Male children of 15-16 years are supposed to show bravery. As for bravery; it is associated with performing such deeds as riding a horse, girding himself with a sword, shooting arrows, chopping off heads, etc. For a father, his sons having such capabilities is a source of pride, reputation, confidence and the feeling of joy at the same time. In the works, fathers wish to have a son in order to become famous, and sons girding with swords to make fathers proud is an indication for this: *“Let my father see me ride and be proud; let him see me shoot my arrow and have confidence; let him see how I use my sword and rejoice”* (Ergin, 1995: 28).

*“Fathers have sons for the sake of fame;
And the son girds on sword out of zeal for his father.”*
(Ergin 1995: 96)

The son's inability to show bravery characteristics is the

cause of dishonour and sadness for the father.

“He looked in front of him, saw his son, Uruz, he smote his hands together and wept. This displeased his son Uruz...”

...You looked in front of you and cried / what is the reason, tell me

...I look to my left, I saw my uncle Aruz

He has cut off heads, spilled blood, taken booty, won a name

When I looked ahead I saw you / you turned sixteen

One day I shall fall down to death, you survive

You didn't pull a bowstring, shoot an arrow, cut off a head, spill blood

Didn't take booty in bloody Oghuz

Suppose I shall die tomorrow and leave you behind, I cried out, son, referring the end, for they might not give you my crown said he” (Ergin, 1995: 91-92).

Kaplan (1991: 53-55) reclaims that these words of Kazan Khan signifies that the fathers raise their sons in accordance with the living conditions and value judgments of society in that period and the son is encouraged towards bravery by the father. The mentioned characteristics of bravery are depicted generally through male adults and male children. However, women characters such as Uruz's mother tall Burla Hatun, the girls she took along and the others we face in other stories as Banu Chickek, Seljen Hatun are well-skilled as much as men in riding a horse, shooting arrows, cutting off heads, etc. *“The human type in Dede Korkut is the alp type. The qualification required in human beings is bravery. This type is even considered for women”* (Ergin, 1997: 28).

The significant values and educational techniques as used today in education are seen in the Dede Korkut's stories, written in the 15th century. This study is based on similarities in educational approach between today's and Dede Korkut's stories. In the light of this information, the study intends to reveal the education of the characters called Boghach Khan and Uruz in acquiring bravery and the key educational elements which they confront during that process.

METHODS

In this study, the survey model serving the purpose of collecting, sorting out and summarizing the required data for the practices such as recognizing the current conditions, solving and formulating the problem etc. is employed. Besides, document review method consisting of the analysis of the written materials related to the subject (Yıldırım and Şimşek 2005) and the content analysis method in resolving the data about the content of the works are used. The content analysis is used to unite data around similar concepts and themes. In addition, it is a method that allows easy interpretation and arrangement of data. Data obtained from the educational elements in Dede Korkut's stories consists of content analysis as reward, punishment, teacher and teaching methods.

FINDINGS

Key elements in being Alp/brave in education

Reward

In the works, the youths performing heroism are appreciated by the society and needed to be rewarded. *"It is required to give a principality, throne, horse, sheep, camel, house and garments to the hero fitting into the Alp community by the encouragement of his father and the appreciation of the society"* (Duymaz, 2000: 119). In other words, the good deeds and achievements of children performed during and after education are reinforced with "reward"; thus the young ones are encouraged to have these characters.

"In Dede Korkut Stories, children are always rewarded for their beneficial deeds. These deeds become a strong reinforcer for them. Reinforcements given among the society contribute to children's characteristics to develop positively" (Yalçın and Şengül, 2004: 215).

Rewarding is also considered to be an effective way of discipline in education today. Positive and negative reinforcers should be used in education as the occasion arises. While using them, it is recommended to take action according to the cultural environment in which the students live, their age, sex, and the qualification of the behaviour to be earned. Reward/reinforcer is the incentive applied during the education process to make the required behaviours be performed or to engrave it after the required behaviour is performed. In order for the practice to be a rewarded, it should include the incentives that can cause delight in individuals (Başaran, 1992; Tuncel, 2010: 75).

According to educators, reward in learning process is of a higher value than punishment. Moreover, reward provides various benefits in education such as "building up passion in an individual to perform the required deeds, motivating the individual to reach his/her target, drawing his/her attention to the subject to be learned, creating high morale in individual, and developing the "sense" of self of the individual (Başaran, 1992: 236).

However, one should be attentive in case that reward and punishment may bear negations such as "reward substituting for the purpose, its inducement to subterfuge, immunization to punishment, arousing hatred for the punisher and the society" (Başaran, 1992: 236-237). Reward in the stories, appropriately with the information above, leads the young ones to the required behaviours, draws them away from negative ones, and improves their self-confidence.

Relationship between reward – ability and virtue

Rewards are witnessed to be given particularly in return for two traits in the stories.

Ability/skill: physical abilities are in the foreground in stories; shooting arrows, using sword, etc.

Virtue/morality (possessed values): being brave, honest, helpful, respectful, etc. (Duymaz, 2000: 110).

O Dirse Khan! Give this young man a principality now.

Give him a throne for the sake of his virtue.

Give him also a tall Bedouin horse

He can ride such a capable man (Ergin, 1995: 26)

This reveals that society's desires to see those two traits together in youths, and the education of children is based on physical abilities and adding values. Günay (1998: 5) states that a society of horse-nomadic culture and civilization is obliged to be physically strong against the hard natural and living conditions; however, additionally, the inner structure (beliefs, value judgments, knowledge and self-confidence) should also be powerful. The harmony between these two structures makes people well-balanced and more powerful. Günay (1998: 6) also reveals that in the works, it is still seen that the people possibly called "despicable" may as well be skilled (good horse-riding, using sword, etc.); though he says that it is not enough for a hero to have abilities by indicating that this kind of people cause harm to the family, society and the state. He puts forth that morality/values are the essential element to the society.

Rewards given in return for abilities and virtue are "*principality, tent, castle*" which are important for the society and signify power, and "*horse, sheep, camel, robe*" which are the indicators of richness. In the stories, principality and tent that are the symbols of power and dominance are given for "virtue" while "camel, sheep, horse, etc.", the indicators of richness, are given in return for ability. Considering that the qualification of richness falls below power and dominance, it can be said that society places virtue before ability. Considering the social life, rewards given are appropriate for the cultural life of the period, ages and sexes of people, the features of the behaviour to be reinforced, and so on. As Kazan Khan states in the story that Uruz's being captured is narrated, the society shall not give "principalities", i.e. crown and throne, to the young ones incapable of performing bravery deeds. In other words, it is not enough just to be the son of a bey in order to be a bey; on the contrary, one should be a well-educated brave person for the principality (Kaplan, 1991: 53; Ergin, 1995, 1997).

Virtue/value of education

Social education of youths also takes place in the stories inasmuch as their physical education is concerned. The society demands children to be 'dutiful' sons and daughters, respect their families and the society they live in and expects to be trained by their families in that

aspect. *“The hero joining the community of adults is in the position of recognizing the social and sacred values”* (Duymaz, 2000: 117). As for the aspersion cast upon Boghach Khan, the elements such as “disrespect for father, state, and immorality” which cause Boghach Khan to be qualified as bad, unfaithful reveal the values which the society wants or does not want to be maintained (Ergin, 1995: 26-27).

In the works, particularly the son’s hunting, riding the horse, shooting arrows, girding on swords, etc. in his father’s presence is considered as disrespect. The values such as respect (for parents, elders and state), honour are the values which are required to be brought in and demanded to be continued in the society. Dirse Khan decides on killing Boghach Khan because he believes that he has disrespected the social values. In the story in which Uruz is captured, it is especially emphasized on the respect of sons for their fathers and their words; it is understood from the following saying that disrespect for the father is an unaccepted manner among the society *“then the son would follow his father’s words, if he hadn’t, he wouldn’t have been approved of”* (Ergin, 1995: 97).

In the stories in which the parents struggle to protect and save the child and the child struggles for the parents in return, one of the most important values is the “love of family”.

“The son gathered forty young men along with him, rode horses, fought and combatted. He beheaded some and captured some others. He saved his father” (Ergin, 1995: 34, 36).

“He has known well that his son is a captive for the infidel. ...Three hundred brave men of the Oghuz were lost in the battle. Kazan had saved his son, and he returned” (Ergin, 1995: 103, 110).

The value “love” frequently discussed in the stories is regarded as the element maintaining peace, prosperity, fellowship, national unity and social solidarity among the society by Özbay and Taysi (2011: 29). Ari and Karateke (2010: 283) state that the love for the family annihilates selfishness and takes on a significant task in order to maintain the social order. One of the reasons behind Kazan Khan’s getting angry with his son Uruz is his thought that Uruz leaves his companions at the battle field, fears and escapes. Accordingly, another value praised by the society is courage and bravery.

“Regarding the horse nomadic psychology, the greatest qualification which this society, whose life passes through hunting and raiding, seeks in human is the “virtue of manliness”, power and courage in other words” (Eliuz, 2000: 140).

“Courage is a value taking place in each Dede Korkut’s story. Being courageous at the battles, gaining a position in the society by showing courage occupy a significant place in the lives of the Oghuz Turks and the educations

of boys and girls” (Deveci et al. 2013: 309).

“Cowardice” is a situation which is not wished to be seen in the youth and considered a source of dishonour for the family.

“He came and could not find his son where he left. He said “O, beys, where had he gone to. Beys said: sons are often bird-hearted (coward), he probably ran away and went to his mother. Kazan, growing very seriously, turned and said: Beys, Allah has given me a good-for-nothing son. Let me go and take him from his mother, cut him into six pieces with my sword, leave each piece at the junction of the six roads, so that may nobody leave his companions and run away from now on” (Ergin, 1995: 98).

Accordingly, while leaving a companion having a bad situation in the lurch is an unacceptable manner, the interdependent values like cooperation, solidarity, fidelity, etc., are the basis of the society. The childless Kazan Khan having a child only after obtaining benediction by feeding the poor signifies once more the moral power of such values as cooperation, sharing, etc. in the society. As a result of Kazan Khan’s thinking that his son does not behave in line with these values and deeming Uruz’s death as the punishment underlines the importance of the values mentioned. This situation shows that the beys do not forgive though who errs is their own sons and are stick to the value of “justice”. In short, in case that a child does not have the values of the society, he/she becomes a reason for dishonour for his/her family and makes his/her father lose his reputation. In the works where having a child, a son in particular, is praised, “preferring having none rather than having such a child” reflects the importance attributed to these values. *“Bayindir Khan will call you his presence and will give you a serious punishment, such a son is not worthy of you, it is better not to have such a son. Why do you not put him to death?”* (Ergin, 1995: 27).

From the statements above, it is understood that “punishment” is applied for the youth who does not duly behave in social education as well as in physical education. Both the children lacking these social values and the fathers/instructors considered insufficient to discipline those children are punished by the society. In the study, as it will also be stated in the part titled “punishment”, punishment practice which is effective as a part of the education process gains an important position in the stories as much as the reward.

In the works analyzed, “jealousy, slander and rumour” are among the traits specifically disliked by the society. Regarding this matter, Günay (1998: 8) emphasizes that in the Boghach Khan’s story the forty young men trying to turn the father and son against each other through envying, rumour and slander causes substantial damages. Thus, these forty men are qualified heroes having physical power and abilities; however, they do not have

the characteristics of “virtue”, perform “cravenness” and harm the society and the state.

“At this point, we witness that the bravery in the Oghuz tribe and Turks is not only limited to being a good horse-rider, but also includes various values that will form the exemplary character, such as self-denial, respect for the elder, love for the younger, honesty, truthfulness, not rumouring” (Günay, 1998: 10, 12).

Punishment

As the youth showing bravery is rewarded in the stories, there is a practice of punishment for the young ones who are coward. Punishment, which is as well important for today’s perception of education, is the preventer, prohibitor to withhold the individual from the undesired behaviour and the unpleasant stimulants from which the individual try to refrain. The essentiality in punishment is to create sadness in individual in order not to perform the undesired deed (Başaran, 1992: 235-236; Arı, 2006: 307).

Punishment is highly effective in “providing the discipline and learning”. Accordingly, punishment dissuades the individual from the negative behaviour; is beneficial for disciplining; ensures confidence when used together with reward, prevents negative deeds performed purposely from being engraved (Başaran, 1992: 236). Erden (2008: 148-149) states that, though punishment is effective to cease negative behaviours, it employs many negations within; thus it should be avoided as much as possible in education, and be used only when stuck in a difficult position.

In the stories, punishment, in line with the information above, serves purposes like disciplining the youths in education, withholding them from negative behaviours, etc. In the part where Uruz is captivated, the beys besides Kazan Khan think that Uruz has feared and run away to his mother. In response to this, Uruz’s father/teacher gets very angry and gives such a severe punishment as death to his son. This type of punishment we face in the work corresponds to “physical punishments” out of the types explained by Erden (2008:149) for the modern – day perception of education. Like many other educators, Arı (2006: 307-308) also states that punishments such as slapping, hitting which are not required and effective in education are not humane and legal, and for this reason physical punishment should be avoided. However, in the works, along with the influence of the living conditions of the time physical punishments are specifically adopted in children’s education.

Teacher and the teaching methods

One of the attention-grabbing points in the stories is that

especially the father is responsible for the child’s education. During the education process, the father also substitutes for the teacher. Generally speaking, the mother is responsible for the education of daughters, and the fathers for the sons’ education. Mother and father are models for children. Uruz shows his father not giving him a warrior education as the reason for his not performing bravery and puts the blame on his father. Kazan Khan finding him right also highlights the importance of father in education as a teacher/a model.

“Does the son gain the skill from the father or the father from the son, when did you take me to the infidel borderline, give me a sword to cut off heads, what did I see in you, thus what could I learn he said. Kazan bey clapped his hands and laughed heartily, said: O beys, Uruz is right” (Ergin, 1995: 93).

According to the work, briefly stated, the model for the child in education is the family and society. Family, the minimal unit of the society, is a school, and parents are the teachers. In the work, the fact that Kazan Khan who is an alp type takes his son to hunting on his request and makes effort to be a good model for him emphasizes the importance of family in raising the child and his/her developing an identity in the society (Yalçın and Şengül, 2004: 213, 222).

From the above statements, in relation to Uruz, it is understood that “learning through practising and experiencing” which is also important for today’s perception of education comes to the foreground in the fighting education given to youths. In learning through practising and experiencing, an effective learning environment is provided due to the stimulation of many senses of a person, thus education process becomes effective and efficient.

“Beneath the subconscious of the heroes in Dede Korkut Stories there is the stimulation ‘I can do.’, ‘I must do’ which are formed around the cult of gaining reputation. While this leads the child to learning through practising and experiencing, it provides him/her with an enterprising trait of personality” (Yalçın and Şengül, 2004: 218).

The learning environment provided by the learning through practising and experiencing is generally the “hunting” ceremonies. For example, Kazan Khan takes Uruz to hunting for educating and prefers to teach some skills by showing during the hunt. Başaran (2012: 1014) marks that youths demonstrate their skills in riding, shooting arrows, using swords and bows while hunting wild animals and thus they simply do their apprenticeship and gain experience before the fights against the enemy. Briefly, hunting ceremonies are not only important for subsistence but also for the education of children. As for the real fighting atmospheres, they constitute an opportunity for the youths to prove their bravery against

the family and society and to demonstrate what they have learned, merely an “examination environment”. The achievement after the exam brings the reward along with it.

The educational appliances used in fighting educating are as much important as the methods and the techniques employed. Among the mostly-used tools in hunting education and social life are horse, sword, arrow-bow, spear, knife, helmet, iron garments, etc.

“That day brave beys fought turning round and round. That day, black steel swords were struck. That day beechen arrows with sharp tongues were shot, and long sharp spears of red dragon were thrust. That day the coward, the treachers looked out for remote areas. That day Uruz the son of Kazan was enraptured” (Ergin, 1995: 97).

When informing youths about the combat and enemy, “question and answer” technique is also made use of in the stories. This technique is a group of education techniques which is conducted in the way of asking questions and answering them, and bears an atmosphere of discussion. According to the technique, the ones who question and answer may differ among the class, teacher and source person (Bilen, 2002: 151, 2010: 264-265). In the work, an education method based on the question-answer relationship between teacher-student/father-son takes place. Accordingly; in the story in which Uruz is captivated, the one who questions is the student/son/ Uruz whereas the one who answers is the teacher/father/Kazan Khan.

“Son said: whom do they call as enemy? Kazan said: Son, they call them enemy who would kill us if they could catch, and whom we would kill if we could catch. Uruz said: Father if brave beys are killed, do they seek for blood vengeance? Kazan said: Son, though you kill a thousand infidels, nobody can avenge upon you” (Ergin, 1995: 94).

On the other hand, one of the techniques of learning through practising and experiencing, “demonstration” is used in the stories. The purpose of this technique mostly seen appropriate for teaching the psychomotor practices is to teach the performance of an action in an environment where the students are capable of seeing and hearing (Bilen, 2010: 280, 282).

*“Let me fight turning round and round, reeling and reeling in struggle
Watch as I swing my sword around and cut heads off”* (Ergin, 1995: 96-97).

In the story, the words uttered by Kazan Khan for his son Uruz while teaching him to fight display that during the education of the brave ones, fighters, the teachers first

show how to fight and use a sword and thus the young develop their skills by means of what they witness.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In Dede Korkut’s Stories, while the social life is narrated, one of the main subjects discussed is the education of children. According to the data obtained from Boghach Khan and Uruz’s education, the teacher and the student who are the basis of education are substituted by the father and son in the works. The aim is to raise both virtuous and capable brave young men. “...*the Book of Dede Korkut is a book of morals which presents the virtuous and talented alps as models for the society*” (Duymaz, 2000: 121).

In parallel with this purpose, an education based on the principle of learning/teaching through practising and experiencing, which makes learning more permanent in the society, is given. Moreover, the method of demonstration is frequently utilized.

Throughout the education of children, reward is adopted in order to lead them towards positive behaviours, and punishment is employed in order to dissuade them from negative ones. Giving rewards, particularly to the young ones who have skills and virtue/value reveals that values matter highly for the society and specifically, character education is prioritized. Values such as respect for mother, father, state and the statesmen and love, courage, being just, cooperation, honesty are praised.

Passing these values which have always been significant for the Turkish society down to the new generations is another substantial point. Literary texts are important in that they are the main sources for passing on the values. According to the Curriculum of Turkish Lesson in Primary Education (6th, 7th and 8th grades), along with the general purposes of Turkish lesson, it is aimed to bring up individuals, who are aware of the importance of the language, know and adopt the national and universal values through the works of both Turkish and world culture and art, are tolerant, respectful for the human rights, sensitive to the national and global problems, put emphasis on national, sentimental, moral values at the end of the Turkish education (MEB, 2006: 3). Turkish lessons bear a significant position in introducing the values adopted by the society through literary texts (Yaman et al., 2009: 108). “*Since the Turkish lesson is primarily based on the written texts, i.e. the literary products, it becomes effective to introduce and adopt the national, moral and humanistic values and thus provides the maintenance of the life of the nation*” (Özbay, 2002: 115).

Dede Korkut’s stories approve themselves in value education, which is of high importance today, as a main source to make use of in lesson especially such as Turkish, Literature, Social Sciences, etc.

“The values taking place in Dede Korkut’s stories coincide with the values handled in various lessons of today’s primary education curriculum. ... Furthermore, these values are of qualifications suitable with the general purpose to earn the national and sentimental values specified in the curriculum of Turkish lessons” (Deveci et al. 2013: 315).

The values partaking in Dede Korkut’s stories are the values which are still regarded today by the Turkish society. Consequently, using these texts in the education of children from social and affective aspects, Turkish lessons in the first place will make the value of education successful and permanent.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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