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Foreign language reading anxiety: Does it really exist?

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Recent research on foreign language anxiety appears to support the existence of language skill specific anxiety. The principal goal of the present study is to confirm empirically that foreign language (FL) reading anxiety is a specific anxiety type distinguishable from the more general types of FL anxiety (FLA) in the Turkish EFL context. There is also a need for the deep exploration of the possible sources of reading anxiety which remains as a question mark in FLA research field; therefore, the current study has attempted to find out the possible sources of reading anxiety of Turkish ELT learners. The study was conducted in the ELT Department of Faculty of Education at Anadolu University. 55 first-year students, who were monolingual speakers of Turkish between the ages of 17 and 19, participated in the study. Three instruments were used in order to gather data: the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS), and semi-structured interviews.The analysis of the scales and interviews of high anxious learners revealed six main sources with regard to FL reading anxiety: personal reasons, teacher's manner in the classroom, teaching procedures used in the class, the features of reading texts, reading test anxiety and their previous experience.The study also had some implications for reducing anxiety in the reading classes.

Key words: Foreign language anxiety, foreign language reading anxiety, Turkish ELT students.

INTRODUCTION

Foreign language instructors observe a wide range of performance in their courses. Whereas some learners can be very successful, many students cannot achieve their desired level of proficiency. In an attempt to understand the sources of this low achievement, researchers have investigated a multitude of factors that may affect language learning. These studies focused on cognitive variables (e.g., language aptitude, cognitive ability, study habits), affective variables (e.g., anxiety, motivation, self-perceptions), personality variables (e.g., locus of control, individualism), and demographic variables (e.g., age, number of previous foreign languages studied) due to the fact that these variables seemed to be related to foreign language (FL hereafter) achievement (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000; Andrade and Williams, 2009).

As being one of the components of affective variables, anxiety has also addressed the attention of researchers. Specifically, they have been investigating the phenomenon of FL anxiety (FLA hereafter) for a number of years since FL educators have recognized the existence of FLA and its potential for significant interference with language acquisition and production (Saito et al., 1999). Language anxiety can be defined as

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"the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts" (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994: 284). In other words, this anxiety is linked directly to performing in the target language; it is not just a general performance anxiety (Oxford, 1999). According to Horwitz (2001), this anxiety derives from the inherent inauthenticity associated with immature FL communicative abilities:

Adults typically perceive themselves as reasonably intelligent, socially-adept individuals, sensitive to different socio-cultural mores. These assumptions are rarely challenged when communicating in a native language as it is not usually difficult to understand others or to make oneself understood. However, the situation when learning a foreign language stands in marked contrast. As an individual's communication attempts will be evaluated according to uncertain or even unknown linguistic and socio-cultural standards, second language communication entails risk-taking and is necessarily problematic. Because.

complex and nonspontaneous mental operations are required in order to communicate at all, any performance in the L2 is likely to challenge an individual's self-concept as a competent communicator and lead to reticence, self-consciousness, fear, or even panic (p: 133).

As being a specific situation, for many students, FL class can be more anxiety-provoking than any other course they take (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991; Samimy, 1994). Horwitz et al. (1986) observed that anxiety related to FL learning is fairly common among students. Some examples of anxiety-related behaviors in language classrooms are when the learners report having sweaty palms, stomachaches, headaches, accelerated heartbeat and pulse rates (Samimy, 1994; Andrade and Williams, 2009). Moreover, FLA can be manifested through "distortion of sounds, inability to reproduce the intonation and rhythm of language, freezing up when called to perform and forgetting words or phrases just learned or simply refusing to speak and remain silent" (Young, 1991: 430).

Young recognized the effect of anxiety on students' academic performance and listed six potential sources of FLA: "1) personal and interpersonal anxieties; 2) learners' beliefs about language learning; 3) instructors' beliefs about language learning; 4) instructor-learner interactions; 5) classroom procedures; 6) language testing" (Young, 1991:426). In like manner, Kitano (2001: 550) also identified two potential sources of FLA: "an individual student's fear of negative evaluation and his or her self-perceived speaking ability''.

The cause of FLA, according to Tsui (1996), can be due to the belief that using the target language is a threat to an individual's self-concept since when communicating in another language they are not fully representing their personality and intelligence. From this perspective, FLA can be associated with the oral aspects of language use; namely, speaking and listening (Saito et al., 1999).

Indeed, most studies on FLA focused on the negative correlations between language anxiety and oral performance in the FL classroom (Foss and Reitzel, 1988; Young, 1991; Young, 1992; Kitano, 2001; Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002; Mahmoodzadeh, 2012; Lian and Budin, 2014) and the primary instrument used to study FLA, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), including 20 of 33 items centering on listening and speaking a foreign language.

As previously mentioned, speaking is probably considered the most stressful one among the four skills from the perspective of both FL teachers and learners (Young, 1992). The amount of research conducted in the area of anxiety and oral production attests to that issue (Sellers, 2000). Even though little attention has been paid to the other skills, such as reading and writing; anxiety also affects these skills of the language learning process. One area in which little research exists is the relationship between FLA and reading in a FL (Saito et al., 1999; Sellers, 2000; Matsuda and Gobel, 2004; Capan and Karaca, 2013).

It is a well-known fact that reading in any language is a cognitively demanding process, involving the coordination of attention, memory, perception, and comprehension processes (Sellers, 2000). The reading process is further complicated in FL, where there are additional factors to take into account such as language ability, cultural backgrounds, learner motivation, unfamiliar scripts and writing systems (Saito et al., 1999). Many students learning a FL can be frustrated when they try to understand FL texts. In a way, these students experience anxiety. From this perspective, FL reading anxiety does exist as a separate and distinct phenomenon in language learning (Matsuda and Gobel, 2004).

Cheng et al. (1999)'s pinpointed recent research on FLA appears to support the existence of language skill specific anxiety. Therefore, studies related to reading anxiety are very promising. In this way, more sensitive and appropriate measurement instruments that can diagnose   learners' anxiety problems accurately in reading will be developed. This development will lead to a deep exploration of the possible sources of reading anxiety which remains as a question mark in FLA research field. The principal goal of the present study was to confirm empirically that reading anxiety was a specific anxiety type distinguishable from the more general types of FLA in the Turkish EFL context. Moreover, as Saito et al. (1999) pointed out why students felt anxious about reading was an open question, so the current study would attempt to find out the possible sources of reading anxiety of Turkish ELT learners.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Anxiety and Foreign Language Learning: Anxiety is a complex psychological construct consisting of many

variables. To illustrate, anxiety can be associated with "feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, insecurity or apprehension and is intricately intertwined with self-esteem issues and natural ego-preserving fears" (Sellers, 2000: 512). Similarly, Horwitz et al. (1986) defined anxiety as a subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system. According to Scovel (1978), the term anxiety is not easy to define only in one sentence. This term is categorized as trait and state anxiety. Trait anxiety stands for "a stable predisposition to become anxious in a wide range of situations" and state anxiety refers to "an immediate, transitory emotional experience with immediate cognitive effect" (MacIntyre, 1995:93).

The components of FLA were identified firstly by Horwitz et al. (1986) and these researchers treated FLA as a separate and distinct phenomenon particular to FL learning (Young, 1992). The first component is communication apprehension. It is proposed that the language learner has mature thoughts and ideas, but an immature FL vocabulary and grammar with which to express them. The second component, which is closely related to the first, is fear of negative social evaluation. Because students are not sure of themselves and what they are saying, they may feel that they are not able to represent their identity and make the proper social impression. The third component is test anxiety referring to apprehension over academic evaluation. These three components then, communicative apprehension, fear of social evaluation and test anxiety, are viewed by Horwitz et al. (1986) to have a negative impact on FL learning.

Likewise, Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) pointed out the severe impact of anxiety on FL learning as the students who are more anxious in FL classes may not find their study enjoyable. To illustrate, formal FLA has been attributed to the inability to present one's ideas and opinions as well as one can in the target language, which can undermine self-esteem and threaten one's self-image (Horwitz et al., 1986). In sum, these researchers clarified that FLA is a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors with regard to classroom language learning and it stems from the uniqueness of the language learning process.

This finding has fostered the researchers to investigate FL anxiety from different directions. One direction has been to examine the anxiety-proficiency relationship using measures designed to assess the specific construct of FLA (MacIntyre et al., 1997; Andrade and Williams, 2009). Other studies have focused on the relationship between anxiety and learner variables (Samimy, 1994; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000; Spielmann and Radnofsky, 2001). A third direction in recent research has been the examination of the effects of anxiety on the FL learner (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994; MacIntyre, 1995; Cheng et al., 1999; Saito et al., 1999; Sellers, 2000; Kitano, 2001; Matsuda and Gobel,

2004; Hussain et al., 2011; Mahmoodzadeh, 2012; Demirdaş and Bozdoğan; 2013).

Foreign Language Reading Anxiety: There are a number of ways to approach the study of language learning anxiety, one of which is cognitive in nature (Sellers, 2000). The cognitive perspective on language learning views the learner as an autonomous actor, processing language data available in the environment in order to restructure their previous hypotheses related to language structure with a limited attention (Mitchell and Myles, 1998). The cognitive approach sees the relations among anxiety, cognition and behavior as recursive or cyclical, where each influences the other.

For example, a demand to answer a question in a FL class may cause a student to become anxious; anxiety leads to worry and apprehension (MacIntyre, 1995). Cognitive performance is diminished because of the divided attention, and therefore performance suffers, leading to negative self-evaluations and more self-deprecating cognition, which further impair performance and so on. To make theoretical foundation of anxiety more complete, the possibility that anxiety affects FL activities, such as reading, learning and comprehension should be allowed. There is a potential role for anxiety in these processes since the anticipation of FL use in receiving information can provoke anxiety. Young (1992) believes that reading can be anxiety provoking for some students who have difficulty in reading because of not having appropriate reading strategies. For instance, highly anxious readers may spend some part of their mental energy thinking about things that are unrelated to the reading activity, such as the difficulty of vocabulary in the text, how poorly they are doing, what their peers are doing or how much time is left to complete the reading task (Sellers, 2000) or they may simply not run their reading strategies such as not using the clues given to make inference, not using world knowledge to guess the meaning of an unknown vocabulary item. As a result, they cannot deal with the reading activity in an efficient way. But on the other hand, a less-anxious reader may not be interrupted by these task-irrelevant thoughts and may have more mental energy to focus on the reading process itself.

Using the cognitivist approach to work on the relationship between anxiety and reading, the researchers lead to the hypothesis that higher levels of anxiety affect the reading process in various ways (Saito et al., 1999). The influence of anxiety on reading should be fully explored. This type of research; however, has not been observed very often in language learning research (Matsuda and Gobel, 2004). Whereas much of the research in the role of anxiety in language learning focused on oral performance, specifically on speaking and listening, a small number of empirical studies have examined the more specific, subtle effects of language anxiety on reading in FL.

Empirical Studies on FL Reading Anxiety: A great deal of FLA research has centered on anxiety with respect to specific classroom activities such as speaking and listening, suggesting that oral classroom activities are most problematic and anxiety-provoking for FL learners (Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1991; Price, 1991; MacIntyre, 1995; Yayli, 2012).

Conversely, Hilleson (1996) observed various types of anxiety related to different skills. The participants were required to keep a diary to express their feelings in learning FL. They were also interviewed to allow fuller exploration about the language anxiety phenomenon. The participants demonstrated anxiety related to not only speaking and listening but also reading and writing. Similarly, in their empirical study Cheng et al. (1999) investigated the links between FL classroom anxiety and FL writing anxiety among 433 English majors in Taiwan by using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS: a five-point, 33-item Likert-scale questionnaire designed to assess the degree to which students feel anxious during FL classroom instruction developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and the translated version of Writing Apprehension Test (SWLAT designed by Daly and Miller, 1975). The results of the study yielded that FL writing anxiety is a language-skill-specific anxiety.

Recent research on FLA appears to support the existence of language-skill-specific anxiety. In addition to a clear recognition of speaking anxiety, listening anxiety and writing anxiety, documentation of FL reading anxiety has begun to surface.

As being one of the pivotal research studies in the field, the purpose of Saito et al.'s (1999) study was to investigate the relationship between anxiety and FL reading. A total of 383 students enrolled in first-semester university French, Japanese and Russian courses participated in the study. Two instruments were used in the study: FLCAS and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS). The FLRAS was specifically developed by the researchers to measure anxiety related to FL reading. Students' final course grades were also obtained at the end of the semester as a global measure of performance. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was run to examine the relationship between FLCAS and FLRAS.

The findings of the study showed that reading in a FL was indeed anxiety provoking to some students. In addition, it was found that FL reading anxiety was a specific anxiety type distinguishable from the more general types of FLA that have been linked to oral performance. The outcomes of the study also yielded that students' reading anxiety levels increased with their perceptions of the difficulty of reading in their FL, and that their grades decreased in conjunction with their levels of reading anxiety and general FLA. The researchers emphasize the importance of carrying out further research to determine the relationship anxiety the reading process from different perspectives. Specifically, they

claim that studies searching for the sources of reading anxiety are indeed urgently needed. In this way, when and how anxiety intervenes in the reading process can be easily understood and then instructional strategies can be designed to decrease anxiety and improve reading effectiveness.

One of the empirical studies on reading anxiety was Sellers' (2000) study. The researcher explored the relationship between language anxiety and reading in Spanish. The study aimed to examine the effect of language anxiety on the reading comprehension and recall of university-level language students and the effect of language anxiety on the reading process itself. 89 students, who were in two different levels of Spanish at a large study, took place in the study. Two inventories were used to collect data: the Reading Anxiety Scale and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale. Also, an instrument called Cognitive Interference was used to assess the number of off-task thoughts of each participant while reading. After reading an article written in Spanish, the participants were required to complete the cognitive interference questionnaire and the two reading comprehension assessment measures. The reading comprehension assessment measures involved a written recall protocol in English, the native language of the subjects, and a multiple-choice test. To determine the existence of main effects for proficiency level and anxiety level both on reading comprehension and the number of off-task thoughts experienced by the participants in the study, a series of two-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted.

The results showed that more highly anxious students were prone to recall less passage content than were those participants who claimed to experience minimal anxiety. For the type of information recalled, the links between anxiety and recall were less systematic. According to the provided data, reading anxiety affected the number of important pausal units recalled, whereas FL classroom anxiety affected significantly the recall of unimportant pausal units. Also, results of the Cognitive Interference Questionnaire yielded that highly anxious students tended to experience more off-task, concentrating on irrelevant thoughts than their less-anxious peers. In the light of the results of the study, Sellers (2000) concludes that reading anxiety is a separate and distinct phenomenon in language learning. What is important is that he pinpoints the need for further studies to gain a greater understanding of the role of anxiety in FL reading process.

In another empirical study, Matsuda and Gobel (2004) investigated the relationships between general FL classroom anxiety and FL reading anxiety, gender, extended overseas experience, and classroom perfor-mance. A total of 252 students majoring in English at a Japanese university participated in the study. They were divided into three groups; as first-year, second-year and third-year students. The translated versions of the FLCAS

(Horwitz et al., 1986) and the FLRAS (Saito et al., 1999) were administered to three groups in nine intact first semester English classes. Significant differences between variables and their interactions were explored using MANOVA following principle component analysis.

The study found out a significant effect for the independent variable of overseas experience. The students with overseas experience demonstrated lower anxiety in speaking English. In contrast, gender was not found to have a significant effect on overall general/ reading anxieties or subcomponents of both anxieties such as low self-confidence in speaking English, reading confidence or enjoyment. Moreover, the results of the study demonstrated that gender was one of the key elements to success when predicators of performance for first-year students were examined. Self-confidence in speaking English and gender (female) were common predicators of performance for both four-skills and content classes; however, objective proficiency was a predicator only for the four-skill class. This outcome suggested that the nature of the course could influence the determinants of success.

As a more recent study conducted in the Turkish context, Capan and Karaca (2013) compared FL listening anxiety and reading anxiety in terms of gender, and education level. 159 ELT students enrolled in a Turkish state university participated in this study. The researchers gathered data using two scales: FLRAS and FLLAS (Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale). For the statistical interpretation of the collected data, Pearson correlation and multiple regression tests were utilized.

The outcomes of the study yielded positive correlations between FL reading and listening anxiety. That is to say the higher a student's reading anxiety is, the higher listening anxiety he/she has. Moreover, the results showed moderate correlations with regard to education level and reading anxiety. The researchers pointed out that the common point between these two anxiety types is the lack of comprehension and this factor aggravates the anxiety level of the learners. By keeping this in mind, FL teachers should find ways to avoid ambiguity in classroom activities. In this way, the learners will not feel insufficient in the target language.

The bulk of the studies conducted on FLA have mostly centered on explaining the relationship between anxiety and oral performance, but only a few number of studies have dealt with the FL reading anxiety phenomenon. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, the sources of FL reading anxiety remain as a key research question (Saito et al., 1999). Helping teachers to recognize these sources of anxiety in language learners is an important step in responding to anxiety in classroom (MacIntyre, 1995; Yaylı, 2012).

The main purpose of the present study was to confirm empirically that FL reading anxiety did exist as a separate and distinguishable phenomenon in language learning. The second goal was to determine the causes of reading anxiety. Thus, the following research questions were

posed to guide the study:

1) Does FL reading anxiety exist as a phenomenon distinguishable from general FLA in the Turkish EFL context?
2) What are the causes of FL reading anxiety of Turkish ELT students?

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The study was conducted at the ELT Department in the Faculty of Education at Anadolu University. 55 subjects were involved in the study. They were the first-year students, and were the monolingual speakers of Turkish between the ages 17 and 19.

Sections A and B were selected as the population via convenience sampling (Huck and Cormier, 1996). There were a total of 65 students in two sections, but the students who were coming from the other departments and countries (Erasmus students), repeating the reading course for the second time were not chosen as the study subjects. They had regular classes with their instructors 3 h a week. In these regular classes, they handled the activities in their book (Reading Connections by Anne Ediger and Cherly Pavlik, 1999, Oxford: OUP).

Instruments for data collection

The present study utilized the 'explanatory sequential mixed methods design'; that is, the researcher collects the quantitative data in the first place through two instruments , FLCAS, and FLRAS, and then, she gathers qualitative data via semi-structured interviews in order to explain the quantitative data results. It is one of the most popular designs in the educational research field due to the fact that once the researcher gets the portrait of the problem by means of quantitative data; there is a need for more analysis to explain this general condition by collecting qualitative analysis (Creswell, 2012). The instruments used in order to gather data in order to achieve triangulation were listed as follows:

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS): This instrument was designed by Horwitz et al. in 1986 to assess the students' level of anxiety related to language learning in general. The FLCAS contains 32 items, each of which is answered on a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". This instrument was utilized in order to assess their overall FLA which would later be used to compare and contrast their reading anxiety. The 26th item in the original FLCAS '*I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.*' was eliminated from the questionnaire because the subjects of this study were chosen among FL learners from the ELT department all of whom participated in 'language classes' as suggested by Aydın (1999).

The Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS): This instrument was specifically designed by Saito et al. in 1999 to measure anxiety related to FL reading. The FLRAS consists of 20 likert-scale items also scored on a 5 point scale.

Semi-structured Interviews: The researcher interviewed with high anxious students in order to probe the answers they had given in the FLRAS. Eight high-anxious students were selected with regard to their FLRAS scores. The researcher tried to elicit the learner's ideas on the basis of the following questions:

1) How can you distinguish FL reading anxiety from general FLA?

2|) When and how does FL reading anxiety occur?

3) What are the symptoms of FL reading anxiety? How can you recognize these symptoms?

4) What can be the possible sources of this kind of anxiety?

5) Can personal or interpersonal anxieties, learner beliefs about language learning, instructor beliefs about language teaching, instructor-learner interactions, classroom procedures or language testing play a role in this type of anxiety?

Data collection procedures

The FLCAS and FLRAS were administered to the participants by the researcher during the class hours. The participants were required to complete the FLCAS in 20 min and the FLRAS in 10 min as suggested in Saito et al.'s (1999) study. They were also asked not to write their names in order to make sure that the results would not be used to evaluate their performance. They were instructed to use nick names instead.

After finding out high anxious students on the basis of their FLRAS scores, the researcher made an interview session by announcing the students' nick names. The interview was conducted in L1 focusing on the sources of FL reading anxiety so that the participants could state their opinions freely.

Data analysis

In order to answer the first research question "Does FL reading anxiety exist as a phenomenon distinguishable from general FLA in the Turkish EFL context?" the mean scores of the FLCAS and FLRAS were calculated. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was also computed to explore the relationship between the FLCAS and FLRAS. The Cluster analysis was also conducted to assess the results of the FLCAS showing reading anxiety as a separate language skill anxiety.

For the second research question "What are the causes of FL reading anxiety of Turkish ELT students?" a semi-structured interview was conducted with high anxious students on the basis of their FLRAS scores and then transcribed by the researcher. The transcriptions were coded and analyzed by the researcher and another co-rater to achieve consensus on the sources of FL reading anxiety.

RESULTS

In order to find out the causes of FL reading anxiety of Turkish ELT students, three instruments were used in this study: the FLCAS, the FLRAS and a semi-structured interview. To confirm empirically that FL reading anxiety existed as a separate and distinguishable phenomenon in language learning, the participants' responses given in the FLCAS and FLRAS were analyzed through a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Before running this type of correlation coefficient, internal consistency had been computed for each of the questionnaires. Cronbach's α for the FLCAS was 0.82 and Cronbach's α for the FLRAS was 0.88. On the basis of these findings, it could be said that the FLRAS showed good internal reliability, which suggested that the scale was eliciting a single construct. This result of the FLRAS (α = 0.88, n = 55) compared reasonably well with the results of 0.82 for the FLCAS computed on the same sample.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for FLCAS and FLRAS.

	N	Mean	SD
FLCAS	55	3.08	1.13
FLRAS	55	2.93	0.36

Further analysis was also conducted on the results of the FLCAS and FLRAS in order to be able to find out the students having high reading anxiety. The students, then, were interviewed to credit the evidence of FL reading anxiety, so that it would be possible to identify the reasons making these learners high anxious about reading.

For the first research question, 'Does FL reading anxiety is indeed distinguishable from general anxiety in the Turkish EFL context?' the results of the present study indicated that FL reading anxiety is indeed distinguishable from general FL anxiety. The mean and standard deviation of the FLCAS (M = 3.08; SD = 1.13) were slightly bigger than those of the FLRAS (M = 2.93; SD = 0.36) (Table 1). That is, on the FLCAS the average response to each of 32 items was slightly above 3 (3.08) showing neither agreement nor disagreement with the statements, whereas the mean response on the FLRAS was 2.93. This finding might suggest that, on average, the students reported slightly more reading anxiety per item than general FLA, due to the fact that the participants agreed more with the statements searching for the reading anxiety. The difference between the standard deviations of these two scales was also noticeable. The standard deviation was calculated as 1.13 for the FLCAS and 0.36 for the FLRAS indicating that the participants shared more similar thoughts on the questions of the FLCAS. In other words, the participants gave similar responses to the questions asked in the FLRAS.

In order to find out the relationship between the FLRAS and FLCAS, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used (r = 0.076, n = 55, p = 0.01 < 0.05). This finding indicated that this relationship was statistically significant meaning that students with higher levels of FLA were also prone to have higher levels of FL reading anxiety or just vice versa. Although this relationship was significant and implied a reasonable amount of overlap between the two questionnaires, it also indicated a substantial amount of discrimination showing the existence of reading anxiety as a specific type of anxiety. For further analysis, the cluster analysis was computed to prove empirically that FL reading anxiety was really a distinguishable phenomenon. According to the results of cluster analysis and the correlation coefficient of 0.076, the two questionnaires shared 37% of the variance. Thus, 63% of the variance was not shared between the two questionnaires, a finding that supported the differentiation of the two constructs; the

Table 2. The distribution of the subjects according to their FLRAS scores.

	high (M<2.57)	Medium 2.57<M<3.29	low M>3.29
	S2,S4,S6,S16, S17,S31,S35, S40	S1, S3, S5, S7, S8, S10, S11, S12, S14, S18, S19, S23, S24, S25, S26, S27, S28, S29, S30, S33, S34, S36, S37, S42, S43, S44, S45, S46, S48, S49, S50, S52, S53, S54, S55	S9, S13, S15, S20, S21, S22, S32, S38, S39, S41, S47, S51
N total	8	35	12

FLCAS showing the overall FLA and the FLRAS indicating the language skill specific anxiety; namely, FL reading anxiety. It could be concluded that there was at least preliminary support for the existence of FL reading anxiety as a phenomenon related to, but distinct from, general FLA.

For the second research question, '*What are the causes of FL reading anxiety of Turkish ELT students?*' a semi-structured interview was conducted with high anxious students. Before the interview, the participants had been categorised as being high, medium or low anxious according to the distribution of all the subjects on the basis of the answers each subject gave to the FLRAS items. The following procedure was used in the categorisation of anxiety levels taken from Aydın's study (1999):

Low = Mean + Standard deviation = The score higher than this
High = Mean – Standard deviation = The score lower than this
Medium = The score between Mean – Standard deviation and Mean + Standard deviation.

As mentioned before, the mean and standard deviation were calculated as M = 2.93 and SD = 0.36 for the FLCAS. According to the given formula, the participants having mean scores lower than 2.57 were labelled as high anxious since they agreed with many of the statements assessing FL reading anxiety and higher than 3.29 were categorised as low anxious students since they did not agree with the questions measuring FLA. When the mean scores of the FLRAS items for each subject were calculated, it was found that eight students fell into the category of high anxious. All of these 8 students agreed with the 15th statement of the FLRAS indicating learning to read is the hardest part of learning English. 35 students were categorised as medium and the rest of the subjects, 12 students were categorised as low anxious subjects (Table 2).

In order to find the sources of FL reading anxiety, the researcher made an interview with all of the eight students having high reading anxiety, in their native language. All the interviews were tape recorded and then transcribed for the analysis. The transcriptions were analyzed by the researcher and by another instructor through theme coding (Creswell, 2012). The inter-rater reliability was calculated as 92%.

The analysis of the interviews revealed several main sources of FL reading anxiety. Related to reading classes the following categories were identified as causing language anxiety from the gathered data:

Personal reasons

a. Self -assessment of ability (making negative self - assessment of learners' abilities.)
b. Self-comparison to others (having a fear of being less competent, being competitive with regard to grades and performance)
c. High personal expectations (being perfectionist, trying to please themselves and others by performing better)

Teachers' manner in the classroom (teacher's harsh behaviors towards students' errors, asking sudden questions)

Teaching procedures (getting bored of monotonous activities, uninteresting materials)

Features of Reading Texts

a. vocabulary (containing too many unknown vocabulary items, students' not being able to infer the meaning form the context)
b. the length of the text (the reading text being too long containing many paragraphs)
c. the genre of the text (not being familiar with the pattern of the text)
d. the background information (having no or less information about the topic of the text)

Reading text

a. time (having a fear of not being able to finish the text on time)
b. the mismatch between the text questions and the content of the reading lessons (being in an ambiguous situation due to the mismatch between the questions asked in a reading test and the questions asked in an

Table 3. Summary of the percentages of the causes of FL reading anxiety.

Categories of FL reading anxiety	Causes of FL reading anxiety	N	%
	Self -assessment of ability	8	100
	High personal expectations	8	100
Personal Reasons	Self- comparison to others	5	63
Teachers' Manner in the Class	Teachers' manner in the classroom	8	100
Teaching Procedures	Teaching procedures	5	63
	Vocabulary	8	100
	Length of the text	6	75
Features of Reading Texts	Background information	6	75
	Genre of the text	5	63
	Mismatch between test questions and content of reading lessons	5	63
Reading Text	Time of reading test	4	50
Previous Experience	Previous experience	2	25

ordinary reading activity)

Previous experience (making negative assessment of previous education related to reading, not having read extra English novels and stories in high school)

The students' responses given during the interview on reading anxiety were analyzed qualitatively and the results were presented in percentages in order to clarify the sources of FL reading anxiety. Table 3 summarises the distribution of the main causes of FL reading anxiety.

As shown in Table 3, all of the students indicated the strong influence of self- assessment of ability, high personal expectations, teachers' manner in the classroom, vocabulary on FL reading anxiety (N = 8, 100%). A total of 6 students pinpointed the effect of the length of a reading text and background information on this type of anxiety (75%). 5 students out of 8 emphasised the impact of self -comparison to others, teaching procedures, the genre of the text and the mismatch between test questions and the content of reading lessons on FL reading anxiety (63%). The time of reading test (50%) and the students' previous experience (25%) were also found relatively efficient with regard to FL reading anxiety.

Turkish ELT students in this study specifically underlined the simple fact that if self- assessment of ability was negative, this could lead to anxiety. In other words, if they believed that they did not have the necessary skills to achieve success in the reading lessons, they could suffer from FL reading anxiety to a greater extent. Similarly, having high expectations from their own performance in the reading lessons and not being able to fulfil those expectations in a desired way

could foster FL reading anxiety. This can be proved by analyzing their responses to the first statement of the FLRAS, ''*I get upset when I am not sure whether I understand what I am reading in English''*; they agreed or strongly agreed with it. The following statements expressed by high anxious students might explain how they felt FL reading anxiety as a consequence of having high expectations from their own performance;

"I am not satisfied with my own reading performance. I know, I must study a lot. Perhaps this is related to my study skills. Although I study regularly, I cannot get high grades." (S2)
"I am trying to do my best in reading lessons, but I know, I am not a good student, not good at reading. I have to work hard, at least find out some ways to be successful." (S16)
"I know that my reading performance is poor. Sometimes I think that I will not be able to understand the content of the lessons in the upper grades, for example literature classes. I should find a way to cope with this poor performance; I do not want to be labelled as a poor student." (S40)

Teachers' manner in the classroom and vocabulary also played an important role in FL reading anxiety. Learners in the study claimed that their errors should be corrected, but how their teachers correct these errors affected them a lot. They did not want a harsh manner of error correction, namely, they did not want to be interrupted for error correction or clarification while giving answers in reading courses. Also, they did not want their teachers to ask sudden questions to them. In terms of vocabulary, subjects of this study complained about their lack of

vocabulary knowledge. They agreed with the 7th statement of the FLRAS *"When reading English, I get nervous and confused when I do not understand every word"*. They believed that having rich vocabulary knowledge would enhance their success in reading. In the following statements, the participants expressed their opinions about the significance of teachers' manner and vocabulary knowledge with regard to FL reading anxiety;

"I think the teachers should make error correction gently. They should be more approachable. If they correct my errors harshly, I will hesitate to ask a question to them and keep silent." (S2)
"In high school, our teacher did not like answering reading questions in the class. In my opinion, it would be better if the teacher and the class analyze the text together in order to answer the questions." (S17)
"In reading courses, our teacher sometimes asks questions suddenly to the ones who are not interested in a reading activity. This may be a tactic to draw the attention of these students, but in my opinion this is not a good strategy. This behaviour creates anxiety among students." (S40)
"Whenever I see an unknown word in a reading text, I'm demoralized. I question my vocabulary size; I am at the advanced level, so I must understand everything." (S4)
"Lack of vocabulary knowledge is one of the main reasons for FL reading anxiety." (S35)
"If I see an unknown word in a title of a reading text, I do not want to continue reading. It seems to me that I will not be able to understand the rest of it." (S40)

Throughout the interviews, there were comments about the impact of the length of a reading text and background information on FL reading anxiety. Their answers to the 4th item *"I feel intimidated whenever I see a whole page of English in front of me"* and 5th item *"I am nervous when I am reading a passage in English when I am not familiar with the topic"* lent further support for the mentioned issues. 75% of the students reported that they were negatively affected whenever they are faced with a long reading passage full of paragraphs. Additionally, they focused on the usefulness of having background information about the theme of a reading text. They thought that not being familiar with the topic presented in the reading text would cause difficulty in understanding the whole passage. The students' opinions as stated below, would explain why they found long texts and insufficient background information as anxiety provoking;

"Having background information is very important. For example, I'm interested in music. If the text is about music, I feel secure." (S2)
"When I read something that I have not read before or known anything about it, I get frustrated. It may be an easy text, but I do not feel at ease. This anxiety also brings up low grades." (S17)

"If I find the text too long at a first glance, I am down. I do not know what to do in that situation. I try to read the text and then look at the questions, but I am afraid of not being able to find out the appropriate answers." (S31)
"Long texts frighten me a lot because there is a question mark in my mind: Will I be able to understand the entire text? Yes, long texts increase my anxiety." (S35)

Self- comparison to others and uninteresting teaching procedures created anxiety for five of the subjects in the present study. They stated that they compared themselves and their work with the other students', which in turn, resulted in language anxiety. Likewise, not focusing their attention due to boring and uninteresting teaching procedures led to anxiety. As stated in the following examples, adopting a competitive behaviour and dealing with uninteresting materials created anxiety for high anxious students.

"I always compete with my friends in reading courses. If they get higher marks than me, I get really sad. Sometimes I talk to myself: Why do you get low grades? What's the problem?" (S16)
"I compare my grades with the other students in the class. If I get a low mark, I search for the solutions. I try to learn how other pupils get good marks. For example, X in our class always gets high grades. I ask her some questions about her studying style. I can apply her tactics for the next exam." (S31)
"In my opinion the book and the materials used in reading courses should be within the interest of students. They should cover interesting, topics and eye-catching layout to motivate students to read the texts. But, unfortunately I do not like the book used in our reading lessons. It is a boring stuff." (S40)
"I think there should be a balance between the difficulty level of the texts and activities in the book and the level of the students. They should not be too simple or challenging. Sometimes we cannot understand the terms or jargons, simply the language, used in the text and can miss the whole picture." (S6)

The other two categories of FL reading anxiety were identified as the unclear genre of a reading passage and the mismatch between test questions and the content of the reading lessons. Five students in the study reported that if they could not figure out the pattern used in a reading text, this would lead them to feel anxious. In addition, not building any links between the questions asked in the reading exams and the things discussed in the reading courses would create a great deal of anxiety for these students;

"There are some patterns used in reading texts like writing paragraphs, comparison or contrast, narrative, expository. Finding the pattern of a reading text at a first glance enhances my understanding. I know that I will read

about several similarities or differences. But, if I cannot find out a particular pattern, I get tense because I cannot connect the ideas easily throughout the passage." (S6)
"When I do not understand the pattern, I become more anxious." (S4)
"When I think about the exam questions, I can clearly see that there is a gap between the exam questions and the things we study in reading courses. We can find out the answers of the activities easily in the book, but our teachers ask different and more difficult questions in the exam. Sometimes I told to myself, "We did not do such things in the class, why did they ask this question?" (S17)

Concerning the other sources, the amount of time given in a reading test and the negative influence of bad experiences related to reading contributed to FL reading anxiety by few students. The following statements clarified how negative previous experiences and time pressure in a reading test might create anxiety;

"In high school, we only focused on grammar. We did not read story books or novels. I wish we had read lots of books in high school, so that I would be able to understand the texts we read this term quite easily." (S16)
"Concerning the limited amount of time given in a reading test, I am under pressure. I know I do not have to read everything in details. I can scan, but I cannot do it. I am afraid of not finishing the test on time." (S2)
"I do not feel secure in reading lessons, and if I get a reading test, this anxiety doubles. I am not sure about my time management. Can I finish the questions on time? Can I find all the answers? These questions make me exhausted indeed." (S35).

DISCUSSION

The current study suggested that reading in a FL could be considered as an anxiety provoking phenomenon for some students. Moreover, it appeared that FL reading anxiety was indeed distinguishable from general FL anxiety. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient of 0.076 ($p < 0.05$) for this study meant that the FLRAS and the FLCAS shared 37% of the variance. Hence, 63% of the variance was not shared between the two questionnaires, an outcome which provoked the differen-tiation of these two measures yielding the existence of FL reading anxiety as a distinguishable sort of anxiety. This finding was consistent with Saito et al. (1999), who studied on FL reading anxiety. Similarly, they found the FLRAS and the FLCAS sharing approximately 41% of the variance and not sharing 59% of the variance which simply indicated that FL reading anxiety is a specific type of anxiety. Specifically, Saito et al. (1999) argued for the recognition of FL reading anxiety contrary to previous teacher institutions since language teachers have

generally assumed that reading is the least anxiety-provoking part of the curriculum.

Perhaps, this result should come as no surprise since there are some studies in the literature which support the existence of FL reading anxiety as a specific language skill anxiety (Sellers, 2000; Matsuda and Gobel, 2004; Capan and Karaca, 2012). For example, Sellers (2000) found that reading tasks provoked different levels of anxiety in second language learners; some triggered high levels of anxiety, whereas the others did not cause any anxiety. While dealing with relatively demanding activities full of too many unknown vocabulary items, learners felt high level of anxiety; but on the other hand, with simpler tasks they were at ease.

As Saito et al. (1999) pointed out exactly why students feel anxious about reading is still an open question; the present study was designed to find out the sources of FL reading anxiety as experienced by language learners in the reading classes. The analysis of the interviews of high anxious learners revealed six main sources with regard to FL reading anxiety. The participants reported that the anxiety felt in the reading courses was caused by personal reasons, by their teacher's manner in the classroom, by teaching procedures used in the class, by the features of reading texts, by reading test anxiety and their previous experience.

Findings in this investigation lent support to the views expressed in a number of related studies pointing to the sources of FLA. For example, as Young (1991) argued some of these sources were associated with the learner, some with the teacher, and some with the instructional practice. Similarly, in a study of Turkish learners of English in the speaking and writing courses, Aydın (1999) found that students felt that their anxiety resulted from personal concerns, their teacher's manner towards them and the teaching procedures used in the class.

In the current study, it was found that the students mostly reported that negative self-assessment of ability, self-comparison to others and high expectations; which were the sub-branches of personal reasons, created anxiety in the reading lessons. Our findings conform to Bailey's (1983), MacIntyre and Gardner's (1994), MacIntyre's (1995) and Aydın's (1999) studies owing to the fact that low self-esteem and competitiveness were found to be the two significant sources of learner anxiety under personal reasons. Bailey (1983) contended that competitiveness could lead to anxiety when language learners compare themselves to others or to an idealized self-image. Likewise, MacIntyre (1995) claimed that FLA arousal could be stemmed from the negative judgments of students related to their own performance; a fear of being less competent than the others in the classroom.

Teacher's manner in the classroom and teaching procedures were believed to be anxiety provoking by the learners in the present study. These outcomes also corroborated the findings of Horwitz et al.'s (1986) and Price's (1991), Yaylı's (2012) and Lian and Budin' (2014)

studies. The researchers underlined the fact that instructors had played a significant role in the amount of anxiety each student had experienced in particular classes. For instance, the participants in Price's study (1991) indicated that they would feel more comfortable the instructor were more like a friend helping them to learn and less like an authority figure in making them perform. Similarly, in the current study the learners pinpointed that the reading instructors could reduce their anxiety level by conducting interesting activities, by giving them more positive reinforcement, by being more tolerable to their errors and by helping them to develop more realistic expectations of themselves by letting them know that they were not supposed to be perfect in terms of size of vocabulary knowledge.

The results of this study revealed that several features of the reading text such as vocabulary, the length of the text, the genre of the text and the background information about the topic led the participants to anxiety which could impede FL reading. As stated in Saito et al.'s (1999) and Seller's (2000) studies, the fact that students feel they should understand everything in terms of vocabulary and grammar would obviously make them anxious. Not finding out the text type used in the reading passage and not knowing any information about the theme discussed in the reading text were the causes of FL reading anxiety for the participants of this investigation, since people tend to be more anxious in unfamiliar situations (Saito et al., 1999).

Some of the students in this study reported that their FL reading anxiety derived from the reading test or previous experience. The participants stated that they experienced anxiety when they spent hours studying the material emphasised in class only to find that their tests assessed different material or utilise question-types with which they had no experience. As Young (1991) emphasized, the mismatch between the content of lessons and the questions asked in the test lead students not only to complain, but also to experience frustration and anxiety. Similarly, if learners have negative experiences related to FL reading or FL reading courses, they can expect to be nervous and to perform poorly. Thus, FL reading anxiety can also be based on negative expectations that lead to worry and emotionality (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991).

Conclusion

The present study proved that reading in a FL was a specific anxiety type distinguishable from general FLA. As arguing for the recognition of FL reading anxiety, the present study also aimed at finding the sources FL reading anxiety among Turkish ELT students. According to Horwitz et al. (1986), there were two basic options for the language teacher in dealing with FLA: 1) help students cope with the anxiety-producing situation, and 2) make the learning context less stressful. These two

approaches would seem to be applicable in the case of reading anxiety, as well. Thus, despite the limitations in terms of the small sample size, the study has certain implications for reducing anxiety in the reading classes. Reading instructors who observe anxiety in their courses can consider the following issues. Firstly, teachers could prepare their students for the possibility of reading difficulties and possible anxiety when introducing reading texts (Saito et al., 1999). Knowing that anxiety and difficulties are possible and natural in language learning is often reassuring for many students who suffer from high level of anxiety (Sellers, 2000).

Secondly, in order to make reading itself less stressful, various reading strategies should be taught both to help learners overcome their unrealistic expectations for understanding everything they read and develop capability of using the clues to make correct guesses whenever they encounter with an unknown vocabulary item (Horwitz, 2001).

Another implication was that, as in the case of other types of anxiety, specific anxiety-reduction measures such as deep breathing or positive self-talk could be beneficial (Aydın, 1999; Saito et al., 1999). As Young (1991) indicated learners may need to participate in some form of supplemental instruction or a support group, work with a tutor, and join a language club, do relaxation exercises and practice self-talk. According to the researcher, self-talk could be particularly useful for both coping with an anxiety due to a specific evaluative situation such as a test or a performance of some sort, and making positive statements about oneself.

Another major pedagogical implication was that teachers should pay careful attention to the selection of texts to ensure that they are an appropriate level of difficulty (Saito et al., 1999; Sellers, 2000; Matsuda and Gobel, 2004) as one of participants of the present study reported the reading text and its activities should not be too simple or challenging, namely below or above the level of students.

The teachers' manner toward students in a reading class plays a pivotal role in creating anxiety. In particular, the instructor's harsh mannerism of correcting students' errors is often cited as anxiety provoking (Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1991; MacIntyre et al., 1997). Hence, the mutual rapport between instructors and learners can significantly reduce the degree of anxiety learners feel in the reading classes.

The outcomes of the current study suggest a number of avenues for future reading research. Firstly, another study can be designed to explore the potential sources of foreign language reading anxiety using different data collection procedures. To illustrate, class observations, field notes, diary writing, and think-aloud protocols can be utilized to achieve triangulation. Secondly, the present study was conducted with the ELT students at a state university. The same techniques and methods used in the current study can be applied to different groups of

students from different departments, different universities or even secondary schools to generalize the results. Additionally, the relationship of reading anxiety and specific target languages is also an interesting and promising issue. In the present study, English as a target language has been analyzed; thus, in the other studies various foreign languages having similar alphabets like German, French or different alphabets such as Japanese, Russian can be chosen to search for the causes of FL anxiety of Turkish students.

Another suggestion for future research is to investigate the role of reading anxiety in first language. Research in this area will provide insightful information to gain a better understanding of what reading anxiety is and how it functions in first language.

The existence of language skill specific anxiety is promising because it further promises use of multiple measurements in exploring the relationships among various facets of FLA and different aspects of FL achievement. More importantly, scrutiny of different sorts of FLA might contribute to further advancement in grasping the nature of FLA. A close investigation of the similarities and differences of the underlying issues that define each of these anxieties might shed some light on the FLA construct. Further research on the nature and impacts of other types of FLA is urgently needed to clarify this phenomenon in details, leading to a more refined theoretical model.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

A comparison of preservice teachers' beliefs on education and classroom management

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The beliefs held by preservice teachers will affect their classroom perceptions and behaviors. Therefore, understanding these beliefs is necessary to better understand preservice teachers, manage educational reforms successfully, and improving their teaching practice. From another perspective, understanding the belief structures of preservice teachers is important to improve their professional readiness and teaching. This study thus aims to explore whether there is a relationship between preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on education and classroom management. The relational model was used in the study. The study was conducted on 394 third and fourth year students from the Division of Classroom Teaching in the Elementary Education Departments of five public university. The scales used for the data collection are "Beliefs on Education Inventory" and "Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Management Survey". Data analyses were made through descriptive statistics, the Chi-Square Test, One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Independent Samples t-Test, and the Kruskall Walls Test. Even though preservice teachers might have different beliefs, it was found that those who adopted the progressive view in the people management dimension of classroom management were less interventionist, those who adopted the eclectic education belief were more interactive than the former, and those who held the transfer belief were more interactive than those in the other groups. This study attempted to determine and compare pre service elementary teachers' educational and classroom management beliefs. They have various beliefs on education and classroom management. However, it is not clear what beliefs need to be altered or what beliefs are better. Even if we were, we would not have a way of changing these. The beliefs of future teachers will be reflected in their practices; thus, these research results may contribute to teacher education institutions, policy-makers, teachers and school administrators.

Key words: Preservice teacher, beliefs on education, progressivism, transfer, classroom management beliefs and attitudes.

INTRODUCTION

There are several previous studies based on preschool and high school teacher beliefs which concluded that educational beliefs significantly affect teachers' classroom practices, teaching perceptions and assessment (Ferguson, 2002; Heilman, 1998; Luft and Roegrig, 2007; Sahin, Bullock and Stables, 2002), played a role in

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lesson plans and selection of activity types (Chou, 2008; Hatala, 2002; Heilman, 1998), influenced the professional preparation of teachers (Chou, 2008; Theuer, 2003), and reflected on instructional approaches in hopes of increasing student learning and motivation (Edwards, 2003). These results concern novice and seasoned teachers (Doppen, 2007; Tamir, 1991; Minor et al., 2002) as well as preservice ones (Raths, 2001; Hatala, 2002; de Leon-Carillo, 2007).

Educational beliefs not only shape teachers' thoughts about classroom related issues, but they also influence their reactions to different classroom situations (Cited in: Theuer, 2003). The studies which have concluded that educational beliefs affect perspectives on classroom management (Parker, 2002; Garret, 2005; Martin et al., 2005) and associated it with effective teaching behaviors also state that the physical state of the classroom (Başar, 1998; Özel and Bayındır, 2008), time spent on task (Başar, 1998; Özel and Bayındır, 2008), student behaviors and awareness (McEwan, 2003), orchestrating the classroom (Raptakis, 2005), the way problems are solved (Stronge and Hildman, 2003, Raptakis, 2005), and relationships with students affect their behaviors and achievement (Ang, 2005; Fredriksen and Rhodes, 2004; Hughes et al.,1999). Based on these findings, it would be wrong to keep beliefs on education and classroom management separate from any discussion of teachers' effectiveness. An examination of these studies also shows that beliefs on education and classroom management are intertwined. Therefore, different from the studies mentioned above, the present study treats these two concepts together to reveal the relationship between them. The beliefs studied here were considered within the framework explained below.

Beliefs on education

The different educational philosophy trends of progressivism and determinism make the backbone of many teacher education programs educational practices (McCollum, 2004). The belief system referred to here as transferessentially reflects determinism. *Progressivism* is the reflection of pragmatist philosophy in education (Sönmez, 2003; Topses, 2006). The methods adopted in progressive education are student-centered approaches and a democratic class atmosphere (Edwards, 2003; Witcher, 1993). *Transfer* was born out of a reaction against the freedom granted by the progressivists in educational processes (McCollum, 2004; Witcher, 1993). Those who believe in transfer believe that the teacher is at the heart of the instructional process (Witcher et al., 2002). Traditional instruction is advocated in this philosophy and the teacher is responsible for the transfer of knowledge accumulated from the past. Failure to transfer this knowledge and the skills may mean the end of the society (Witcher et al., 2002). They mostly prefer to transfer knowledge to the student and appreciate

showing methods (McCollum, 2004; Witcher, 1993).

Beliefs on classroom management

There are different models depicting teachers' beliefs on classroom management. The tool developed by Martin et al. (1998) evaluates teachers' views on classroom management as instructional management, people management, and behavioral management. On one end of the model is the overly controlling and interventionist teacher type, and on the other end is the non-interventionist teacher type. Also adopted by Wolfgang and Glickman (1980), the interactive approach lies in the middle of this line (Cited in: Parker, 2002). This line indicates a process from teacher to student centered practices (Parker, 2002).

Non-interventionist teachers believe that unwanted student behaviors result from unresolvedinternal conflicts. They believe that, given the opportunity and the right support, individuals can overcome these behaviors. Teachers in this group prefer high students' involvement and low control on their own part. For them, the priority of education is personal development (Glickman and Tamashiro, 1980; Parker, 2002). *Interventionist teachers* rely on the studies of experimental psychologists who claim that human behaviors are nothing but external conditioning. Teachers in this group prefer high control low students' involvement. They teach the whole class and emphasize basic skills (Glickman and Tamashiro, 1980; Parker, 2002). In the middle of the model, *interactionist teachers* use social and developmental psychology to make meaning of students' behaviors. They see the mutual relationship between students and the teacher or among classmatesas the resolution of the problem. They disperse control equally (Glickman and Tamashiro, 1980).

The beliefs held by preservice teachers will affect their classroom perceptions and behaviors. Therefore, understanding these beliefs is necessary to better understand preservice teachers, manage educational reforms successfully, and improving their teaching practice (Sang et al., 2009). From another perspective, understanding the belief structures of preservice teachers is important to improve their professional readiness and teaching (Garrett, 2005). This study thus aims to explore whether there is a relationship between preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on education and classroom management. In line with this aim, the following questions were studied:

1. What are the beliefs of preservice teachers on education?
2. Do preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on education vary with respect to their university, taking the teaching practice/observation course, and school experience/internship?
3. What are the beliefs of preservice teachers on classroom management?

4. Do preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on class-room management vary with respect to their university, taking the teaching practice/observation course, and school experience/internship?
5. Do preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on education vary with respect to their classroom management beliefs?

METHODOLOGY

Research model

The relational model was used in the study. This model is used to determine whether two or more variables move together and to what extent (Karasar, 1999). This model was chosen as it describes and defines the phenomenon as it is, in its own circumstances.

Study group

The study was conducted on 394 third and fourth year students from the Division of Classroom Teaching in the Elementary Education Departments of five public university Education Faculties located in five different cities in Central Anatolia and Aegeanregions. As University A did not have any 4th year students, all of their participants were 3rd year students.

Data collection tools

The data collection tools used in the study were Okut (2009)'s "Beliefs on Education Inventory" and Martin et al.'s (1998) "Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Management Inventory" which was adapted to Turkish by Savran (2002).

Beliefs on education inventory

This scale has two factors. The corrected item total correlations vary between 0.737 and 0.765.Following factor rotation, the first factor was seen to consist of 12 items, and the second factor was seen to also have 12 items. The factor loads of the items in the first factor varied between 0.375-0.719 and those in the second factor between 0.380-0.652. As the items in factor one were considered to be related to the transfer belief, this factor was named transfer. For the same reasons, the second factor was named progressivism. The reliability of the scale was based on its internal consistency coefficient. The internal consistency coefficient of the items on the scale had Cronbach Alpha value of 0.757. The items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale:*(5) Completely agree, (4) Mostly agree, (3) Somewhat agree and (2) Disagree, (1) Completely disagree* (Okut, 2009).The Alpha reliability coefficient in this study was .72.

Total points possible vary between 0 and 24. A high total score indicates a high interest for progressivism, while a low score shows an interest in transfer. For each Completely Agree and Mostly Agree response to the items reflecting progressivism, participants received 1 point. Similarly, the responses of Disagree and Completely Disagree to the items reflecting transfer also brought the participants 1 point each. The responses to the items thus contributed to a total score for each participant. Those with a total score between 1-10 were considered to believe in transfer, those with a total score between 11-14 were considered to be eclectic, and those with a total score between 15-24 were considered to be progressivist. While these categories were decided by using the Beliefs on Education In this scale, participants who score between

1-16 are considered to believe in transfer, those who score between 17-23 are eclectic, and those who score 24-40 are progressivist. Starting from scores and intervals, those who score 40% of the total score (40) are considered to believe in transfer, those who score between 40-60%of the total score are eclectic, and those who score 60% or higher are progressivist. A similar approach was used in the present study with those scoring 40% of the total score (24) (1-10) being considered to believe in transfer, those between 40 - 60% (11-15) being considered eclectic, and 60% and higher (16-24) being considered progressivist (Okut, 2009).

Attitudes and beliefs on classroom management inventory

The Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Management Inventory was developed by Martin et al. (1998) to determine teachers' perceptions of classroom management beliefs and practices. The inventory includes 26 Likert type items, and defines classroom management, as a multi dimensional construct comprising instructional management (12 items), people management (10 items) and behavioral management (4 items). Each item is scored on a 4-point Likert scale: *(4) Describes me very well, (3) Describes me, (2) Somewhat describes me and (1) Does not describe me*. Each subscale describes teachers as interventionist, non-interventionist orinteractionist. After scoring certain items inversely, a high score from each subscale indicates interventionism and a low score indicates non-interventionism (Martin et al., 1998; Savran and Çakıroğlu, 2004; Yılmaz, 2009).

The Turkish adaptation of the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Management Inventory was undertaken by Savran (2002). The total variance explained in the two factor structure was 29.60%. The Instructional Management subscale included 12 items whose factor load values varied between .33 and .64 and people management subscale consists of 10 items with factorload values between .46 and .58. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of items on the Instructional Management subscale was .71. In this study, the alpha reliability coefficient for instructional management was .71. The corrected total correlations of items in the Instructional Management subscale varied between .23 and .50. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of items in the People Management subscale was .73. In this study, the alpha reliability coefficient for people management was .70. The corrected total correlations of items in the People Management subscale varied between .31 and .47. Each item is rated on a 4-point Likert scale:*(4) Completely agree, (3) Agree, (2) Disagree and (1) Completely disagree.*In the instructional management dimension, a score between 12-24 was accepted as non-interventionist,between 37-48 as interventionist, and between (25-36) as interactionist. In the people management dimension, a score between 10-20 was accepted as non-interventionist, between 31-40 as interventionist, and between 21-30 as interactionist.

Data analysis

Data were analyzed through descriptive statistics, Chi-Square Test, One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), t-Test for Independent Samples, F Test, and Kruskall Walls Test.

FINDINGS

Subproblem 1: What are the beliefs of preservice elementary teachers on education?

Table 1 shows the distribution of participant's education-

Table 1. Beliefs of preservice elementary teachers on education.

		n	%
Level of educational beliefs	Transfer	43	10,9
	Eclectic	131	33,2
	Progressivist	220	55,8
	Total	394	100,0

Table 2. Preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on education by university.

		University											
		A		B		C		D		E		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Level of educational beliefs	transfer	6	24,0%	5	4,6%	4	4,0%	14	20,9%	14	14,9%	43	10,9%
	eclectic	6	24,0%	27	25,0%	39	39,0%	27	40,3%	32	34,0%	131	33,2%
	progressivist	13	52,0%	76	70,4%	57	57,0%	26	38,8%	48	51,1%	220	55,8%
	Total	25	100,0%	108	100,0%	100	100,0%	67	100,0%	94	100,0%	394	100,0%

X^2=32.598; sd=8; p=0.000*.

Table 3. Preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on education with respect to having studied teaching practice / observation.

		Have you taken a course in teaching practice / observation?					
		Yes		No		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Level of educational beliefs	transfer	40	12,3%	3	4,6%	43	11,0%
	eclectic	101	31,0%	28	43,1%	129	33,0%
	progressivist	185	56,7%	34	52,3%	219	56,0%
	Total	326	100,0%	65	100,0%	391	100,0%

X^2=5.481; sd=2; p=0.065.

related belief levels.

Of the 394 preservice elementary teachers studied, 43 (10.9%) held transfer, 131 (33.2%) held eclectic, and 220 (55.8%) held progressivist educational beliefs.

Subproblem 2: Do preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on education vary with respect to their university, taking the teaching practice/observation course, and school experience/internship?

The chi-square test was used to see whether the university attended made a significant difference in educational beliefs and the results are given in Table 2.

The university attended created a significant difference in educational beliefs (p<0.05). While transfer beliefs were mostly present among the students of Universities D and E, eclectic beliefs were mostly held by those studying at C D, and progressivist beliefs were most notable among students from university B.

The chi-square test was used to see whether taking a teaching practice/observation class made a significant difference in educational beliefs and the results are given in Table 3.

Taking a teaching practice/observation class did not create a difference in students' beliefs on education (p>0.05).

The chi-square test was used to see whether doing an internship at a school made a significant difference in educational beliefs and the results are given in Table 4.

An internship did not create a difference in students' beliefs on education (p>0.05).

Subproblem 3: What are the beliefs of preservice teachers on classroom management?

Descriptive statistics about preservice elementary teachers' classroom management beliefs can be found in Table 5.

Table 4. Preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on education with respect to having completed an internship at a school.

		Have you done an internship at a school?					
		\multicolumn{2}{c}{Yes}	\multicolumn{2}{c}{No}	\multicolumn{2}{c}{Total}
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Level of educational beliefs	transfer	26	12,7%	17	9,0%	43	10,9%
	eclectic	58	28,3%	73	38,6%	131	33,2%
	progressivist	121	59,0%	99	52,4%	220	55,8%
	Total	205	100,0%	189	100,0%	394	100,0%

X^2=5.160; sd=2; p=0.076.

Table 5. The beliefs of preservice teachers on classroom management.

		n	%
Instructional management	Non-interventionist teachers	3	1
	Interactioist teachers	211	54
	Interventionist teachers	180	46
	Total	394	100
PeopleManagement	Non-interventionist teachers	325	82
	Interactionist teachers	69	18
	Total	394	100

In terms of instructional management, the beliefs of preservice teachers on classroom management can be categorized as interventionist, interactionist and non-interventionist with the following percentiles respectively: 46, 54 and 1. However, in terms of people management, the percentiles are 82 and 18 for non-interventionaist and interactionist preservice teachers respectively.

Subproblem 4: Do preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on classroom management vary with respect to their university, taking the teaching practice/observation course, and school experience/internship?

The independent samples t-test was used to see whether the university attended made a significant difference in preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on classroom management and the results are given in Table 6.

The instructional management belief levels of students from university A ($\overline{X}$=38.48) were higher than others. Students from different universities had different instructional management belief levels (p<0.05). This difference occurred between the belief levels of students from university A and universities B, Cand D; and those from university B and universities C and E.

Students from university D had higher people management belief levels ($\overline{X}$=19.76) than others. Students from different universities had different people management belief levels (p<0.05). This difference was between students from university D and those from universities A,

B, C and E.

The independent samples t test was used to see whether taking a teaching practice/observation class made a significant difference in classroom management beliefs and the results are given in Table 7.

Those who did not take a teaching practice/ observation class had higher instructional management belief levels ($\overline{X}$=37.23) than those who did take a class. Those who did not take a class had more interventionist beliefs. The instructional management beliefs of those who did and did not take the teaching practice class differed (p<0.05). However, their beliefs on people management did not vary (p>0.05).

The independent samples t test was used to see whether doing an internship at a school made a significant difference in classroom management beliefs and the results are given in Table 8.

The beliefs on instructional management levels of students who did not do an internship at schools (=36.55) was higher than those who did so. The beliefs on instructional management levels of the two groups of students varied (p<0.05). Those who did not do an internship at schools had more interventionist beliefs than those who did so. However, there was no difference between the beliefs on people management levels of students who did and did not complete their internship (p>0.05).

Table 9 presents the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) results of the comparison of education related

Table 6. Preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on classroom management with respect to the university attended.

		N	Mean	Std. deviation	Kruskall Walls Test	p	Significant difference
Instructional management	University A	25	38,48	4,23	13.284	0,010*	*A – D
	University B	108	35,00	5,12			* A – B
	University C	100	36,42	4,17			*A – C
	University D	67	34,87	4,53			* B – C
	University E	94	36,48	4,25			*B – E
People Management	University A	25	15,60	3,08	38.516	0,000*	* A- D
							* C- D
	University B	108	16,94	3,05			* D- E
	University C	100	17,08	3,92			
	University D	67	19,76	3,67			* B- D
	University E	94	16,32	3,54			

*p<0.05.

Table 7. Preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on education with respect to having studied classroom management.

Have you taken a teaching practice / observation class?		N	Mean	Std. deviation	t	Sd	p
Instructional management	Yes	326	35,64	4,64	-2,555	389	0,011*
	No	65	37,23	4,32			
People management	Yes	326	17,28	3,72	1,080	389	0,281
	No	65	16,74	3,38			

*p<0.05.

Table 8. Preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on education with respect to having completed an internship.

Have you done an internship at a school?		N	Mean	Std. deviation	t	Sd	p
Instructional management	Yes	205	35,32	4,67	-2,658	392	0,008*
	No	189	36,55	4,49			
PeopleManagement	Yes	205	17,49	3,96	1,479	392	0,140
	No	189	16,94	3,39			

*p<0.05.

beliefs of preservice elementary teachers.

Subproblem 5: Do preservice elementary teachers' beliefs on education vary with respect to their classroom management beliefs?

A difference was found between students' instructional management subscale beliefs and their educational beliefs [$F_{(2:285)}$ = 7.382, p<.05]. This difference was between students who held the eclectic education belief and those who held the progressivist education belief. Those who held eclectic beliefs have more of an interventionist orientation than those in the progressivist group. Similarly, significant differences were also found between the beliefs in people management subdimension and educational beliefs [$F(2:285)$= 13.562, p<.05]. All groups had differences. Even though preservice teachers

Table 9. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) results of preservice teachers'beliefs on education with respect to their beliefs on classroom management.

		N	Mean	Std. deviation	F	p	Significant difference
Instructional management	transfer	43	35,88	4,47	7,382	0,001*	* eclectic and progressivist
	eclectic	131	37,12	4,43			
	progressivist	220	35,20	4,63			
	Total	394	35,91	4,62			
People Management	transfer	43	19,35	3,95	13,562	0,000*	* eclectic and progressivist
	eclectic	131	17,76	3,32			
	progressivist	220	16,49	3,67			* eclectic and transfer
	Total	394	17,22	3,70			* progressivist and transfer

may hold different educational beliefs, it may be argued that those who adopted progressivism in the people management dimension of classroom management were more non-interventionist; those who held eclectic educational beliefs were orientated more toward interactionist beliefs than those who held progressivist beliefs; and those who held transfer beliefs adopted the interactionist belief more than others.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings obtained from 394 3rd and 4th year students from the elementary education divisions of five different education faculties within five different public universities located in five different cities, the following conclusions were drawn: Preservice elementary teachers' educational beliefs were as follows: 43 (10.9%) believed in transfer, 131 (33.2%) believed in eclectic education, and 220 (55.8%) believed in progressivism. Preservice elementary teachers' educational belief levels varied by university. On the other hand, their educational belief levels did not vary by having taken a teaching practice/ observation class, and having done an internship at a school.

Considering preservice elementary teachers' classroom management beliefs, they seem to have adopted the interventionist classroom management belief in the instructional management dimension, and then on-interventionist classroom management belief in the people management dimension. The instructional management beliefs of students who did not take a teaching practice/observation class were higher than those who took it. Those in the first group held more interventionist beliefs than those in the second group. The instructional management belief levels of students who did and did not take a teaching practice class also varied. However, their beliefs on people management

levels did not.The instructional management belief levels of students who did and did not an internship varied. The latter held more interventionist beliefs than the former. However, people management beliefs of the two groups of students did not vary.

Considering the effects of preservice elementary teachers' classroom management beliefs on their educational beliefs:

1. A significant difference was found between students' instructional management subscale belief sand their educational beliefs. This difference was between students with eclectic beliefs and those with progressivist educational beliefs. Those who held eclectic beliefs adopted more interventionist instructional management beliefs than those who held progressivist educational beliefs.

2. Similarly, a significant difference was found between students' people management and educational beliefs; all student groups had differences among themselves. Even though preservice teachers may hold different educational beliefs, those who held aprogressivist approach to people management were orientated towards non-interventionism, while those who held the eclectic education belief were orientated more towards interactionism than those who held the progressivist view, and students who held transfer education beliefs adopted the interactionist belief more than those in the other groups.

The results suggest that considering educational beliefs, preservice elementary teachers mostly held progressivist views, followed by eclecticism and only then transfer. These findings are corroborated by the findings of Minor et al. (2002) that being student-centered is scored as number on equality of effective teaching by preservice teachers (Cited in: Parker, 2002). Despite other similarities found in a study by Minor et al. (2002). Okut (2009) found that 26.3% of the teachers were progressivist, 50% eclectic and 23.7% believed in

transfer. Minor et al. (2002) studied 134 preservice teachers and concluded that 12.7% were progressivist, 58.9% eclectic and 28.4% believed in transfer. Conversely, Sang et al. (2009) found that of the 820 classroom teachers within the Chinese education system that they studied, half held traditional education beliefs, followed by constructivist/traditional beliefs, and only slightly more than one fourth believing in pure constructivism.

Educational beliefs of preservice elementary teachers varied by university, taking observation classes or doing an internship did not. Thus, university are effective in educational beliefs. When faced with alternative beliefs, preservice teachers need support in finding contentment, establishing effective relations, and organizing the productive interaction between existing and potential beliefs (Leon-Carillo, 2007). In contrast, Leon-Carillo (2007) gave pre- and post-internship surveys to 89 preservice teachers from 8 different teacher education institutions from the Philippines, and found a positive and meaningful change in their professional views.

The fact that preservice elementary teachers' universities appeared to be an effective variable in educational belief supports hopes that the Holmes group (1995) professional development schools will act as a positive power in teacher education (Cited in: Rats, 2001). Similarly, Sang et al. (2009) found significant differences between the educational beliefs of rural and urban area classroom teachers, and concluded that the region where teachers work can affect their beliefs. This may be thought as parallel to studying at universities located in different regions too. The findings suggested that preservice elementary teachers adopted the interven-tionist classroom management belief in the instructional management dimension, and the non-interventionist classroom management belief in the people management dimension. This finding is in line with the results of previous studies that preservice teachers have interventionist beliefs in the instructional management dimension (Martin et al., 1998; Martin and Yin, 1999; Parker, 2002; Savran and Çakıroğlu, 2004; Ünal and Ünal, 2009; Yılmaz and Çavaş, 2008; Yılmaz, 2009). In the people management dimension, there are previous studies that have found similar results (Martin and Yin, 1999; Savran and Çakıroğlu, 2004; Yılmaz, 2009) while there are also others that have found different results (Yılmaz and Çavaş, 2008; Ünal and Ünal, 2009). Considering the findings concerning the instructional management dimension, preservice teachers can be said to tend to control the management of instructional activities. In classes where the interventionist belief prevails, the teacher is in the center; she is the planner and organizer of classroom conditions, and knows how to use tools and materials for an ideal learning environment. She also decides what is best for students.

In the present study, while observation and internship did not appear to have an effect on people management beliefs, they did affect instructional management significantly. Within the context of urban schools, having limited experiences cause preservice teachers to create images (Gilbert, 1997). Considering that students who did not become involved in observation and internship held more interventionist beliefs, it may be said that the internship component of teacher education programs continues to play an important role in positively affecting preservice teachers'beliefs (Leon-Carillo, 2007).There are certain studies that suggest that preservice teachers are influenced by the teachers working atthe schools where they complete their internships (Kagan, 1992). Conversely, Savran and Çakıroğlu (2004) state that instructional practice is not an effective variable in classroom management attitude and belief levels. There are many previous studies in the literature that corroborate this finding (Martin et al., 2006; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000; Taylor, 2009; Ünal and Ünal, 2009) and others that do not (Ritter and Hancock, 2007; Witcher et al., 2002). As the time spent in the profession increases, controlling approaches start to prevail in the instructional management dimension.

Based on the findings, it may be stated that preservice teachers' classroom management beliefs were different from their educational beliefs. Students with eclectic classroom management beliefs have more interventionist instructional management beliefs thn those who hold progressivist beliefs. Similarly,all groups had differences in the people management dimension. In other words, having different educational beliefs also cause different people management beliefs to preservice teachers. Witcher et al. (2002) also found that teachers with interventionist classroom management beliefs also believed in transfer. Those with non-interventionist class-room management beliefs tend toward progressivism. In the people management dimension of classroom management, those with the progressivist view were more non-interventionist; those with the eclectic view were more interactionist; while those with the transfer view were more interactionist than others.

This study attempted to determine and compare pre service elementary teachers'educational and classroom management beliefs. They have various beliefs on education and classroom management. However, it is not clear what beliefs need to be altered or what beliefs are better. Even if we were, we would not have a way of changing these (Raths, 2001). The beliefs of future teachers will be reflected in their practices; thus, these research results may contribute to teacher education institutions, policy-makers, teachers and school administrators. The most notable limitation of this study has been that the findings are limited to the scales used. In the future, qualitative studies may be conducted to focus on the effects of courses offered by teacher education instituitons in changingor not changing beliefs, and thus contribute to a review of policies.

Conflict of Interests

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

The impact of dictation practice on Turkish as a foreign language learners' writing skills

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The purpose of this study is to learn about the impact of dictation practice on B1 level Turkish as a foreign language learners' writing skills. In this study, a pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design with control group was used. The study was carried out with 24 B1 level students enrolled in Gaziantep University Turkish and Foreign Languages Research and Application Center (TÖMER). Both experimental and control groups consisted of 12 students. The data were analyzed by using both content analysis and descriptive statistics (frequency distribution).The results of the study revealed that students in experimental group made statistically significant gains in terms of word count (25%), vowel spelling mistakes (32%) and consonant spelling mistakes (44.5%). The results of the current study indicated that dictation practices have positive impacts on the ratios of students' perceived word counts and their phonemic perceptions. In the light of these results, some practical recommendations and suggestions to improve TFL learners' listening and writing skills were presented.

Key words: Dictation, Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language, writing skill.

INTRODUCTION

Ezenwosu (2011:19) states, "Dictation practice is transcribing what a teacher says or read immediately after listening. The use of dictation as a valuable language teaching and learning technique has gone through a long history and has been used for centuries all over the world". Hamzadayı and Çetinkaya (2013) state that although this technique is a part of classical teaching method and has been used in teaching for a long time, it is a technique that contains powerful cognitive features. When applying dictation technique, a problem is formed in the minds of the students first. This problem can be considered as cognitive preparation phase for students to get the new information. After posing the problem and increasing students' level of readiness for new learning,

the solution of the problem is given during dictation practice. Thus, it provides students an opportunity to form their cognitive structures or rearrange the potential mistakes. Blanche (2004:179) points out that like audio-lingual method, dictation practices are very old fashioned but they can be effectively used in the classroom to teach pronunciation as well as teaching listening and writing. Morris (1983:126) also accentuates that "Dictation is a test of integrative skills and a most useful tool in listening training and training in self-reliance".

Dictation helps students improve their competencies in the target language they learn. Ezenwosu (2011:19) states, "Dictation ensures attentive listening, concentration and teaches students to write from dictation. It

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equally trains students to distinguish sounds and helps them learn punctuation and develop aural compre-hension". Parallel with Ezenwosu, Whitaker (1976) mentions that besides being a good teaching device for aural comprehension, dictation can also be valid for testing. Similarly, Valette (1964) asserts dictation practices help learners learn the foreign language as follows:

"In the case of the non-native speaker, the dictee introduces two additional factors: discrimination of sounds and general comprehension… Often the dictee is employed not only as a method of examining the student, but often as a means of learning. The students are encouraged to correct their own papers as the teacher repeats difficult sounds, emphasizes sentence structure, stimulates students' awareness of grammatical agreements, and explains the meaning of trouble in some passages (p.431)".

According to Davis and Rinvolucri (1989), dictation contains a wealth of new technique to extend the traditional language learning activity of dictation. The activities range from the traditional focus on spelling and punctuation problems to exercises that emphasize personal attitude and opinions of both teachers and students.

Dictation provides activities suitable for a wide range of levels and ages, example texts for many activities, opportunities for students to create their own texts, and a variety of suggested correction techniques.

Montalvan (1990) lists the advantages of dictation, and the most important ones are as follows:

1. Dictation can help develop all four language skills in an integrative way.
2. As students develop their aural comprehension of meaning and also of the relationship among segments of language, they are learning grammar.
3. Dictation helps to develop short-term memory. Students practice retaining meaningful phrases or whole sentences before writing them down.
4. Practice in careful listening to dictation will be useful later on in note taking exercises.
5. Correcting dictation can lead to oral communication.
6. Dictation can serve as an excellent review exercise.

Along with the benefits of dictation practices, knowing why and how to use dictation practices is also an important factor in using them effectively. Montalvan (1990) claims that most of the teachers do not completely understand the following points about dictation:

1. Where can dictation fit into a program?
2. Why is dictation a good exercise?
3. What objectives should be considered in using dictation in the classroom?

Furthermore, Davis and Rinvolucri (1989) propound some reasons why dictation practices should be used:

a. The students are active during the exercise.
b. Dictation leads to oral communicative activities.
c. Dictation fosters unconscious thinking.
d. Dictation copes with mixed-ability groups.
e. Dictation deals with large groups.
f. Dictation will often calm groups.
g. Dictation is safe for the non-native teacher.
h. Dictation gives access to interesting text.

Sawyer and Silver (1961) proposed four types of dictation practices to be used in language teaching:

a. The phonemic item dictation which consists of the teacher presenting the individual sounds of a language to students for transcription.
b. The phonemic text dictation which consists of the teacher reciting a passage which students phonetically transcribe.
c. The orthographic item dictation which is the dictating of individual words in isolation for transcription, similar to the traditional spelling test.
d. The dictation with the broadest learning possibilities is the orthographic text dictation, in which students transcribe a unified passage (as cited in Alkire, 2002).

Phonemic text dictation is an extended version of phonemic item dictation. It is a technique where teachers read the passage aloud and students phonetically transcribe it. Phonemic item dictation is an effective way to understand the changes in the phonemes. Symbols (letters) do not change in spoken language in Turkish. Phonemic text dictation can be used as an effective technique to make students realize the phonemes and transfer them in their writings; in other words, make them put their theoretical knowledge into practice (Çetinkaya and Hamzadayı, 2014).

Although there are many reasons why dictation should be used in teaching languages, there is only one study, carried out by Çetinkaya and Hamzadayı (2014), about the effect of dictation practices on writing skills in our case that is teaching Turkish as a foreign language. However, many researchers, some of whom were mentioned above, assert that dictation practice is a beneficial teaching-learning device for teaching sentence structure and grammar rules and also teaching listening and writing skills. In this respect, there is a need for the studies on the effect of phonemic text dictation practices on writing skills of Turkish as a Foreign Language (TFL) learners.

Aim

The aim of the present study was to determine the impact of dictation technique on B1 level TFL learners' writing skills. Two research questions were explored for the

Table 1. The home countries of the participants.

Country	n
Syria	11
Iraq	2
Egypt	1
Indonesia	1
Burundi	1
Ghana	3
Zambia	2
Uganda	1
Afghanistan	1
Equatorial Guinea	1
Total	24

Table 2. Gender distribution of the participants.

Gender	n
Female	10
Male	14
Total	24

Table 3. Age groups of the participants.

Age	n
17-22	16
23-28	4
29 and over	4
Total	24

Table 4. Length of stay in Turkey.

Length of stay	n
1-6 months	15
7-12 months	5
1-3 years	2
3 years or over	2
Total	24

purpose of this study:

1. Are there any statistically significant differences in the number of perceived words between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental and control groups?
2. Are there any differences in terms of phonemic mistakes between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental and control groups?

Limitations of the study

The current study is limited to the foreign students learning Turkish at B1 level at Gaziantep University Turkish and Foreign Languages Research and Application Center during 2014 spring term.

METHOD

In this section, study design, participants, data collection process and data analysis are presented.

Study design

This study employed a quasi-experimental study with pretest-posttest control group design in order to determine the effectiveness of dictation technique over the number of perceived words by TFL learners and their ability in distinguishing Turkish phonemes. Experimental studies are carried out to measure the effectiveness of a technique. Participants are given a test both before and after the experiment, so as to test the effect of the independent variable on dependent variable (Büyüköztürk, 2007:19). So, in the present study, a quasi-experimental study design was used to investigate the impact of dictation technique on writing skills.

Participants

The participants of this study were 24 TFL learners at B1 level. They were randomly assigned into two groups, experimental and control. Table 1 shows the demographic profile of the participants, including their home countries, gender, age and years of learning.

As seen in the table, totally 24 students from 10 different countries including Egypt, Indonesia, Burundi, Uganda, Afghanistan, Equatorial Guinea, Iraq, Zambia, Ghana and Syria participated in this study. Because of the civil war in Syria, there were many Syrian students in TÖMER, so each group had more Syrian students.

Table 2 presents the gender distribution of the participants of the current study. 10 female and 14 male students participated in this study.

The age distribution of the participants is presented in Table 3. As seen in the table most of the students were between 17-22 years (n=16), four were between 23-28 years and four between 29 years or older.

Table 4 shows the distributions of the participants' length of stay in Turkey. As to the participants' length of stay in Turkey, 15 of the participants indicated they have been in Turkey for one to six months, 5 have been in Turkey for seven to twelve months, 2 have been in Turkey for one to three years and 2 have been in Turkey for over three years.

Procedure

In the treatment process, a standard dictation procedure was implemented. In the first stage, as for the pretest, the teacher read aloud a 106-word passage, entitled Health and Sports, and the students dictated the passage. No feedback or correction was provided; after the first dictation the papers of the participants were

Table 5. The differences between pretest and posttest scores of experimental and control groups in terms of perceived word counts.

Experimental group	Pretest perceived word counts	Posttest perceived word counts	Change n / %	Control group	Pretest perceived word counts	Posttest perceived word counts	Change n / %
E1	77	106	29 (28%)	C1	105	95	-20 (-10%)
E2	34	105	71 (67%)	C2	90	80	-10 (-9%)
E3	90	106	16 (15%)	C3	80	74	-6 (-6%)
E4	75	102	27 (26%)	C4	82	72	-10 (-10%)
E5	100	106	6 (6%)	C5	80	90	10(9%)
E6	86	106	20 (19%)	C6	101	76	-25 (-24%)
E7	63	106	43 (41%)	C7	100	91	-9 (-9%)
E8	76	106	30 (29%)	C8	86	89	3 (2%)
E9	102	106	4 (4%)	C9	96	90	-6 (-6%)
E10	86	100	14 (13%)	C10	77	84	7(7%)
E11	70	103	33 (31%)	C11	105	90	-15 (-15%)
E12	82	105	23 (22%)	C12	99	92	-7 (-7%)
General Average	78	104	26 (25%)	General Average	91	85	-6(-5%)

collected. The study was carried out for 10 weeks for a course period (40 min) each week. Each week students were given new passages to be dictated. The passages used in the study were chosen from Yeni Hitit Turkish for Foreigners B1 Course book by taking the students' common interests into account. In each session, the number of the words in the passage was gradually increased.

First, the selected passages were read aloud slowly enough for the experimental group to understand and to make them familiar with the text to be dictated. During the first read-aloud session, the students just listened to the teacher. Then, it was read in chunks with pauses between each chunk and the students wrote down what they heard. Finally, it was read at normal speed again. This time the students reviewed their writing to restore any missing parts. The students' writings were collected and corrected by the researcher and were given back to the students in the next session and they were asked to check their mistakes and examine corrected forms.

After a 10-week implementation period, the 106-word passage, entitled Health and Sports, was dictated again as posttest. The papers were collected without any correction.

Data collection and analysis

The data for the present study were collected through dictation of the passage, entitled "Health and Sports". With an aim to find answers to the research questions, the numbers of the words perceived and written correctly were calculated for each student's dictation both in the pretest and posttest. Content analysis and frequency analysis were implemented. Then, phonemic mistakes, specifically the most mistakenly dictated phonemes, were presented.

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

This section presents the results of the pretest and posttest analysis and their interpretations in the frame of the research questions.

The findings related to the first research question:

The first question of the study was "Are there any statistically significant differences in the number of perceived words between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental and control groups?". To answer this question a pretest and a posttest were applied to both experimental and control groups. The change ratios of their perceived word counts are given in Table 5.

As can be clearly seen in Table 5, while experimental group students' average number of perceived word was 78 in pretest, it increased to 104 in the posttest. In other words, a 25 percent increase in the number of the words they perceived in dictation tests. On the other hand, while control group students' average number of perceived word was 91, interestingly it decreased to 85 in the posttest. That is to say, there was a 5 percent decrease in the number of the words they perceived in the posttest. This shows that control group students who did not receive dictation treatment showed a decline in their perceived word counts within the process. This clearly reveals that teaching a foreign language without dictation practices can cause some loss even in students' previous learning.

The findings related to the second research question:

The second question for the current study was "Are there any differences in terms of phonemic mistakes between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental and control groups?". To answer this question, the number of phonemic mistakes in pretest and posttest were compared. The results and changes are presented in Table 6.

Comment [u1]: I explained it in the discussion part and added it to the evaluation form.

Table 6. The differences between pretest and posttest scores of experimental and control groups in terms of phonemic mistakes.

	Pretest		Posttest		Change %	
	Exp.	Control	Exp.	Control	Exp.	Control
Vowel substitution mistakes	345	189	235	231	32%	-22%
confusion between <ı> and <i>	94	45	70	40	26%	12%
confusion between <a> and <e>	42	11	30	18	18.5%	-63%
confusion between <e> and <i>	52	26	38	36	17%	-38%
confusion among o, ö, u, ü and o, ö, u, ü	51	44	35	38	31.5%	14%
Other vowel mistakes	36	38	22	40	39%	-5%
Vowel omission	70	25	40	59	43%	-136%
Consonant substitution	153	103	85	122	44.5%	-18%
confusion between <m> and <n>	10	11	2	11	80%	Ø
confusion between <p> and <b>	10	14	6	15	40%	-7%
confusion between <ç> and <c>	11	16	7	13	36.5%	19%
confusion between <s> and <z>	6	9	4	6	33.4%	33.4%
confusion between <l> and <r>	6	4	3	5	50%	-25%
Other consonant mistakes	25	14	17	17	32%	-21%
Consonant omission	85	35	46	55	46%	-57%

When we consider Table 6 about the phonemic mistakes we can see that there is a 32 percent improvement in favor of experimental group in terms of their vowel substitution mistakes; in contrary to experimental group, there is a 22 percent regression in the posttest. It was determined that the most vowel substitution mistake occurred between <ı> and <i>. This mistake most probably stems from the lack of some Turkish phonemes as a letter in their native languages. After dictation practices, the number of <ı><i> substitution mistake decreased from 94 to 70 in the experimental group while it decreased from 45 to 40 in the control group. In other words, when compared to control group the decrease in the number of <ı><i> substitution mistake in experimental group was higher; it was observed that there was a 14 percent difference between the change ratios.

When <a><e> substitution mistake was examined, there was a positive result in favor of control group in pretest, which was 11 mistakes for control group and 42 mistakes in experimental group; whereas the experimental group showed a 18.5 percent improvement on one hand, the control group showed a 63 percent decline on the other.

The findings related to <e><i> substitution mistake was similar to that of <a><e> substitution mistake in favor of control group. The experimental group showed a 17 percent improvement while the control group showed a 38 percent decline in their posttest scores.

When it comes to <o><ö><u><ü> substitution mistakes, a 31.5 percent improvement in favor of experimental group was observed in their posttests. A 39 percent improvement in other vowel substitution mistakes in favor of experimental group was observed.

As to the vowel omission, the study group showed a 43 percent improvement while the control group showed a 136 percent decline. When both groups' vowel sound mistakes were examined in general, it was seen that the largest difference between the study group and control groups was in the amount of vowel omission (179%). Similarly, after dictation practices, study group showed a 44.5 percent improvement in the consonant spelling mistakes; whereas control group showed an 18 percent decrease in their mistakes.

This reveals that the control group, who did not have any dictation practices during the study showed a great decline in terms of the numbers of both vowel and consonant substitution mistakes. From another angle, we can say that this clearly reveals that teaching, specifically foreign language teaching, without dictation practices causes serious losses even in students' pre-learning.

According to the pretest results, the most substituted consonants were <ç>and <c> in both groups. When the pretest results of the experimental group were examined, it was found that <m><n> phonemes were substituted 10 times, <p><b> were substituted 10 times, <s><z> and <l><r> were 6 times. However, at the end of the study, it was observed that these substitution mistakes decreased in favor of the experimental group. Similar findings were also found for other consonant substitution mistakes. The experimental group had 25 substitution mistakes in the pretest, but in the posttest, it was observed that they showed a 32 percent improvement.

When the omission of the consonants was examined, the experimental group also showed a 46 percent improvement after the treatment. Similar findings were also reported by Çetinkaya and Hamzadayı (2014).

To conclude, it was determined that the experimental group showed a marked improvement not only in vowel

substitution mistakes but also in consonant substitution mistakes. This is an important and clearer indicator of how much dictation practices can help students in their correct use of vowels and consonants in the target language.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the results of the study are given and some suggestions are proposed in the light of the findings.

Results

The present study investigated the impact of dictation practices on B1 level TFL learners' writing skills. Within this frame, depending on the findings of the study, results are presented below:

1. The number of the study group's perceived word was increased from 78 to 104 after the experiment. On the other hand, while the number of the control group's perceived word was 91 in the pretest, it decreased to 85 in the posttest.
2. Both groups made more vowel mistakes than consonant mistakes. While the number of the experimental group's vowel spelling mistakes was 345 in the pretest, it decreased to 235 after dictation practices. As to the control group, they made 189 vowel spelling mistakes in the pretest and they made 231 mistakes in the posttest.
3. While the number of the experimental group's consonant spelling mistakes was 153 in the pretest, it decreased to 85 after the treatment. As for the control group, they made 103 consonant spelling mistakes in the pretest and they made 122 mistakes in the posttest.

Although the current study could be regarded as the first attempt to measure the effects of dictation activities over TFL learners' writings at phonemic level, there are certain points that need to be considered. The researcher acknowledges two shortcomings concerning the current study. First of all, as was mentioned earlier, most of the participants were of Arabic origin; therefore some results may have stemmed from L1 interference since the Arabic language does not have the /p/ phoneme in its inventory. The same can be claimed for the participants from south eastern countries. Actually, their language lacks the equivalent of the phoneme <ç> in Turkish.

Second point worth mentioning is the quantitative difference between the two groups at the pre-test stage. It is clear that the control group performed better than the experimental group at the initial stage, and at the post-test stage this situation seemed to have changed in favor of the experimental group. This shift is quite interesting

for a quasi-experimental study. The reasons of this shift could be both qualitatively and quantitatively; however, these points need to be analyzed as primary concerns of further studies.

Suggestions

1. In teaching Turkish as a foreign language context, dictation practices should be frequently used specifically teaching at basic levels when teaching phonemes and their written symbols, vowel and consonant sound rules (haplology, consonant assimilation, consonant harmony, etc.); when teaching at upper levels, it should also be used at intervals.
2. To improve TFL learners writing skills and help them be able to understand the words and discriminate the sounds in a word, dictation practice could be regarded as an alternative technique to be included not only in class activities but also in course books.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

The comparison of teaching process of first reading in USA and Turkey

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The aim of this study is to compare the teaching process of early reading in the US to in Turkey. This study observes developing early reading of students, their reading miscues, and compares early reading process of students in the US and to early reading process of students in Turkey. This study includes the following research question: What are the similarities and differences between the teaching process of first reading in the US and in Turkey? In this study, we used scanning method and observation technique. We collected information about students' learning process of reading. The study was systematic and natural observation. Over an eight month period, the data were collected on ten variables related to oral reading development for both Turkish and American elementary school first grade students: skipping oral reading, oral reading by adding, oral reading by repeating, oral reading by following, posture, position of book, volume of voice, oral reading rate, reading expression of punctuation, and breathing control. The results of the study were given as oral reading skills. When observed in terms of skipping oral reading, oral reading by adding, posture, position of book, oral reading by repeating, it was found that they had a success over 90%, and they showed similarity in general. When we study other oral reading skills, we identified significant differences. It can contribute to the field to assert the oral reading skills of the students with the comparisons of different countries, and to provide solution offers.

Key words: Reading miscues, first reading process, teaching Turkish Language, Teaching English Language.

INTRODUCTION

Reading is a learning domain, which provides the biggest contribution to the mental development. Reading is a sense-making process consisted of such various operations of eye, sound and brain as seeing perceiving, vocalizing, constructing in the mind, and understanding pictures, words, sentences, punctuation marks and other elements (TDK, 1981; Oğuzkan 1987; Güleryüz, 2001; MEB and TTKB, 2005; Akyol, 2006). Reading is the analysis and making-sense of written symbols (Heilman

et al., 1967). According to constructivist approach, reading is a process in which prior knowledge is integrated with the knowledge in the text, and the meaning is given once again (Güneş, 2013).

Reading and writing is an important skill in success in school life and social life of an individual (Akyol and Temur, 2008). Learning to read is a significant milestone for children. The reading skill is the base for children's academic success. It can be seen that children who

have difficulty in reading in the first few years of their school life progress slowly in their academic life (Kuo et al., 2004). Learning occurs substantially by reading (Ünalan, 2006). It starts at elementary school first grade to gain this skill as required; on the other hand, it lasts lifelong to use and develop the skill (Akyol and Temur, 2008). The students who do not have reading habit aand cannot understand what they read cannot be expected to improve their vocabulary and to gain new experiences (Ünalan, 2006). Also, reading affects the way individuals question themselves and percieve the world. Children strengthen their memory by reading objects, texts, words and letters (Freire, 1983).

Reading is seperated into six types: visual reading, silent reading, interrogative reading, reading by sharing and indpendent reading. One of these reading types is oral reading. Oral reading is the process of seeing the writing, expressing the words, finding the images and meaning of the words in mental dictionary, vocalizing with the help of speech organs, and understanding (Güneş, 2013; Kavcar et al., 1995). In oral reading, there is need to understand the text, to make emphasis and intonation suitable for the content and to pay attention to the punctuation marks (Dökmen, 1994). In oral reading, each word is read. The speech speed of the speaker limits his/her reading speed (Güleryüz, 2001). Oral reading makes students to learn reading and gain listening habit; and reading states to be identified (Güneş, 2013).

Reading is that written symbols analyzed and given a meaning. When an individual reaches a meaning, she/he starts to learn. Reading is a long process. Analyzing, understanding, interpreting are gained in time. In order to gain these skills properly, it is important to obviate reading miscues on time. Reading miscues are the factors preventing or retarding the process of analyzing and understanding the symbols.The factors preventing gaining reading skill are given in Figure 1 (Heilman, 1967, Cited by: Arslan, 2008). With this study, all these factors give an idea about how children improve their reading aloud skills in classroom.

Reading is a process for children like sampling, predicting, and confirming (Buke, 1981). Many tools are used for analyzing oral reading. Farr (1969) examined children's reading errors skills in categories, such as word attack fluency, voice volume, and posture. Miscues analysis is important for reading process (Goodman, 1969). Miscue is renamed errors which deviate from writing text during oral reading (Ruddell, 1999). Goodman and Burke (1972) analyzed children's reading miscues. They found the rate of miscues depends on how the reader's language is exhibited (Buke, 1981). Readers use cue system in reading process during reading: gropho-phonic, syntactic, and semantic. For understanding of reading process, this cue system is very important. For children's conflict as a cognitive, they create more miscues during the oral reading (O'Brien de Ramirez, 2008). According to Davenport (2002) children often show alterations, omission, insertion, repetition etc., to the text during their reading.   Ediger (2003) claimed children make miscues, such as omitting words, sub-stituting words, mispronouncing some words. Readers' miscues are defined under four groups, which are substitution, insertion, omission, and mispronunciation (Otto, 2008). Seymour et al. (2003) evaluated reading miscues throughout different languages: English, Danish, Portuguese, and French. In these languages students showed substitution miscues and non-word production. Similarly, this study examined what students did as oral reading miscues between English and Turkish languages. In this study, we emphasize oral reading miscues in first reading. First grade students' oral reading miscues were examined in terms of ten variables miscues: skipping oral reading, oral reading by adding, oral reading by repeating, oral reading by following, posture, position of book, volume of voice, oral reading rate, reading expression of punctuation, and breathing control.

Importance of the study

The teaching of first reading and writing is the fundamental part of teaching activities. No development can be done without learning how to read and write. Also, the quality of teaching first reading and writing affects the success at school. UNESCO emphasizes that reading and writing is a fundamental need and, necessary for people to continue their existence, to develop their capacities, to live and work honorably, to participate in progress, to come up in the world, to make logical decisions, and to continue to learn (Şenol, 1998). For this reason, many countries make researches on how to teach first reading and writing effectively. In the world, most of the researches on teaching of first reading and writing have focused on the methods. They have tried to identify which method is the most effective over many years. This understanding has changed nowadays (Güneş, 2007). In recent years, fundamental changes have been performed on elementary school programs. The most important of them is Elementary School Turkish Lesson (1-5 Grades) Curriculum. With the new curriculum, there have been important changes. First, phoneme based sentence methods have been used instead of sentence method in the teaching of first reading and writing. On the other hand, teaching of first reading and writing starts with italic handwriting instead of perpendicular basic letters. Since the teaching process of first reading and writing is the basis of education, it is really important to observe the studies abroad in this field; to compare them to studies in our country and to offer new solutions.

The aim of the study

The aim of this study is to compare the teaching process of first reading in the US and Turkey. This study observes
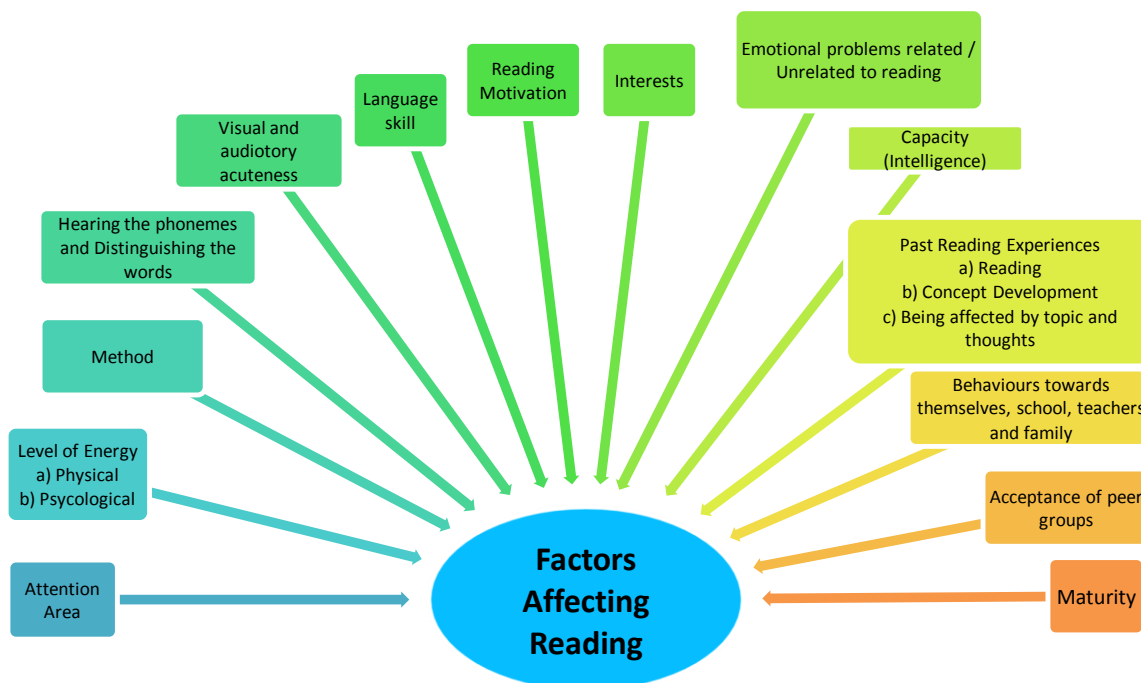
Figure 1. Factors Affecting Reading (Heilman, 1967, Cited by Arslan, 2008).

developing first reading of students, their reading miscues, and compare to first reading process of students in the US and Turkey. This study includes the following research question:

What are the similarities and differences between the teaching process of first reading in the US and Turkey?

Limitation of the study

This study was limited to 2 first grade students. In both countries, socioeconomic status of students selected was similar. Furthermore, the study was limited to 2 languages (English and Turkish). In this study we observed only one elementary school first grade classes' students in Ankara city within 2010-2011 academic year. Also, we observed only one class in Okemos city within 2011-2012 academic year. Our observations only consisted of oral reading miscues.

METHOD

In this study, we used scanning method and observation technique. We gathered information about students' learning process of reading. The study was systematic and natural observation. We never interfered during observations. The data gained as a result of the observations were saved on the forms developed before in directions of the experts.

Participants

In this study, participants were two first grade classes' students,

randomly selected, in both countries. In US, 22 students participated and in Turkey, **30 students** participated in this study. We selected similar school neighborhoods in terms of students' income status. Among observed students in the scope of the research, 1 Turkish and 2 American students are neglected because of the fact that they cannot read. In the scope of the research, 20 American and 29 Turkish students were observed over 8 months and observation results were recorded on the forms.

Universe and samples: Because the aim of the research needs various types of universe and samples, universe suitable for the conditions of the country and sample that can represent the universe will be identified. The universe of the study consists of elementary school first graders in US in 2011-2012 Educational Terms. The sample of the study consists of elementary school first graders –who are randomly selected- in Okemos City, Michigan, US in 2011-2012 Educational Terms.

Procedures

Collection of the data

We used various data collection tools during collection, evaluation and tabulation of the data. Development, application of the data collection tools, recording the data on tables and figure chart were held in order. During data collection process, firstly we got permissions for the study and then we had information about the students, the teachers and the related institutions. To answer problems and sub problems of the study, we observed -in order- the students' learning process of first reading and writing during the eight months, first oral reading miscues.

Students' learning process of first reading, oral reading miscues were identified with observation forms: Oral reading skill observation form. The variables in these forms are given in Table 1. We coded students learning reading prose by these forms. Coding results were given as percentages for comparison of both countries.

Table 1. Oral reading skill observation form.

1.	Skipping Oral Reading
2.	Oral Reading by Adding
3.	Oral Reading by Repeating
4.	Oral Reading by Following
5.	Posture
6.	Position of Book
7.	Volume of Voice
8.	Oral Reading Speed
9.	Reading Expression of Punctuation
10.	Breathing Control

Measures

For the analysis of the data, we made tables and figure for the data about oral reading skills of the students by using SPSS. Then the data from the observation of oral reading miscues of the students learning first reading and writing were analyzed by using SPSS.

Oral reading skill observation form was used for evaluation of students. This form was developed according to experts' opinions used to observe oral reading miscues of the students. In this form, in order to determine the miscues during oral reading, we conducted the observation according to ten variables.

RESULTS

Results of the study were given as oral reading skills. Over an eight month period, the data were collected on ten variables related to oral reading development for both Turkish and American elementary school first grade students; skipping oral reading, oral reading by adding, oral reading by repeating, oral reading by following, posture, position of book, volume of voice, oral reading rate, reading expression of punctuation, and breathing control.

Skipping oral reading

We observed first grade students' skipping during oral reading (which were coded as: letter, syllable or word skipping and line jumping or regular oral reading). Figure 2 shows the findings.

Figure 2 shows that, at the beginning of November, 27 Turkish students (93%) and 22 American students (100%) read with regular oral reading (i.e., not skipping). The trend line for Turkish students remains the same until April, when the percent of regular oral reading increased upward and reached a ceiling of 100% in May.

Conversely, in the beginning of November, 2 Turkish students (7%) read with letter, syllable or word skipping. This rate was maintained through March, when the skipping decreased downward in April to a floor of 0% in

May. As both sets of trend lines indicate, Turkish and American students achieved 100% regular oral reading by May. At the end of the observation, both countries can be considered successful in terms of students' skills in oral reading. When analyzing the figures in general, first grade students of both countries were seen to be successful in terms of regular oral reading.

Oral reading by adding

We observed first grade students adding (rather than skipping) during oral reading (which were coded as: letter, syllable or word adding and adding sentence or regular oral reading). Figure 3 shows the findings.

Figure 3 shows that Turkish and American first graders did not add letters, syllables, words or sentences during oral reading. One hundred percent of those observed read normally and oral reading was similar between Turkish and American students.

Oral reading by repeating

We observed first grade students' repetition during oral reading (which were coded as: letter, syllable or word repeating and sentence repeating or regular oral reading). Figure 4 shows the findings.

Figure 4 shows that, in the beginning of November, 18 Turkish students (62%) were engaged in regular oral reading and 14 American students (70%) did the same. The trend line for Turkish students and American students did not repeat during the oral reading until the end of February. After February, the American students increased in speed in comparison to the regular oral reading rates of 75 to 95% until March; the Turkish students increased slowly in comparison to the regular oral reading rate from 62 to 93% until May.

In the beginning of November that 11 of Turkish students (38%) engaged in regular oral reading and 6 American students (30%) did the same. American students' letter, syllable or word, repeating rates experienced a rapid decline from February to March; the ratio decreased from 30 to 5%. Turkish students' letter, syllable or word repeating rates experienced a slow decline from February to May; the ratio decreased from 38 to 7%. The students were not observed adding a sentence during the oral reading.

In the examination of the figures in general, first grade students of the two countries have been repeating approximately 30-38% during oral reading letter, syllable or word, at the beginning of academic year. By the end of the year, the ratio was decreased approximately to 5-7%. According to these results, when first grade students learned oral reading, the oral reading is determined by letter, syllable or word repeating.
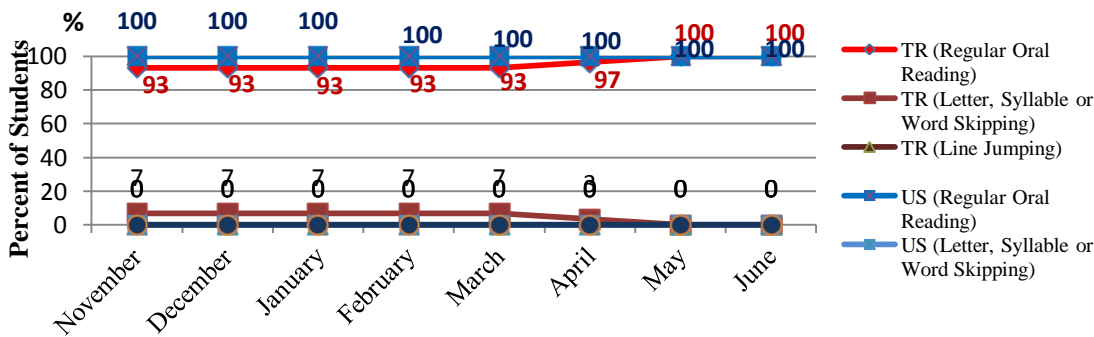
Figure 2. Skipping oral reading.
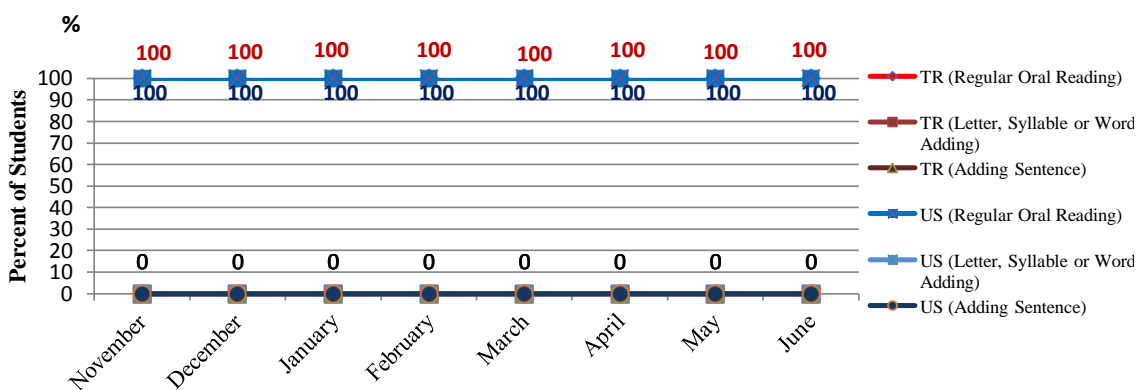
Figure 3. Oral reading by adding.
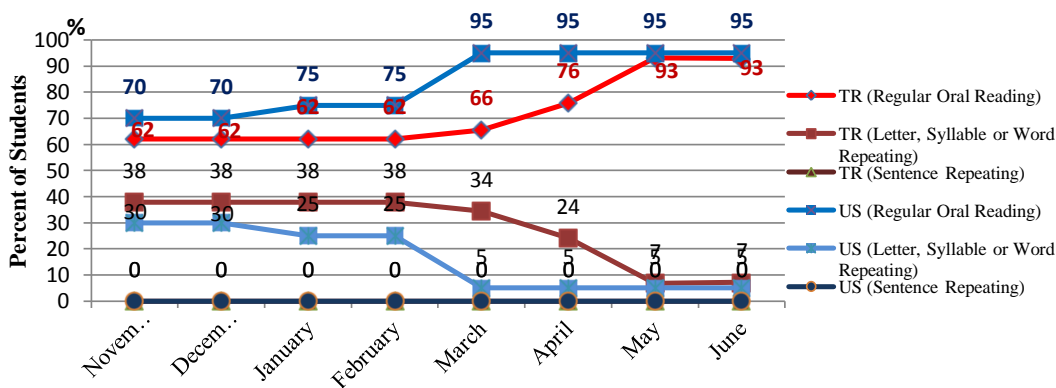
Figure 4. Oral reading by repeating.

Oral reading by following

We observed first grade students during oral reading used finger, hand or arm for tracking; and ruler, pencil etc. for tracking or regular oral reading. Figure 5 shows the findings.

Figure 5 shows that, in the beginning of November, 5

Turkish students (17%) and 8 American students (40%) read with regular oral reading. American students' regular oral reading rates decrease in March from 50 to 35%, and then the rate increases from 35% in April to 60% in May. The trend line for Turkish students remained the same until March, when the percent of regular oral reading increased upward, from 17 to 62% in June.

Figure 5. Oral reading by following.

Furthermore, while 12 American students (60%) used their finger, hand or arm for tracking, 22 Turkish students (76%) did the same in November. The trend line for Turkish students remained the same until March and American student's rate decreased from 60 to 45% until January. After the decline 38% of Turkish students and 40% of American students read with finger, hand or arm for tracking in June.
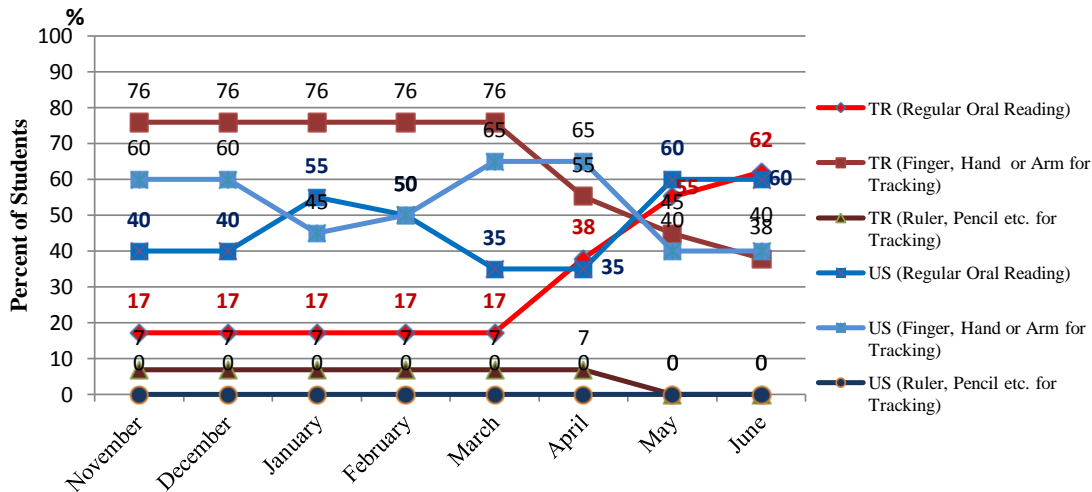
While none of the American students read by oral reading by following a ruler, pencil etc. for tracking during the academic year, 7% Turkish students read by oral reading following a ruler, pencil etc. for tracking from November to April. The trend line for Turkish students decreases downward in April to a floor of 0% in May.

By March, there was a rapid increase in the rate of regular readers. Oral reading by following finger, hand or arm for tracking; and ruler, pencils etc. for tracking was in sharp decline. At the beginning of the academic year, Turkish students' being higher finger, hand or arm for tracking rates can be explained as follows. Turkey has a low rate of enrollment in kindergarten, and students begin learning first reading and writing in first grade.

As Figure 5 indicates oral reading by following "finger, hand, arm, pencil or ruler etc. for tracking" results in different findings for Turkey and US. As the observation concluded, while 83% of the Turkish students use tracking by finger, hand, arm, pencil or ruler etc. during the oral reading at the beginning of academic year, 12 American students (60%) use them. It was observed that at the end of the academic year, Turkish students (45%), and 20% American students decrease use of finger, hand, arm, pencil or ruler etc. for tracking. According to observation results, 11 Turkish students (38%) and 8 American students (40%) continue tracking finger, hand, arm, pencil or ruler etc. in oral reading. As a conclusion, the percentage of tracking while doing oral reading for

Turkish students dropped from 83 to 38%, while that of American students changed from 60 to 40% at the end of the academic year. Results of this observation are subject to further research.

Posture

We observed first grade students' posture during oral reading (which were coded as: very hunch or lean back, irregular [front or rear waggle] or regular posture). Figure 6 shows the findings.

Figure 6 shows that 20 of American students (100%) had regular posture during the oral reading, 16 Turkish students (55%) had regular posture during the oral reading at the beginning of the academic year. The trend line for Turkish students (55% to 93%) remained the same until March, when the percent of regular posture during oral reading increased upward, from 16 to 27 in May.

Conversely, starting in November, while 0% of American student during the oral reading regular posture, 24% of Turkish students during the oral reading with very hunch or lean back. This rate was maintained through March, when the very hunched or lean back rate decreased downward in April to 7% in May.

In the beginning of November, while 0% of American student during the oral reading had regular posture, 21% of Turkish students during the oral reading had irregular posture [front or rear waggle]. This rate was maintained through March, when the irregular [front or rear waggle] rate decreased downward in April to a floor of 0% in May.

Position of book

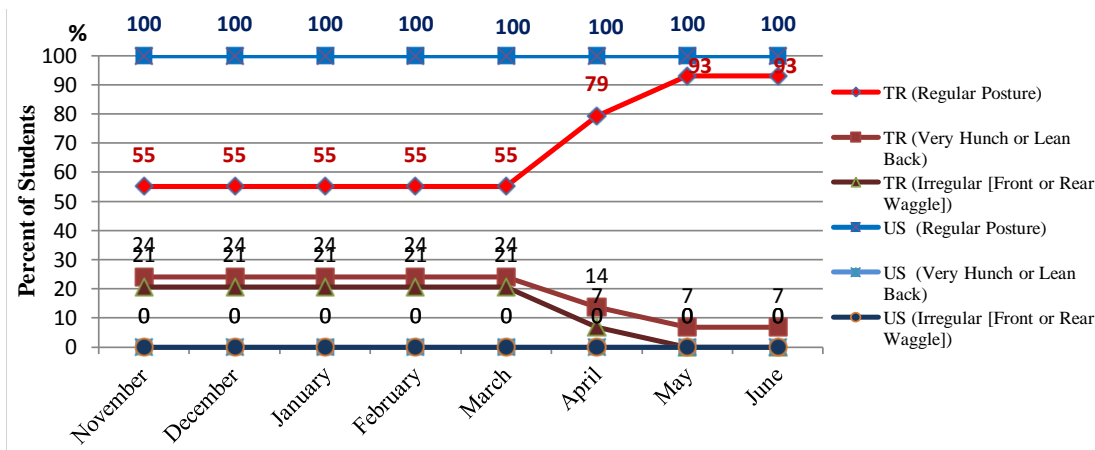We observed first grade students' position of book during
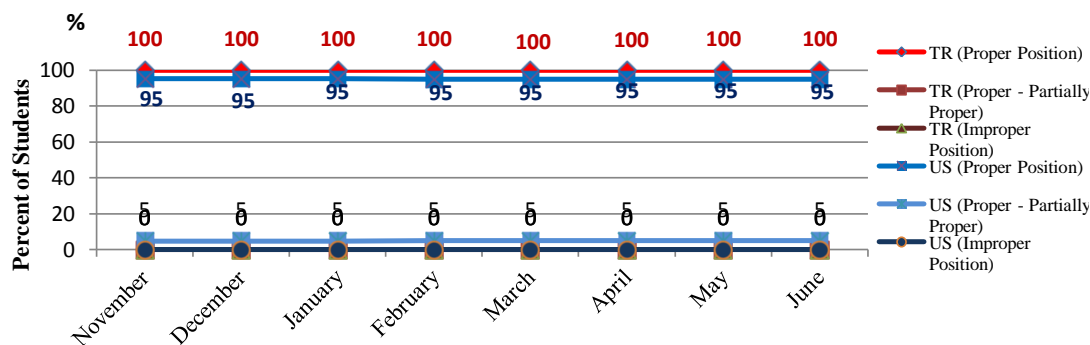
Figure 6. Posture.

Figure 7. Position of book.

oral reading (which were coded as: proper - partially proper and improper position or proper position. Figure 7 shows the findings.

Figure 7 shows that 29 Turkish students (100%) and 19 American students' (95%) position of book was proper during the oral reading at the beginning of the academic year. American students' position of the book was in the proper - partially proper way in February.

Volume of voice

We observed first grade students' voices during oral reading (which were coded as: very loud or very quiet, irregular volume or regular voice). Figure 8 shows the findings.

Figure 8 shows that, in the beginning of November, 10 Turkish students (34%) and 16 American students (80%) during the oral reading had regular voice. The trend line for Turkish students remained the same until March, when the percent of regular voice increased upward, from 34 to 83% in June. American students' regular voice

rates increase from 80 to 90% between December and March, to 85% in April before returning to 90% in June.

Furthermore, while 10% of Turkish students and 20% of American students were very loud or very quiet in November. The trend line for Turkish students remained the same until April, and then decreased to 3% in May. American students' rates decreased from 20 to 15% in December and February. While none of the American students read with irregular volume during the academic year, 55% of Turkish students read with irregular volume from November to March, before the rate decreased to 10% in May.

By March, there was a rapid increase in the rate of regular readers. Oral reading was very loud or very quiet and irregular volume was in sharp decline. At the beginning of the academic year, Turkish students being very loud or very quiet and irregular volume rates can be explained as follows: Turkey has a low rate of enrollment in kindergarten, and students begin learning first reading and writing in 1st grade.

Adjustment volume of the voice in oral reading for American students changed from 80 to 90% in positive
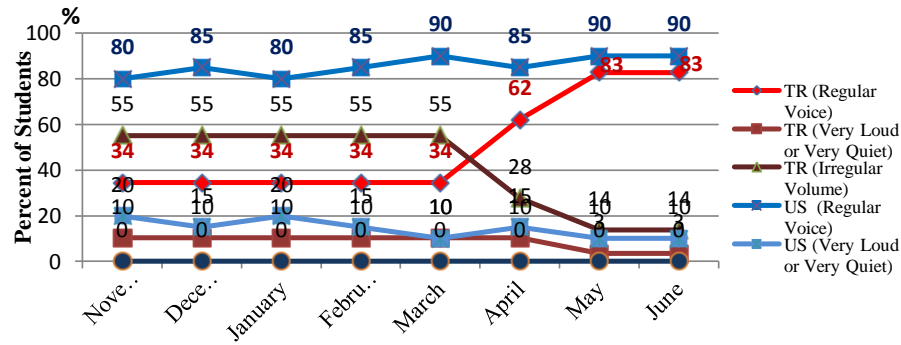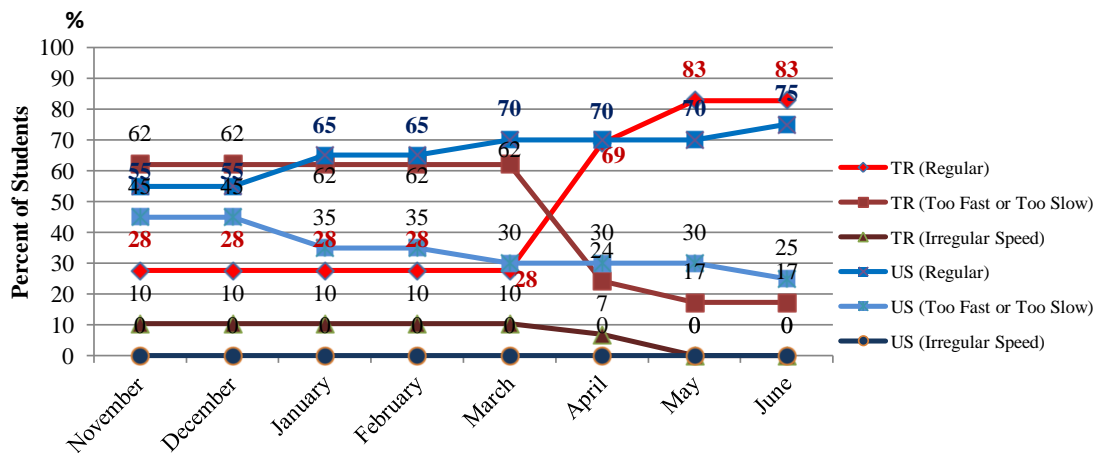
Figure 8. Volume of voice.

Figure 9. Oral reading speed.

way during the observation period. The change for Turkish students' adjustment of oral reading volume was more significant. It changed from 34 to 83% through positive way. While advancement for American students was 10%, it was 49% for Turkish students in the same time period.

Oral reading speed

We observed first grade students' speed during oral reading (which were coded as: too fast or too slow, irregular speed or regular speed). Figure 9 shows the findings.

Figure 9 shows that, in the beginning of November, 8 Turkish students (28%) and 11 American students (55%) had regular speed in oral reading. The trend line for Turkish students remained the same until March, when the percent of regular speed in oral reading increased from 8 (28%) in March to 24 (83%) in June. American students' regular oral reading rates increase from 11 (55%) in December to 13 (65%) in January, after

which regular oral reading rates increased from 13 (65%) in February to 14 (70%) in March, and finally reach 15 (75%) in June.

The cases of students' oral reading too fast or too slow in November were 18 for Turkish students, 62% and 9 for American students (45%). The rate of American students reading too fast or too slow decreased from 9 (45%) in December to 7 (35%) in January. The rate of Turkish students' oral reading too fast or too slow declined from March to May, with the rate decreasing from 18 (62%) to 5 (17%). The rate of American students' oral reading too fast or too slow decreased from 7 (35%) in February to 5 (25%) in June.

In November, none of the American students had irregular oral reading speed, while 10% of Turkish students had irregular oral reading speed. Turkish students' rate of irregular oral reading speed was maintained through March, and then decreased to 0% by May.

Throughout the time advancement in oral reading speed for American students was observed as 55 to 75%, advancement for Turkish students was from 28 to 83%. Improvement in regular oral reading speed rate for
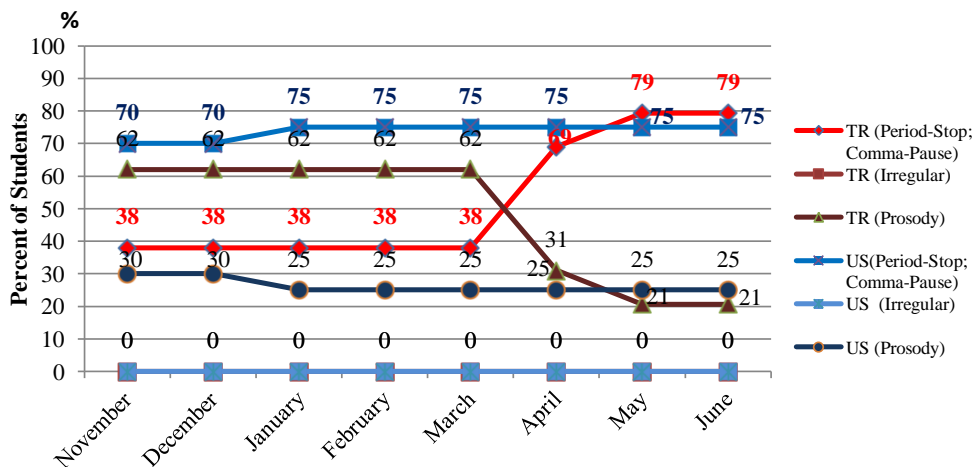
Figure 10. Reading expression or punctuation.

American students was 20 and 55% for Turkish students.

This significant advancement of Turkish students can be explained by the structure of Turkish Language. Since Turkish is a phonetic language, it facilitates learning first reading. Turkish students first learn reading and writing in 6 months to 1 year. It takes 2 to 3 years for American students.

Reading expression or punctuation

We observed first grade students' expressions or punctuation during oral reading (which were coded as: period-stop; comma-pause, prosody or irregular). Figure 10 shows the findings.

Figure 10 shows that, in the beginning of November, 11 Turkish students (38%) and 14 American students (70%) had period-stop; comma-pause in oral reading. The trend line for Turkish students remained the same until March, when the percent of period-stop; comma-pause in oral reading increased upward and spanned from 11 (38%) in March to 23 (79%) in June. American students' period-stop; comma-pause oral reading rates increase from 14 (70%) in December to 15 (75%) in January, and this rate remained the same until June.

Conversely, in the beginning of November, while 6 American students (30%) exhibited prosody during oral reading, 18 Turkish students (62%) demonstrated prosody during oral reading. This rate of Turkish students was maintained through March, when the prosody rate decreased downward from 62 to 21% in May. American students' prosody rates decreased from 30% in December to 25% in January, and this rate remained the same until June. American and Turkish students did not exhibit irregular oral reading during the academic year.

This study's results related to oral reading expression of punctuation "which were coded as: period-stop; comma-

pause, prosody or irregular" led to different findings for Turkish and American students. At the beginning of the observation, it was found that 11 Turkish students' (38%) and 14 American students (70%) used period-stop; comma-pause during oral reading. At the end of the observation, 23 Turkish students' (79%) and 15 American students' (75%) used period-stop; comma-pause. As a conclusion the observations indicate Turkish students have learned first reading and writing with a large proportion at the end of elementary school first grade. American students first learn reading and writing in the kindergarten and continue learning process in the first and second grade of elementary school. Due to different characteristics of Turkish and English languages; teaching of reading and writing has different applications.

Breathing Control

We observed first grade students' breathing control during oral reading (which were coded as: mumbling or swallowing, irregularly breathing or controlled breathing). Figure 11 shows the findings.

Figure 11 shows that, in the beginning of November, 12 Turkish students (41%) and 18 American students (90%) exhibited controlled breathing in oral reading. The trend line for Turkish students remained the same until March, when the percent of controlled breathing in oral reading increased from 41% (12 students) in March to 83% (24 students) in June. The trend line for American students controlled breathing in oral reading rate remained the same until June.

Conversely, in the beginning of November, while 0% of American students mumbled or swallowed during the oral reading, 2 Turkish students (7%) demonstrated the same behavior. This rate was maintained through March, when the mumbling or swallowing rate increased from 7 to 10%
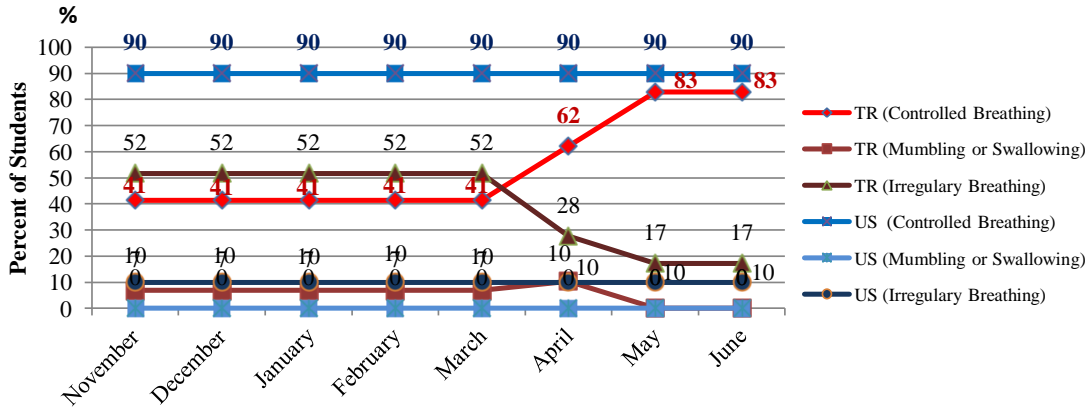
Figure 11. Breathing control.

in April. Turkish students' mumbling or swallowing rate decreased downward in April to a floor of 0% in May.

The percentage of students' irregularly breathing during oral reading in November was 15 of Turkish students (52%) and 2 of American students (10%). The trend line for American students irregularly breathing in oral reading rate remained the same until June. The trend line for Turkish students remained the same until March, when the percentage of irregularly breathing in oral reading decreased from 52 to 17% in May.

The results of Development of breath control skills observed in elementary school first grade students' during the oral reading were analyzed; this study results show that 18 of American students' (90%) have developed breath control ability during the oral reading. When the breath control skill of Turkish students' during oral reading was analyzed, percentage of controlled breathing in oral reading was 41% at the beginning of the academic year. This rate increased from 41% (12 students) to 83% (24 students) at the end of the academic year. As a conclusion, irregularly breathe control during oral reading for Turkish students dropped from 52 to 17% at the end of the academic year.

DISCUSSION

This study emphasizes learning of early reading and writing process in the US and Turkey. This process consists of three parts: development of students in early reading and writing, oral reading and handwriting miscues, and oral reading and handwriting rates. Development of elementary school first grade students' early reading was observed according to ten variables. Development of elementary school first grade students' early writing was observed according to eleven variables. Elementary school first grade students' oral reading rate, the number of words and letters were measured in a minute. Elementary school first grade students' hand-

writing rates are discussed under four categories; copying handwriting, comprehending handwriting, dictation handwriting, and fragment handwriting of words and letters. Each category was measured in a minute.

It is important to identify reading miscues at early grades, intervene on time, and apply supportive method on time (Arslan and Dirik, 2008). During the reading process, students can read with omission, repetition, substation, insertion, skipping of words, etc. (Nandzo, 2005). Zakaluk (1996) claimed students demonstrate lots of hesitations add words, omits words, when they are learning to read. In this study we observed similar miscues of students during their reading. Development of elementary school first grade students first reading was observed according to ten variables; skipping oral reading, oral reading by adding, oral reading by repeating, oral reading by following, posture, position of book, volume of voice, oral reading rate, reading expression of punctuation, and breathing control. Results of the observation for skipping oral reading, oral reading by adding, oral reading by repeating, and position of book indicated the same findings for both study groups. When students read a text, sometimes they repeat the same word or sentences several times. On the contrary fluent reading involves reading correctly and smoothly (Otto, 2008). Also, students consider punctuation and reading expression in order to better understand a reading text (Hasbrouck et al., 1999). In the study, we showed similar results for some oral reading skills of students. The observation for the other six oral reading skills "oral reading by following, posture, volume of voice, oral reading speed, oral reading expression of punctuation, and breathing control" concluded in different developing reading skills of students.

During the development of oral reading, students make more miscues which results in lower understanding of the text meaning (Laing, 2002). In both countries, students showed higher level (38-40%) of oral reading behavior by following. Oral reading by following reduces speed of oral

reading and understanding of the text. In terms of posture, students started to learn reading with irregular posture in Turkey more than US. However, at the end of the academic year, students showed better regular posture in both countries. The same result was seen for volume of voice, oral reading speed, reading expression or punctuation, and breathing control. In the process of learning to read in both countries, while American students begin to learn first reading and writing in kindergarten, Turkish students begin to learn reading in first grade of elementary school. Students have many experiences about literacy and they also focus as readers or writers in their preschools (Morrov, 2007). Therefore, American students have advantage; they can improve their reading skills earlier than Turkish students.

In the researches related to students' reading aloud speed and reading fluently, teacher behaviors are highlighted. Classroom teachers in Turkey identify the reasons of not being able to contribute to the improvement of students' skill of reading fluently as: that the classrooms are crowded, shortness of the time, and that they do not have enough field information (Çaycı and Demir, 2006; Erkul and Erdoğan, 2009; Rasinski, 2006). The conductors of the program are the teachers and the success of the teachers in application of the program is as significant as the program itself at least. If we can raise the level of information and awareness by giving sufficient support for teaching reading fluently, we can remove most of the straits resulting from application (Çayır and Ulusoy, 2014). The significance of teacher attitudes for improvements of students' skills of reading fluently will be valid for correcting reading miscues. Teachers had better correct students' reading miscues immediately in the classroom environment without insulting them; and they should take necessary precautions.

Guided reading involves the works in which teacher or another adult reads with the learner, observes the learner during reading (Güneş, 2007). In their studies on guided reading, Rasinski (2005), Duran and Sezgin (2012) state that the method of guided reading raises the skills of comprehension and fluent reading. Because of the structure of English language, guided reading is more significant in teaching reading and writing in English language than in Turkish language. In the observations, it was observed that learners had difficulty in reading the words or sentences they had not read with a guide before. It was seen that similar difficulties were experienced in teaching reading in Turkish. In both languages, reading with a guide and correction of the reading miscues immediately by a guide or a competent minimize the reading miscues. In guided reading, learners can be supported by teachers or family members (Kasten and Yıldırım, 2011) or adults, children in other age groups and peers experienced in guided reading. During the observations conducted in the USA, it

was observed that 3rd graders give support in order to contribute to the improvement of reading skills of first graders. In reading hours, it was observed that half of the 1st graders went to the classroom of 3rd graders; and, half of the 3rd graders went to the classroom of the 1st graders. In these classrooms, it was observed that older students read together with the younger ones.

On the other hand, school-parents and teacher-parents cooperation is significant in order to minimize the reading miscues. In the studies, it was emphasized that school-parents cooperation affects the school success of the learners positively; parents should be trained to protect the children from misdirection and to prevent the contradiction between teachers and parents (Çelenk, 2001). It was highlighted that the implementations conducted at school should be supported by parents. School and family are two distinct social institutions and they were shaped around different expectations. Common actions of these two distinct institutions are for the benefit of learners. It is more significant especially for the elementary school first graders; because the most fundamental skills of reading and learning are formed in that educational term (Şimşek and Tanaydın, 2002). There are many studies showing the importance of the support of the parents outer from the school for the improvement of learners' reading skills in the period of early childhood. According to the results of these studies, it was stated that the development of learners' literacy is a multi-dimensional process and all share holders had better make contributions (Gül, 2007; Kayser, 2006; Lerner, 2000; Li, 2003).

According to the results of the studies held by Çelenk (2003), the school success of the children whose parents communicate in a healthy way, are supportive and give importance to school-parents cooperation is much higher than the others. Çelenk suggestst school success and the improvement of the learners' reading and writing skills such as:"parents should be given information about the activities held at school and their support should be taken. Some precautions to strengthen school-parents cooperation should be taken."

When findings of this study are analyzed, it is seen that majority of Turkish students have preschool education, but they do not have enough practice in reading and writing. Due to the structure of Turkish language, Turkish students learn reading and writing in 6 months to one year. This period for American students is 2-3 years long. In Turkey preschool curriculum does not include teaching of letters and words, but focuses on visual reading and drawing. However, American preschool education emphasizes teaching of sounds, letters, and words.

Conclusion

When we considered data provided as a results of this

study, we obtain similar results, and also closed results for both study groups.

Analyzing oral reading miscues for first grade students skipping oral reading, oral reading by adding, oral reading by repeating, and position of book provide as results showing students from both countries don't have significant miscues. On the other hand, analyzing oral reading by following skills results in 38% of Turkish students, while 40% of American students continue tracking by finger, hand, arm, pencil or ruler etc. There is a need to apply certain measures to correct tracking finger, hand, arm, pencil or ruler etc. miscues, while oral reading in first elementary schools students in both countries. At the beginning of academic year, American students makes less miscues, in terms of posture, volume of voice, oral reading speed, reading expression of punctuation, and breathing control, compared to Turkish students. When we analyze the situation at the end of the academic year, Turkish students advance and reach to the level of American students, and make less miscue.

Considering results of this research, oral reading miscues can be subject of another detailed study. Botthof (1980) found that illustrations do not have effect on children's reading miscues.

This study examined ten oral reading miscues of students, which indicated many miscues in both countries. Causes of oral reading miscues such as the effect of teachers, parents, text features etc. can be researched by investigator. Reading success of students needs more connection between related teachers (Sangster, 2008).

RECOMMENDATIONS

Teachers can apply certain measures to correct tracking finger, hand, arm, pencil or ruler etc. miscues. When students present certain miscues during the oral reading in class, teachers should guide constructively, and may be role model. And also parents' role is crucial during this process. Parents and teachers may collaborate to contribute students' advancement in oral reading. Parents should be educated about how they contribute to academic improvement of children. Teachers should organize activities in order to improve reading skills with the help of older students and peers as well as parents. Necessary precautions for correction of the reading miscues should be carried out in cooperation. Guided reading activities should be increased. They should benefit from e-books. They should read aloud from e-books and students should follow the text. The reading speed of the e-books should be adaptable in order for students to follow the text according to their level. This research is based on sampling form to different countries. Similar studies can be conducted in other countries. This type of studies could contribute to reduce oral reading

and handwriting miscues, and increase comprehension, quality and productivity.

This research aimed to determine first grade students' reading and writing learning process and oral reading and handwriting rates could lead to similar studies. Similar studies are suggested in other countries. This type of studies could contribute to reduce handwriting miscues, and increase comprehension, quality and productivity.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Analyzing the relationship between learning styles and basic concept knowledge level of kindergarten children

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Most basic concepts are acquired during preschool period. There are studies indicating that the basic concept knowledge of children is related to language development, cognitive development, academic achievement and intelligence. The relationship between learning behaviors (sometime called learning or cognitive styles) and a child academic success is widely recognized. So, it is supposed that the learning styles can be also influential on the development of children's basic concept knowledge. The purpose of this study is to analyze the relationship between the learning styles of kindergarten children and their level of basic concept knowledge. The sample of the study was selected by using simple random sampling method and it consists of 176 children (76 girls and 100 boys) in kindergarten in Istanbul, Turkey. Learning Styles Scale for 5-6 Year-Old Children (Uyanık et al.) and Boehm Test of Basic Concepts (Boehm) were used to collect data. The results indicate that there is a significant relationship between children's learning styles and their basic concept knowledge. It has been also found that basic concept knowledge is significantly predicted by visual and auditory learning styles in young children.

Key words: Kindergarten, learning styles, basic concept knowledge.

INTRODUCTION

In early childhood, children gain most basic concepts quickly. Concept acquisition has historically been identified as foundational elements of intelligence (Kagan, 1966 in cited Wilson, 2004; Solomon et al., 1999). Boehm (1991) defined basic concepts as "the child's ability to make relational judgments, either among objects, persons, or situations, or in reference to a standard" (p.241).

Basic concepts represent the fundamental, functional vocabulary needed to understand classroom conversation and teacher directions, achievement and administration directions of early childhood tests of intelligence (Boehm et al., 1986; Bracken, 1986; Cummings and Nelson, 1980; Flannagan et al., 1995). The acquisition of basic concepts has been shown to be interactively related to a preschool child's overall cognitive development (Bracken, 1998; 2000), language production and understanding (Zucker and Riordan, 1988), school readiness and academic achievement and gifted screening outcomes (Bracken and Brown, 2008; Larrabee, 2007; Panter and Bracken, 2009) as a supportive knowledge of literacy development (Booth and Waxman, 2002).

Shumway et al. (1983) noted that the content of all learning in schools can be categorized as behavior

learning, problem solving learning and concept learning. Learning styles of children are also influential on the process of learning occurring in preschool period. Grasha (1990) defined learning styles as "the preferences students have for thinking, relating to others, and particular types of classroom environments and experiences" (p. 26). Individuals learn through different ways and researches focus on learning styles, personal factors on learning and different learning style for each individual (Borchetta and Dunn, 2010; Calissendorff, 2006; Jenkins, 2008; Kolb and Kolb, 2005).

Jensen (1998) identified three types of learning styles, namely visual learning, auditory learning and kinesthetic learning. Visual learners tend to learn using pictures, charts and writing. Visual learners are those who need a mental model that they can see. Since majority of learners are visual learners, we need to find ways to show them visually how things work (Suppiah et al., 2009 cited in Wan and Chuan, 2014). Auditory learners are people who learn through listening and oral commu-nication. They are more likely to understand something through hearing. They like to listen to music and verbally communicate with others. Auditory learners are those who remember best information that they hear. Information that is auditory is processed and stored in the temporal lobes on the sides of the brain (Jensen, 1998). Kinesthetic learners tend to learn through bodily move-ment and experiential learning. Kinesthetic information is stored at the top of the brain in the motor cortex until permanently learned then it is stored in the cerebellum, the area below the occipital lobe (Jensen 1998). They need hands-on activity to understand something. Kinesthetic learners learn best through movement and touching. Therefore, providing opportunities for students to work outside the classroom, by being on field trips, to make students move around the classroom, play games and simulations, is the best way to teach kinesthetic learners (Zapalska et al., 1998, Zapalska et al.,1999, Zapalska et al., 2000; Sousa, 1997; 1999). If students can learn using their own learning styles which are compatible with their needs and interests, they will be more effective and efficient in learning. Thus, a student's academic achievement will improve and become more productive (Suppiah et al., 2009 cited in Wan and Chuan, 2014). Statt et al. (1988) show that the correlations found between styles of learning and school attainment were as good as those between IQ and attainment in previous research. The relationship between learning behaviors (sometime called learning or cognitive sytles) and a child academic success is widely recognized (Alexander et al., 1993; Hinshow, 1992 cited in Buchanan et al., 1998).

By considering the literature mentioned above, it was concluded that there can be a relationship between basic concept knowledge and learning styles of kindergarten children and there is not a study that examined this possible relationship. Then, this study was conducted to study the relationship between the learning styles of kindergarten children and their basic concept knowledge.

Also it was aimed to examine the degree that learning styles could predict the basic concept knowledge of kindergarteners.

METHOD

This study that uses relational survey model (Karasar, 2009) aims to determine the existence and extent of covariance between the kindergarteners' basic concepts knowledge level and their learning styles.

Participants

The data of the study were collected from children who attend kindergartens in both Anatolian and European sides of Istanbul city and from their teachers. 8 of the kindergartens are public and 2 of them are private; however all of them function under a primary school. The participants consist of 176 children (76 girls and 100 boys) from 16 different classes. Children's mean age was 66.42 months (Std.Deviation= 4.42). 89 children (50.6%) had one year of kindergarten education experience at the study time and 86 children (48.9%) did not have. There were 54 (30.7%) children from one-child families, 87 children (49.4%) have one sibling and 34 (19.3%) children have two siblings. 66 mothers (37.5%) were primary school graduates followed by 53 (30.1%) high school and 55 (31.3%) university/college graduates; while 2 mothers did not state their education level. 41 of fathers (23.3%) were primary school graduates followed by 76 (43.2%) high school and 57 (32.4%) university/college graduates; while 2 fathers did not state their education level. There were 39 mothers (22.2%) between 25-30 ages, 63 mothers (35.8%) between 31-35, 51 mothers (29.0%) between 36-40 and 20 mothers between 41-45; while 3 mothers did not state their age. There were 5 fathers (2.8%) between 25-30 ages, 60 fathers (34.1%) between 31-35, 60 fathers (34,1%) between 36-40, 44 fathers (25.0%) between 41-45 and 4 fathers (2.3%) were 46 and above; while 3 fathers did not state their age. 16 kindergarten teachers participated in the study and all teacher are females. Of all teachers, 4 (25%) teacher were college graduates, and 12 (75%) were four year university graduates. Concerning their years in the profession, 3 (18.7%) had been working for 1-5 years, 7 (43.7%) for 6-10 years and 6 (37.5%) for 11 years or more. As for age distribution of the teachers in the sample, 5 (31.3%) teachers were aged 25 or younger, 4 (25%) between 26-30 years and 7 (43.7%) were aged 31 and more.

Procedure

The required ethical permissions were obtained from the official institutions before the data collection stage. Boehm Test of Basic Concepts (Boehm-3, 2000) was applied with the participant children individually by the researcher. The learning styles of the children were evaluated by The Learning Styles Scale for 5-6 year Old Children that was filled by the kindergarten teachers. The analysis of the data collected by the scales was evaluated by considering $p < 0.05$ significance level. For data analysis, SPSS 17.0 program was used. To analyze the data, Pearson correlation test and ordinal regression analysis were used.

Instruments

The personal information form

The Personal Information Form was developed by the researcher to

collect data on the demographics of the sample. The form consists of 13 questions regarding the child such as the gender, the attendance year on preschool education etc. and the educational level and age of the parents and teachers etc.

Boehm test of basic concepts (Boehm-3, 2000)

The test was developed by Ann. E. Boehm In this study, E Form of Boehm-3, 2000 revised version was used. *The Boehm Test of Basic Concepts©*, Third Edition, was designed to assess students' understanding of 50 important concepts they need to know to be successful in school. Basic concepts are words that are used to describe qualities of people or objects (pretty, tall, angry, small), spatial relationship (in, or, under, beside), time (before, after) and quantity (more, few, some) (Boehm, 1991, p.241; Boehm, 2001). Test-retest reliability is .879, equity value between E and F forms is .807 and Cronbach Alfa internal consistency value is calculated as .862. The descriptive value of each items was .002 for item 1, .007 for item 14, .003 for item 20, .004 for item 39 and .000 for each other item. Furthermore, there is a significant relationship (r=.76, p<.05) between the Boehm Test of Basic Concepts (E and F forms) and another reliable test, Bracken Basic Concept Scale (Uyanık, 2003, 2009).

Learning styles scale for 5-6 year-old children

The Learning Styles Scale for 5-6 year Old Children was developed by Uyanık et al. (2012). The scale consists of 27 items under three subcategories, namely visual, auditory and kinesthetic learning style. The variance ratio that these dimensions explained is 64%. The scale's structure validity analysis was tested by using Kaiser Mayer Olkin = 0.94 test and Barlett's Test of Sphericity (Chi Square = 5. 753 p< .001) and its conformity factor analysis has been determined. According to the results of the analysis, the first factor "Visual Learning Style" consists of 13 items and its loading value varies between .57 and .83. The second factor, named as "Auditory Learning Style", consists of 9 items and its loading value varies between .48 and .79. And the third factor consists of 5 items, named as "Kinesthetic Learning Style" and its loading value varies between .48 and .83.

Between the lower dimension of the scale and total score it has been found that correlation values vary between .703 and .921. For the test-retest reliability of the scale, Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient formula has been used and the reliability coefficient was r = .85 (p< 0.01). Also independent groups t-test results, which have been performed between items' means of upper 27% and lower 27% of the group points, have shown that there is a significant difference for all items (p<.05). It has been found that the item-total correlation values vary between .386 and .835. But in this study, in order to increase reliability, items under .35 loading value have been excluded from the scale. In the reliability analysis results of the "Learning Style Scale for 5-6 Year-Old Children", coefficient of internal consistency Croanbach Alfa Value calculated for entire scale is .95. Coefficient of internal consistency calculated for the lower dimensions of the scale is .95 for Visual Learning Style, .91 for Auditory Learning Style and .82 for Kinesthetic Learning Style. Also for the first and second half of the scale, Spearman Brown Values are .85. The test-retest reliability coefficient has been calculated as .85. The scale 5-point Likert-type scale (1 Disagree, 5 Agree) was employed.

The lowest possible score of "Visual Learning Style" subscale is 13 and the highest possible score is 65. The lowest possible score of "Auditory Learning Style" subscale is 9 and the highest possible score is 45.

The lowest possible score of "Kinesthetic Learning Style" subscale is 5 and the highest possible score is 25.

Table 1. The results of Pearson correlation, Kendall's Tau and Spearman's Rho related to Boehm Test of Basic Concepts and Learning Styles Scale

		Pearson correlation		
		Visual	**Audi.**	**Kines**
Boehm Total	r	.183*	.267*	-.090
	P	.015	.000	.234
	n	176	176	176

RESULTS

The purpose of this study is to analyze the relationship between the learning styles of kindergarten children and their level of basic concept knowledge. The analyses related to participants' basic concept knowledge and learning styles are represented in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1 indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between participants' basic concept knowledge and visual (r=.183, p=0.015) and auditory learning style (r=.267, p=0.001).

As can be seen from Tables 1 and 2, it has been founded that kindergarten children's scores of Visual Learning Style subscale have significantly predicted 3.4% of the changes in their total score of Boehm Test of Basic Concepts (R= .183, R^2 = .034, F= 6.037, p<.01). In addition, it has been also found that kindergarten children's scores of Auditory Learning Style subscale have significantly predicted 7.2% of the changes in their total score of Boehm Test of Basic Concepts (R=.267, R^2 =.072, F = 13.410, p>.01). However, kindergarten children's scores of Kinesthetic Learning Style subscale have not predicted any changes in their total score of Boehm Test of Basic Concepts. In addition to all these results, when looking at t-test results related to the question whether regression coefficient was significant or not, it has been found that values of Boehm Test of Basic Concepts have significantly predicted the values of Auditory and Visual Learning Style subscales.

By considering these results, it can be concluded that there is a significant positive relationship between participants' basic concept knowledge and, visual and auditory learning styles. Visual and auditory learning styles explain 10.6% of basic concept knowledge of the kindergarten children.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Every child is born with an innate ability to learn and it is a prerequisite for survival development (Knoop, 2002). Barnett (2008) stated that kindergarten education has significant lasting effects on cognitive abilities, social behavior and further schooling history (grade repetition, special education placement, and high school graduation). In early years of the life, responsive and cognitively

Table 2. The results of simple linear regression analysis between Boehm Test of Basic Concepts and Learning Styles Scale's subscales

Variables			β	T
BOHEM total			.183	9.379 **
Visual				
R= .183	R^2 = .034	F= 6.037 *		
BOHEM Total			.267	16.054 **
Auditory				
R= .267	R^2 = .072	F = 13.410 **		
BOHEM Total			-.090	15.812 **
Kinesthetic				
R= .090	R^2 = .008	F = 1.428		

stimulating care fosters language and cognitive skills that facilitate learning (Shonkoff and Phillips, 2000).

Kindergarten children show a very rapid development and they acquire many basic concepts. Solomon et al.' (1999) study which explains the importance of basic concepts in child development, concepts were defined as the stepping stones of the mind. The formation, use and growth of basic concepts are accepted as a major issue in cognitive development. Concepts, named mental constructs, are the critical components of a maturing individual's continuously changing, enlarging cognitive structure (Klausmeir, 2013; p.94).

In this study, it was found that there is a significant positive relationship between kindergarten children's basic concept acquisition and their learning styles. Furthermore, it was found that visual and auditory learning styles explain 10.6% of the basic concept knowledge level. Any other study that analyzes the relationship between basic concept knowledge and learning styles in early childhood is not available in the literature.

According to Dunn (1982; 1986; 1990), each individual has his or her own learning style just like he/she has a distinct fingerprint. Learning style can be defined as unique ways of learning taken from cognitive style and experiences in the form of learning-teaching. Furthermore, learning styles can change over time as a result of maturation (Dunn, 1982; 1986; 1990). This view points out the importance of identifying learning styles. Learning behavior or learning styles have been described as keystone or learning to learn skills foundational to school success (Barnett et.al., 1996; Stott, 1981) because they are relatively mutable and because their improvement tends to transfer to similar behaviors and to generalize more readily to collateral phenomena, such as academic achievement, social adjustment, and potentially even to cognitive ability (Brown, 1982; Ceci, 1981 cited in McDermott et al., 2002). Basic concept acquisition is strongly correlated with overall vocabulary development and language development, cognitive development and intelligence, school readiness and academic achievement

(Booth and Waxman, 2002; Bracken, 2000; Bracken and Brown, 2008; Breen, 1985; McIntosh et al., 1995; Solomon et al., 1999; Zucker, 1988).

By considering the previous studies on basic concept knowledge and learning styles, it can be said that both children's basic concept knowledge and learning styles affect academic success. The most important result of this study is that the basic concept knowledge of the child is predicted by their learning styles. The significant relationship between the children's basic concept knowledge and their learning styles, only for visual and auditory learners, might be a result of teaching styles of Turkish kindergarten teachers. It is observed that many of the kindergarten teachers prefer to use verbal teaching and visual materials. According to Felder and Henriques (1995), as visual and auditory learning styles are related to perception stage of learning process, kinesthetic learning is related to information processing stage (moving, interaction, active action while learning) as well as perception stage (touching, tasting, smelling etc.). The results of this study did not find a significant relationship between kinesthetic learning style and the level of basic concept knowledge. This result could be related to limited physical conditions of the classrooms and insufficient playgrounds. Pallapu (2007) noted that programs in line with learning styles and arrangement of the environment are important.

Basic concepts knowledge acquisition process of the children can be supported and improved by the help of education environment and materials that are selected by considering the learners' needs. Labatut et al. (2011) claim that identifying the dominant style in the early years gives teachers the possibility to support children with other learning styles as well. This can play in a significant role in the students' academic achievement. It is known that during schools years, children will contact with different teachers who have different learning and also teaching styles. The identification of predominant learning style in the early childhood education stage allows students to reinforce the other styles in different learning situations, to achieve more meaningful learning. Some

researchers said that a match between learning and teaching styles has been correlated with older students' achievement rates (Dunn and Griggs, 1995; Ellis, 1989) Children acquire concepts through active participation. Learning experiences may be grouped into three cate-gories as natural, unstructured and structured. A natural learning experience occurs when selection and action are controlled by the child. Where the child selects and starts an action but is intruded on by an adult at certain times, this learning is named as unstructured learning. Structured learning experience occurs when experiences are selected by adults and instructions are given to children about when or how to start an action. According to Piaget, children internalize knowledge through such interaction with the environment (Charlesworth and Rodeloff, 1991).

In conclusion, the importance of determining the domi-nant learning style of kindergarten children is clear. Making appropriate regulations in education environ-ments, materials and programs by considering children's learning styles could contribute to the development of basic concepts knowledge that help children to understand and make sense of life. Basic concepts have certain effect on children's intelligence, academic achievement and motivation. It can be suggested that educators and other individuals work on early child care and education field, to find out children's learning styles and design learning environments accordingly.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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CITATION

Full Length Research Paper

Reviewing personality compliance level of trainee music teachers in terms of music genres, and some variables

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In this study, personality compliance levels are examined according to tonality and tempo variables, which are acquired in consequence of analysis of music genres and pieces to which fine arts faculty, trainee music teachers mostly listen. A total of 31 students participated in the study. Data acquired from Hacettepe Personality Inventory (HPI) were analyzed with the t test for pairs and one way variance analysis (ANOVA) for groups, of more than 2 people. The source of difference was analyzed with the Tukey (HSD) test. Data about music genre, tempo and tonality were acquired through face-to-face interviews. The results of the study suggested a significant difference between social compliance, personal compliance, and general compliance levels in terms of music genre. The personal, social and general compliance levels of those listening to rock music were determined to be lower than those who listened to classical, pop and Turkish folk music. A significant difference was determined between social compliance, personal compliance, and general compliance levels in terms of tonality variables. The personal, social and general compliance levels of minor listeners were lower than those of major listeners. There was no significant difference in terms of tonality variables.

Key words: Social compliance, personal compliance, general compliance, music genre, tempo and tonality.

INTRODUCTION

Personality comprises behaviors and features that make an individual authentic, including basic interests, motivations, abilities and emotional tendency, and this trait lasts for a certain period (Demir and Acar, 1997).

The main features of personality are:

1. Personality consists of inherent and acquired tendencies.
2. Personality is the regulation of these tendencies. In this way we can talk about a structure that is created by

tendencies.
3. There are differences in each individual's personal features, which distinguish them from others.
4. The adaptation of an individual's tendencies to the environment is called "social compliance".
5. Each personality acquires only one character inherently and character is an indispensable part of personality.

According to these features, personality is a habit and behavior structure that is acquired during social life or it is

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dynamic regulation system of psychophysics components that lead individuals to know themselves and adapt to their environments (Eren, 2000).

According to Berens (1999), personality can be defined as features and tendencies in individual psychological reactions, such as idea, emotion and behavior, and they cannot be explained by the biological conditions of the moment and social environment that determine differences. Thus, it can be said that there are many mental, emotional, socio-economic and physical factors that influence the creation and development processes of personality.

Personality is the acknowledgement of biological, mental, social and emotional changes that occur in an individual who is undergoing continuous change and development, and adapting these changes by performing appropriate behaviors and attributes. It is the making of positive connections with other people around and reacting appropriately to incidents, facts, individuals and subjects. It means that an individual is in harmony with the environment. If an individual can reconcile changes that occur in him, and relationships with others, then he will create his own adaptation (Öztemel, 2010). When these biological, mental and emotional changes cannot be integrated with the environment, then the individual experiences internal conflict, and has problems with others. Compliance, which is defined as an individual having and maintaining good relationships with themselves and others, starts inherently and develops throughout life. General compliance is examined in two categories as personal compliance which means that all behaviors that an individual develops to comply with his environment, and social compliance, which is defined as responding to needs including earning a reputation and creating social status. It has been suggested that personal compliance is related to social role and social success, while social compliance is related to social attributes and standards (Başaran, 1992). Considering general frameworks in behaviors and attributes, compliance and incompatible individuals have many features in common. As can be seen in other studies, these common features are still consistent in music genres. Everybody has a relationship with music in their environments. People listen to music, perceive, understand and eventually like or dislike it (Kalender, 2001). These inferences give rise to 3 questions: i) can music genre give clear, consistent and interpretable messages about personality? ii) If so, to what extent is that message valid? iii) What are the features of these preferences that are claimed to expose personality (Rentfrow and Gosling, 2006, p.238)? Most studies show that music genre gives clues about personality and this genre has hallmarks according to personality.

Music preferences emerge as a result of a complex process woven from a variety of factors. However much the pleasure of music is accepted in the aesthetic sense and even if the simplicity of this enjoyment is recognised,

it can be argued to what extent this pleasure forms the person. Just as an individual does not choose their own psychological status, it is true that he cannot make a decision for the society or conditions in which he is. All these factors define the direction of music preference. On the other hand, music preference has an undeniable role in personality (Şenel, 2014).

It is appropriate to infer that music genre can give information about a personality. In a study by Erdal (2009) it was found that those who listened to Turkish folk music and classical music were more accommodating than those who listened to rock music, and the rock music listeners were less tolerant than the other two groups. Similarly, Turkish folk music and classical music listeners were found to be more calm and peaceful than rock music listeners, with the most peaceful group being classical music listeners and the least, peaceful, the rock music listeners.

According to Rentfrow and Gosling (2003), those who listen to harsh and rebellious music are likely to take risks, be physically active and interested in unusual things, while those who listen to upbeat or traditional music are joyful, social, trustworthy, like to help others and find themselves physically attractive.

Researchers, who especially focus on young adults with psychological problems, suggest that these people prefer to listen to heavier music genres like "heavy metal" and "hard rock" (Hansen and Hansen, 1990; Wass et al., 1989; Scwards and Fouts, 2003). Most studies have found a relationship between these kinds of music genres and youngsters with problems. For example, heavy metal listeners are more prone to suicide, murder and Satanism (Wass et al., 1989), they have more problems (Took and Weiss, 1994), and they are more emotionally vulnerable and angry (Epstein et al., 1990).

Kenston and Pinto (1955) examined how music education impacts music genre. In their work, it was seen that participants with music education of one or more years preferred classical music more than those with no music education. Similarly, Geringer (1982) claimed that education had significant effects on a preference for classical music. Farnsworth (1950) stated that education produces music genres so that just as children learn behaviors from their families, teachers or peers, they can learn music genres from their immediate environment.

"Most music genre/preference studies so far, have examined relationships between music preference and music ability, music education, complexity of music, environmental factors, media, family, friends etc" (Erdal and Ok, 2012). Even if there are different social and psychological processes that influence music preferences, understanding the relationship between basic personal features and music preferences can help to better understand personality (Erdem, 2011).

In this study, it was examined whether or not there was any difference between psycho-social compliance levels in terms of variables that included musical elements such
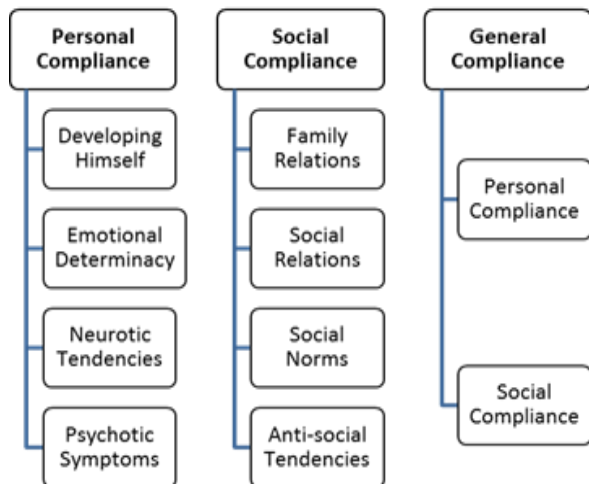
Figure 1. HPI and sub-inventories pattern.

as the tempo and tonality (minor or major) of a piece chosen by music department students as an example of their preferred music genre.

For some young people, their choice of music may express how they want to be or give the message of what they want (Erdem, 2011). From this starting point, it was important in this study to see the psychological require-ments to be able to provide the means of meeting those requirements to understand trainee music teachers. This study aimed to emphasize that music is an effective and speedy route in communication with trainee music teachers and to encourage the productive use of this route.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Music preferences are thought to be very closely linked to personality, so much so that some psychologists use music preferences as an indicator in personality evaluation. Personal music preferences were reflected in the clinical evaluation of personality (Radocy and Boyle, 2003). Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between the music preferences of trainee music teachers and personal compliance levels.

Experimental groups

A total of 39 students in the Music Department of the Fine Arts Faculty, Süleyman Demirel University, Isparta, Turkey, were initially enrolled in the study. As validity was not reached for 8 students, they were excluded leaving a total of 31 for evaluation. The 31 students comprised 21 females and 10 males, 26 of whom were aged 17-20 years and 5 were aged 21-24 years.

Study process

At the first stage, 2 questions were asked to understand the

student's preference for type of music to listen to, tonality and tempo. The first item on the interview form was about "music genre" and the second item requested song titles which students liked to listen to most. These were then analyzed by the researcher in terms of pace and tonality. In pace analysis, a metronome range between 40-120 was measured as "low", 120-152 as "medium" and 152-208 as "high". In the tonality analysis, two categories of "major" and "minor" were evaluated. At the second stage, the HPI was applied to the students to evaluate personal, social and general compliance levels in respect of music preference, tempo and tonality variables.

Data collecting tools

To measure the personal, social and general compliance levels of students, the HPI, developed by Özgüven, was applied. This inventory consists of 4 "personal compliance" and 4 "social compliance" items in a total of 8 sub-inventories. The personal and social compliance points are totalled to give a general compliance score. The inventory consists of 168 questions, 20 questions for each sub-inventory and 8 validity items. Answers were "yes" and "no", scored as 1 and 0. To determine the reliability of the HPI, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was calculated. The value of 0.84 indicated that the inventory was reliable (Figure 1).

A 2-item interview form was developed by the researcher. The first item was about the preferred "music genre" of the students, and the second item requested the titles to which students liked to listen most. These were collected, recorded and analyzed by the researcher in terms of tempo and tonality.

Analysis of data

In the comparison of personal, social and general compliance levels, the independent t test was used for the variable of tonality and for tempo and music genre variables, one way variance analysis (ANOVA) was applied. The source of difference was analyzed with the Tukey (HSD) test. All data were analyzed using the SPSS 11.5 package program.

In HPI, a system was developed which allows the interpretation of raw scores directly without any process. Critical and significant values of percentile scores related to various norm groups were determined according to this system. Under these conditions, individuals with 75% or higher scores were classified as "compatible", between 50-75% as "possibly compatible" and between 25-50% as "incompatible". In this study, the evaluation of the compliance levels of the students was based on these norm values (Table 1).

RESULTS

In this section, the results are presented related to the relationships between personal compliance levels of trainee music teachers in the Fine Arts Faculty and the type of music, tonality and tempo to which they listened.

A significant difference in favour of those who listened to classical music was determined between the personal compliance levels of rock music listeners and classical music listeners.

In the comparison of social compliance levels, there was a significant difference between pop music listeners and rock listeners, in favour of pop music listeners, between classical music listeners and rock listeners, in favour of classical music listeners, and between Turkish folk music listeners and rock listeners, in favour of Turkish folk music listeners.

When general compliance levels were compared, there was a significant difference between pop music listeners and rock listeners, in favour of pop music listeners, between classical music listeners and rock listeners, in favour of classical music listeners, and between Turkish folk music listeners and rock listeners, in favour of Turkish folk listeners. This can be interpreted as the personal, social and general compliance levels of those who listen to rock music being lower than those of individuals who listen to classical, pop and Turkish folk music (Table 2)As a result of the t-test, a significant difference was determined between the compliance levels of major and minor tonality listeners, in favour of major tonality listeners. This can be interpreted as the personal, social and general compliance levels being lower in the minor tonality listeners than the major (Table 3).

No significant difference was determined between groups in the ANOVA analysis, on the basis of compliance levels. This can be interpreted as there being no relationship between compliance levels and listening to low, medium or high tempo music (Table 4).

The most significant findings of this study were firstly that the personal, social and general compliance levels of trainee music students who preferred to listen to music of minor tonality were significantly lower than of those who listed to music of major tonality. This finding is extremely important, as to the best of our knowledge, there has been no previous study in literature examining the relationship between tonality and personal compliance levels. Secondly the personal, social and general compliance levels of the trainee music teachers who listened to rock music were measured as significantly lower than those who listened to classical, pop and folk music.

DISCUSSION

It is known that tempo and tonality are two basic parameters that direct emotions when listening to music. Many studies (Delsing and Engels, 2008; Rentfrow and Gosling, 2003; Zweigenhaft, 2008) have shown that individuals who listen to high tempo music are very outgoing and tolerant. Although Treacy (2013) discovered a relationship between listening to high tempo music and being outgoing, no link was found in that study between high tempo music and tolerance. In the current study, comparisons were made between those who listened to low, medium and high tempo music in terms of personal, social and general compliance levels and no relationship was determined between tempo choice and compliance levels. Thus the results of this study demonstrate that there was no relationship between the tempo of the music listened to by trainee music teachers and their personal, social and general compliance levels.

There are very few studies which have researched whether or not there is a relationship between major or minor tonality choices and an individual's compliance level. While "incompatible" individuals prefer to listen to minor tonality music, which reflects calmness, quietness and sensuality, "compatible" and "possibly compatible" people like to listen to major tonality music which expresses liveliness, joy and activity. In one of the rare results in this field in literature, the study by Daoussis and McKelvie (1986) showed parallel results to those of the current study. Personal, social and general compliance levels of minor tonality students being lower than those of the major tonality students was a surprising result of this study. These results may express that to a great degree, the

personal, social and general compliance levels of those listening to minor tonality music in melancholy and emotional works were extremely low compared to those listening to joyful, happy pieces in a major tone. The emotional relationship of happiness in the major tone and sadness in the minor tone starts from the age of 3 years (Gregory and Varney, 1996). In a study by Schwartz and Foutz (???), which was applied on different music genres and different personalities, a relationship was indicated between harsh music genres such as hard rock, classic rock, heavy metal and rap and the qualities of hyper sexuality, low levels of respect for women, criminal tendencies and antisocial behaviors. On the other hand, those who preferred low music genres such as pop and dance music were more likely to be interested in making the right life choices. When comparing rock music listeners with Turkish folk and classical music listeners in terms of self-monitoring using the fundamental factor of "five factor personality inventory", which was used in a study by Erdal (2009), and the sub dimensions of this factor such as honesty, obeying rules and taking responsibility, there was a significant difference in favour of Turkish folk and classical music listeners. According to the criteria of the HPI personality inventory, the profile features of an individual who is counted as "incompatible" are generally "nervous, anxious, resentful, non-criticized, dreamer, violent and disrespectful". The personal, social and general compliance levels of the rock music listening students were lower than those of the pop, classical and Turkish folk music listeners. These data obtained from this study are parallel to the results in the studies of Schwartz et al. (???).

In a study by Delsing et al. (2008), it was suggested that rock music listeners were less conscientious and more likely to experience different situations. On the other hand, classical and traditional music listeners were more tolerant, conscientious and more likely to experience different situations but with emotional ups and downs. In the study by Erdal (2009) classical music listeners had higher emotional instability scores. In another study, the relationship of the choice of a specific type of music and a specific personality structure is seen to be more clearly stated. Rentfrow and Mcdonald reported that adventure-seeking individuals prefer more intense and stimulating types such as rock and punk music, antisocial males prefer rebellious types such as rock and rap and those who view themselves as interesting and creative prefer more intellectual and complex types such as jazz and classical (Rentfrow and McDonald, 2009).

This study supports fundamental personal features of rock music listeners and the result of classical and traditional music listeners being tolerant and conscientious individuals but does not support that they are emotionally unstable. According to the results of HPI, the classic and traditional music listeners were mostly "compatible" or "possibly compatible" individuals and there was no evidence for a behavioral pattern of these individuals such as "emotional ups and downs" in any of the inventory and sub-inventory profile features.

Outgoing individuals usually like socializing and spending time in a group and prefer to listen to the music genre that puts them in touch with their social environment. In a similar way, individuals who want to experience adventure, or various different intellectual and aesthetic events like relatively hard and complex music genres (Costa and McCrae, 1988). In a study by Rentfrow and Gosling (2003), people who listen to energetic and rhythmic or traditional music, are likely to be joyful, talkative, energetic, forgiving, social, trustworthy, and helpful and they find themselves attractive. According to the 'social relations' sub-inventory of "social compliance", these individuals are highly skillful at social relations, happy, talkative, loving, caring and tolerant. The results of the current study are consistent with those of Costa et al. (1988) in this respect.

In order to satisfy their psychological needs, individuals can make musical choices. "Individuals are more likely to listen to the music genre that will carry them to ideal level of consciousness" (Eysenck, 1990; Zuckerman, 1979). For example outgoing individuals are thought not to perceive environmental effects as a high pitch stimulant; therefore they try to balance this by listening to their favorite music as a way of increasing the level of stimulus. In contrast, those who perceive environmental

effects as a harsh stimulant, refrain from listening to music genres that include many stimulants (Daoussis and McKelvie, 1986). In the "Psychotic symptoms" and "social relations" sub-inventory profiles of the personal, social and general incompatible criteria of the HPI, it can be seen that these individuals do not feel comfortable in society, do not like talking to others, want to get away from society and are very sensitive to and resentful of environmental conditions.

The majority of studies in literature on the relationship between music preference and personality have findings in parallel with those of the current study. Therefore, it is possible to say that there is a relationship between the preferred music type of trainee music teachers and their personal, social and general compliance levels. The significant findings of this study can be evaluated as demonstrating that the compliance levels of those listening to rock music were lower than of those who listened to pop, classical or traditional music and the compliance levels of those listening to music in a minor tone were lower than of those listening in major tone.

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Data collecting tools

To measure the personal, social and general compliance levels of students, the HPI, developed by Özgüven, was applied. This inventory consists of 4 "personal compliance" and 4 "social compliance" items in a total of 8 sub-inventories. The personal and social compliance points are totalled to give a general compliance score. The inventory consists of 168 questions, 20 questions for each sub-inventory and 8 validity items. Answers were "yes" and "no", scored as 1 and 0. To determine the reliability of the HPI, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was calculated. The value of 0.84 indicated that the inventory was reliable (Figure 1).

A 2-item interview form was developed by the researcher. The first item was about the preferred "music genre" of the students, and the second item requested the titles to which students liked to listen most. These were collected, recorded and analyzed by the researcher in terms of tempo and tonality.

Analysis of data

In the comparison of personal, social and general compliance levels, the independent t test was used for the variable of tonality and for tempo and music genre variables, one way variance analysis (ANOVA) was applied. The source of difference was analyzed with the Tukey (HSD) test. All data were analyzed using the SPSS 11.5 package program.

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RESULTS

In this section, the results are presented related to the relationships between personal compliance levels of trainee music teachers in the Fine Arts Faculty and the type of music, tonality and tempo to which they listened.

A significant difference in favour of those who listened to classical music was determined between the personal compliance levels of rock music listeners and classical music listeners.

In the comparison of social compliance levels, there was a significant difference between pop music listeners and rock listeners, in favour of pop music listeners, between classical music listeners and rock listeners, in

Table 1. HPI norm values.

Percentage	HPI total points		
norms	Personal compliance (PC)	Social compliance (SC)	General compliance (GC)
75%	43	52	95
50%	36	46	82
25%	30	40	70

Table 2. ANOVA analysis results related to personal, social and general compliances in terms of music genres.

Compliance	Music genre	n	X	ss	f	p	Significant difference
Personal	Pop	9	40,1	10,8	4,7	,009[*]	Classic-Rock
	Classical	7	43,8	9,4			
	Rock	12	29,8	6,6			
	Turkish Folk	3	43,0	10,0			
Social	Pop	9	57,0	4,7	8,4	,000[*]	Pop-Rock
	Classical	7	55,7	5,2			Classic-Rock
	Rock	12	48,5	4,1			
	Turkish Folk	3	60,3	6,0			
General	Pop	9	97,1	13,5	10,2	,000[*]	Pop-Rock
	Classical	7	99,5	10,5			Classic-Rock
	Rock	12	78,4	7,0			

| | Turkish Folk | 3 | 103,3 | 8,1 | | Turkish Folk –Rock |

favour of classical music listeners, and between Turkish folk music listeners and rock listeners, in favour of Turkish folk music listeners.

When general compliance levels were compared, there was a significant difference between pop music listeners and rock listeners, in favour of pop music listeners, between classical music listeners and rock listeners, in favour of classical music listeners, and between Turkish folk music listeners and rock listeners, in favour of Turkish folk listeners. This can be interpreted as the personal, social and general compliance levels of those who listen to rock music being lower than those of individuals who listen to classical, pop and Turkish folk music (Table 2). As a result of the t-test, a significant difference was determined between the compliance levels of major and minor tonality listeners, in favour of major tonality listeners. This can be interpreted as the personal, social and general compliance levels being lower in the minor tonality listeners than the major (Table 3).

No significant difference was determined between groups in the ANOVA analysis, on the basis of compliance levels. This can be interpreted as there being no relationship between compliance levels and listening

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to low, medium or high tempo music (Table 4).

The most significant findings of this study were firstly that the personal, social and general compliance levels of trainee music students who preferred to listen to music of minor tonality were significantly lower than of those who listed to music of major tonality. This finding is extremely important, as to the best of our knowledge, there has been no previous study in literature examining the relationship between tonality and personal compliance levels. Secondly the personal, social and general compliance levels of the trainee music teachers who listened to rock music were measured as significantly lower than those who listened to classical, pop and folk music.

DISCUSSION

It is known that tempo and tonality are two basic parameters that direct emotions when listening to music. Many studies (Delsing and Engels, 2008; Rentfrow and Gosling, 2003; Zweigenhaft, 2008) have shown that individuals who listen to high tempo music are very outgoing and tolerant. Although Treacy (2013) discovered

Table 3. T-test results related to compliances in terms of tonality of students' favorite music genre.

Compliance	Tonality	n	x	ss	sd	t	p
Personal	Minor	18	30,8	7,3	29	-5,6	,000[*]
	Major	13	40,0	7,3			
Social	Minor	18	50,9	5,3	29	-3,4	,002[*]
	Major	13	57,6	5,4			
General	Minor	18	81,8	9,8	29	-6,6	,000[*]
	Major	13	103,7	7,7			

*p<.01

Table 4. ANOVA analysis results related to compliances in terms of tempo of students' favorite music genre.

Compliance	Tempo	n	x	ss	f	p
Personal	Low	15	34,8	6,8	1,37	,27
	Medium	10	37,3	11,8		
	High	6	43,1	14,7		
Social	Low	15	53,9	6,4	,78	,46
	Medium	10	52,1	6,9		
	High	6	56,1	4,6		

	Low	15	88,8	10,7		
General	Medium	10	89,4	11,6	1,31	,28
	High	6	99,3	17,5		

a relationship between listening to high tempo music and being outgoing, no link was found in that study between high tempo music and tolerance. In the current study, comparisons were made between those who listened to low, medium and high tempo music in terms of personal, social and general compliance levels and no relationship was determined between tempo choice and compliance levels. Thus the results of this study demonstrate that there was no relationship between the tempo of the music listened to by trainee music teachers and their personal, social and general compliance levels.

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This study supports fundamental personal features of rock music listeners and the result of classical and traditional music listeners being tolerant and conscientious individuals but does not support that they are emotionally unstable. According to the results of HPI, the classic and traditional music listeners were mostly "compatible" or "possibly compatible" individuals and there was no evidence for a behavioral pattern of these individuals such as "emotional ups and downs" in any of the inventory and sub-inventory profile features.

Outgoing individuals usually like socializing and spending time in a group and prefer to listen to the music genre that puts them in touch with their social environment. In a similar way, individuals who want to experience adventure, or various different intellectual and aesthetic events like relatively hard and complex music genres (Costa and McCrae, 1988). In a study by Rentfrow and Gosling (2003), people who listen to energetic and rhythmic or traditional music, are likely to be joyful, talkative, energetic, forgiving, social, trustworthy, and helpful and they find themselves attractive. According to the 'social relations' sub-inventory of "social compliance", these individuals are highly skillful at social relations, happy, talkative, loving, caring and tolerant. The results of the current study are consistent with those of Costa et al. (1988) in this respect.

In order to satisfy their psychological needs, individuals can make musical choices. "Individuals are more likely to listen to the music genre that will carry them to ideal level of consciousness" (Eysenck, 1990; Zuckerman, 1979). For example outgoing individuals are thought not to perceive environmental effects as a high pitch stimulant; therefore they try to balance this by listening to their favorite music as a way of increasing the level of stimulus. In contrast, those who perceive environmental effects as a harsh stimulant, refrain from listening to music genres that include many stimulants (Daoussis and McKelvie, 1986). In the "Psychotic symptoms" and "social relations" sub-inventory profiles of the personal, social and general incompatible criteria of the HPI, it can be seen that these individuals do not feel comfortable in society, do not like talking to others, want to get away from society and are very sensitive to and resentful of environmental conditions.

The majority of studies in literature on the relationship between music preference and personality have findings in parallel with those of the current study. Therefore, it is possible to say that there is a relationship between the preferred music type of trainee music teachers and their personal, social and general compliance levels. The significant findings of this study can be evaluated as demonstrating that the compliance levels of those listening to rock music were lower than of those who listened to pop, classical or traditional music and the compliance levels of those listening to music in a minor tone were lower than of those listening in major tone.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Challenges of teacher leadership in a Saudi school: Why are teachers not leaders?

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Teaching as a legitimate profession where teachers could practice their leadership agency as leaders has been under debate over the last two decades. The support for teachers' inclusion in the development of schools as well as their leadership is numerous and varies. There seems to be a few when it comes to teacher leadership in the Saudi context. Teachers' professional identity as a downgraded profession leads to the status of the profession of teaching as a flat career where head teachers are viewed as decision makers whereas teachers as followers. This hegemony, which i a critical issue has attributed to school culture of distrusted, undervalued and marginalised situation for teachers. This small scale study investigates how English language teachers in a Saudi school are viewed in the context of teacher leadership and the challenges that disempower them from being legitimate leaders in their profession. Specifically, the study aims to explore whether these teachers are able to practice their identity and agency as leaders in their classroom as well as the school development. Three Saudi English Language teachers were interviewed where semi-structures interviews were used to collect data; they were transcribed, coded and thematically analyzed. One of its findings is teachers recognize themselves as legitimate leaders and school culture and top-down policy are two factors that disempower them from practicing their leadership capacity.

Key words: Agency, identity, teacher leadership.

INTRODUCTION

Much of the literature in education has asserted that the empowerment of teachers to take roles in their profession is a necessary need to help reform education (Msila, 2012). However, the hegemony of head teachers as the main figure leaders in schools has positioned teachers as followers of passive identities (Gunter, 2001). Thus, many teachers have to abide by the top-down only policies even though they might be against their own professional principles. This leads to a situation where teachers live a professional schizophrenia and are torn between the

institutional policies and their own pedagogical principles (Critical Issues Module Hand-outs, 2011). This is against the principle that teachers are considered to be the core professional resource and they need to be engaged in policies and decision-making especially that relates directly to their teaching issues. In this regard, education has to take into consideration the need to boast the inclusion of teachers in its policy making and school development processes by empowering them to practise their teacher leadership. This empowerment could

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happen if they are included in the daily leadership roles especially those that relate to their classrooms and the other roles that relate to the development of their schools to become successful teacher leaders (Grant, 2005).

To clarify what is meant by teacher leadership, the study utilises the definition of Harris and Muijs (2003) who define teacher leaders as "teachers who spend the majority of their time in the classroom, but take on different leadership roles at different times". Thus, learning and teaching in the classroom can be seen as the main focus of teacher leadership. This scope and focus is based on the principles of professional development and teacher education as well as students' achievement and growth. However, teacher leadership takes other formal roles, such as subject leader, beyond the classroom teaching and learning where teachers act with empowerment to engage in the school development. What the meaning of teacher leadership entails, as the study supports, does not relate to leadership as power. Rather, it is about moving the giant and potential agency of teachers to take part in the school reform. According to Wasley (1991), teacher leadership is seen as "the ability to encourage colleagues to change, to do things they wouldn't ordinarily consider without the influence of the leader" (p.23).

However, teacher's role in many educational context, like the Saudi context, is still limited in school leadership to the daily managerial routine of the classroom which is mainly about how to teach creatively, how to be good at class management, how to evaluate students' growth and how to cope with learners' behaviour. These can be seen as classical managerial roles that do not constitute leadership as it should be. These managerial roles as well as the overload work of teachers put them in a situation of pressure and a space of limited time to think of their professional roles as teacher leaders. Troudi (2009) mentioned that teachers do not often receive the recognition they deserve for their contribution to the making of literate societies. He added that "Despite their love of teaching, teachers can be affected by their work conditions, managerial decisions, lack of support, a volatile social status and mainly a change in the nature of education in most parts of the world". Such situation can keep teachers out of leadership roles in their profession and could lead to psychological situations where they remain as followers in their school community.

This small scale study aimed to revisit the role of English language teachers in a Saudi school and address beliefs of teachers about issues of teacher leadership in education. The study specifically looked into the practices and policies that relate to teacher leadership focusing particularly on the extent to which they feel empowered or disempowered to exercise their agency in their teaching. In order to investigate this, the study utilised the following questions:

1. Do teachers perceive themselves as a leaders in their profession?
2. Are pre-service preparatory programs providing teachers with teacher leadership knowledge?
3. Are in-service programs providing teachers with teacher leadership knowledge?
4. How do teachers professionally develop themselves as teacher leaders?

Contextual background and current practice

Public education in Saudi Arabia has witnessed a dramatic change towards the goal of improvement in all its fundamental factors which relate to school buildings, curricula, students and teachers. To exemplify the change towards the development and improvement of its output, King Abdullah project, which is one of the projects to reform education system in Saudi Arabia, is established recently to ensure the success in the development of public education and support its stakeholders to lead the future of the nation. The focus of the project is to contribute to the development of the teachers and head teachers, and to develop the existing curriculum to improve the level of its students. However, it is worth mentioning that more efforts are required to develop the aims of the project to deal with educational leadership as an important subject and field to improve the quality of teachers as leaders in Saudi Arabia, let alone discuss leadership aspects that relate to teachers (Alabaas, 2010). To this end, head teachers can be seen as the main figures that the Ministry of Education depend on them for the reform of its schools. These head teachers see themselves as the mere responsible agents in the school who have their power from top-down policy and practises this with their followers, the teachers (Drummond and Al-Anazi, 1997).

In practice, working in public education as a teacher for two years, head of English language supervision for five years and then as the manager of teachers' affairs for four years, this helps to researcher to have a thoughtful consideration and a contextual image about the issue of teacher leadership. Issues of top down approaches where teachers are seen not as profession builders are prevailing. This makes teachers become dependent on their head teachers and supervisors to be their expert for materials, development need, approaches and strict guidelines where step by step programmes are tailored. Every teacher is also shaped to be similar to others regardless of contextual differences prevalent amongst these. The author used to know that language theories, strategies, principles, policies and concepts are the product of expertise which could be stable, rigid, ahistorical and decontextualized. Moreover, the books of applied linguistics and education are thought to be of paramount and influential work in the mainstreams. These books were thought to lead to the success in the processes of teaching, learning, policy making,

leadership, curriculum building and teachers' develop-ment. In addition, that applied linguistics topics cover all the language related theories and concepts. The author's previous thoughts were framed by language imperialism (Phillipson's ELT tenets, 1992), the hidden ideologies of language theories and policies, and the closed boxed arena where he and other teachers neglect the importance of locality; he treated his context as a global decontextualized one that posed the foreign culture hidden in the theories and policies of language methods and methodologies. We teachers tend to depend merely on head teachers and senior supervisors to develop our teaching styles and strategies. We see ourselves as illegitimate members in our profession and looked down upon.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research indicates that effective teaching practice could be the result of empowering teachers to function as autonomous professionals, being confident and proud of of the teaching profession (Ware and Kitsantas, 2007). By empowering them as leaders, teacher leadership can help reform movement of teaching and learning, "keep good teachers in education and entice new teachers into the profession. By introducing these new paradigms, the teaching profession will become a truly rewarding experience" (Msila, 2012, p: 106). Literature has also revealed that when teachers practise their agency as they are leaders in their classrooms, they motivate their learners and can be more responsible for their teaching practices instead of waiting for top-down decisions to lead them. Therefore, empowering teachers to strengthen their agency and voice as they work with each other and their students is important to improve their leadership instead of " controlling the quality of their teaching through rigid measures of accountability which can create sites of contention for teachers" (Sawyer, 2001, p.14).

To begin with, the last two decades witnessed radical changes on teacher leadership as a debatable topic (Little, 2003). It has been developed over time to go through three stages or waves (Silva et al., 2000). The first stage described teacher leadership and related its role to the hierarchy within the school and treats the notion as close to the teaching role. Therefore, super-visors and head teachers are the typical model as leaders in their fields (Pounder, 2006). This can be seen as authoritarian style where senior leaders lead teachers as mere followers who are dependent on their top-down policies (Frymier, 1987). In its second stage, teacher leadership began by giving teachers some roles, but they are related to their teaching functions such as team leaders and curriculum developers. Although this stage recognises teachers' roles as the aforementioned ones, it caps them to the low level of leadership which is mainly

managerial work. In the third stage, the concept of leadership in relation to teachers' role begins to theorise about teachers' leadership capabilities, their legitimacy as professional who build up their professionalism, teaching practices and their abilities to contribute to the improve-ment of their school by engaging them to enhance the educational process. Thus, according to the notion of teacher leadership in the third wave, teachers as leaders "help redesign schools, mentor their colleagues, engage in problem solving at the school level, and provide professional growth activities for colleagues" (Silva et al., 2000, P:5).

However, these three stages do not mean the end of teacher leadership waves. Pounder (2007) linked teacher leadership with transformational leadership in his four wave concept. He named this as the fourth wave which is transformational classroom leadership. In this wave, teacher leadership enhances the empowerment of teach-ers and improves their quality. This is achieved where teachers can improve their self-confidence, increase their knowledge and improve their attitude towards their teaching. This leads to empowering teachers to be responsible for their teaching and their students' learning. Furthermore, teacher leadership can be seen as an essential tool to education reform. Teachers as leaders can contribute to the success of the school to "guide fellow teachers as well as the school at large toward higher standards of achievement and individual respon-sibility for school reform" (Silva et al., 2000). This is because they are the front line professionals who know classroom issues, school's culture and the issues that relate to teaching as a legitimate profession and to them as legitimate leaders. This can be achieved by "acknowledging their expertise and contributions and providing opportunities for growth" (York-Barr and Duke, 2004). Another visible result of teacher leadership on the overall success of the school is the professional develop-ment of teachers themselves. This can be assured when "teachers actively pursue leadership opportunities, their lives are enriched and energized, and their knowledge and skills in teaching increase dramatically, leading to increased confidence and a stronger commitment to teaching. Professional growth also occurs as the result of collaboration with peers, assisting other teachers, working with administrators, and being exposed to new ideas" (Bath, 2001). Not only the teacher as a leader can help himself, but also he can provide help for head teachers when they are engaged as leaders in their profession. This can help them to lead the school development and reduce the pressure on the leadership of the school as well by reducing the principal's workload. For example, Barth (ibid) asserted that "When teachers lead, principals extend their own capacity". Thus, the situations "under which teachers work are often set up in such a way as to deny teachers a sense of efficacy, success, and self-worth. There is often too much isolation

and surviving on one's own" (Terry, 2002). The view of agency adopted in this study emphasises the importance of the social settings in which teaching takes place. This indicates that teachers are not working alone in the teaching context, but rather they affect and get affected by the school culture (Toohey, 2007). The societal context of teaching illustrates that the way teachers implement policy in the classroom is not influenced only by policy itself, or by curricula and their supporting materials, but also by the context in which their teaching takes place, their beliefs and attitudes towards pedagogy, as well as their political and personal ideologies.

Teachers' recognition and beliefs about leadership roles can be structured during their university study. These preparatory programs contribute to the shaping of the graduates' beliefs with knowledge of methodologies and theories to manage their profession which is teaching. However, few of them have the depth and breadth of teacher leadership, especially in its third wave concept. Thus, pre-service programmes in Saudi Arabia focused on technical pedagogy rather than practical ones that discover the agenda and sociocultural factors. Moreover, few introduce graduates to critical pedagogy of teaching (Alabaas, 2010). In addition to this, in-service programmes for teacher education affect beliefs of teachers as the real practitioners in their profession. Most of these programmes were of theoretical and mechanical origin which deals with the managerial work of head teachers and they neglect the teacher leadership areas (Fullan, 1993). Moreover, the daily head teachers' practices of leadership in their school and their focus observation also affect teachers' beliefs about good leadership practices. This in hand with the top down managerial visits that are done by supervisors affect teachers' beliefs negatively since supervisors tend to be authoritative during their visits (Alabaas, 2010).

The small scale study

This small scale study aims to gain an in-depth insight about teachers' beliefs and roles in teaching and learning processes. Aiming to explore the roles of teachers as legitimate leaders to practise their identity and agency, this study was informed by the interpretivist paradigm. The study seeks to understand and explore beliefs of the participants, and the researcher' role is to interact with them to reach the meaning, "knowledge is viewed as subjective reality and socially constructed" (Cohen et al., 2000; p:36). Based on the data collected and findings, suggestions for change will be developed.

METHOD

The study utilised the semi-structured interview as the main method to collect the data. This method yields in-depth responses from the interviewees (Silverman, 2006). In the pre-interviews, questions of the interview were piloted to evaluate the clarity of the questions and how they are related to the research objectives. Shortly after the Saudi teachers were selected as indicated earlier, a one-hour semi-structured interview was conducted with each of them individually. Objectives of the study were introduced to the interviewees and were assured that the data collected would be used only for this research and their names will not be used for project (they will be given pseudonyms). Finally, interviews were tape-recorded, transcribed and returned back to the interviewees for reviewing, amending or adding new ideas.

Participants

The participants are three Saudi teachers who took part in the study. They have been chosen based on two reasons: purposiveness and accessibility (Cohen et al., 2000; Silverman, 2006). They are male English teachers in a Saudi public school where teachers that have been teaching for more than five years were chosen in order to gain a better perspective over the changes with regards to teacher leadership issues. They were assured of the ethical consideration about their participation in the study. For example, they are given pseudonym names which are: Ali, Ahmed and Khalid. Other ethical issues such as permission to record the interview and a consent letter have been acknowledged with the participants. The interviewees were also informed that they will attain a copy of the research so that they can be assured that their standpoints were not altered.

Limitations of the study

The study, however, is not without any limitations. For example, there is paucity in the literature on issues of teacher leadership in the Saudi educational context. Another limitation was doing Skype interviews due to geographical reasons and time limit. Although it is acceptable to use Skype as a way for collecting data, it might have produced in-depth ideas if it were done face to face. In addition, the data were interpreted by only one researcher making the analysis of the data subjective; while having the data looked at by different researchers would have given the analysis more trustworthiness. The triangulation of analysis by many interpreters (researchers) and the triangulation of methods could be better for the research to yield more data with assurance of trustworthiness and credibility.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

By analysing the data using thematic analysis which " offers an accessible and theoretically-flexible approach to analysing qualitative data" (Braun and Clarke, 2006, P:3), a large number of themes emerged such as teachers as legitimate leaders, disempowerment of teachers, management and leadership, responsibility of teachers in the school and weaknesses of teacher's education programmes. However, due to the limited scope of this study, only the major themes that reoccurred in the data most frequently were analysed. The data clearly indicate that the teachers viewed themselves as legitimate leaders by showing their desire to contribute to the leadership of the school.

Teachers as legitimate leaders

The study findings reveal that teachers in this study view

themselves as legitimate leaders who believe that head teachers should engage them in different opportunities to participate in school leadership processes and the general school development plans. Moreover, they show their eagerness to be involved in the school developmental plans and strategic actions, especially those which may affect teachers' work, their classroom and teaching issues. This is clear in the following quotes:

Ali: *"I think that it is very crucial for me to be a teacher leader. I believe that if I do not try to be a leader, others will take control; I mean head teacher and my English supervisor"*.

Hassan: *"I view myself as a leader in my subject and with my students. Even if head teacher acts authoritarian, he cannot force me to apply his instruction in my classroom. You know it is my privacy and power"*.

Khalid: *"teachers always are able to demonstrate their abilities without any power on them. It is my identity as a teacher to say and react in my teaching styles, curriculum and the discipline of my students in my classrooms"*.

All the participants recognize themselves as legitimate leaders. They indicated that their agency, voice and identity are of paramount to their practices and the practices of others such as head teachers and supervisors. However, they did not indicate the opportunities that they feel they can practise their leadership inside and beyond their classrooms. Here, it is advisable for head teachers and supervisors to engage teachers with them at a professional level instead of dealing with them as passive agent by positioning them as followers of passive identities (Gunter, 2001). This awareness by teachers to their agency and identity as they are legitimate leaders needs to be recognised senior leaders. If not, these might have negative impacts on the process of teaching and learning and might lead to professional schizophrenia from the side of teachers (Murphy, 1990). In order not to reach this level of leadership disempowerment, distributed leadership, teacher leadership is one of its faces, might lead to a better situation as Harris (2003) asserted that "The literature on teacher leadership suggests that distributing leadership to teachers may contribute to building professional learning communities within and between schools" (p.313).

Teachers' disempowerment

The data revealed that teachers have been disempowered to practise their leadership as legitimate leaders although they view themselves as teacher leaders with potential agency. They indicated that the top-down strategy is prevailing in their teaching context. For example, Ali mentioned that:

"We lack voices on the main issues that relate to our teaching. We are forced to apply and follow the teacher's guide book, this is only one example. We were always watched by our head teachers".

This is also indicated by Khalid who contends that:

"Unfortunately teachers don't have any saying in their profession. This is because the system just recognises us as employees which are to follow the instruction. They do not believe in us".

Hassan also sees that many factors are impeding their leadership practices. According to him *"authoritarian head teachers, ignorance of the system, top down policies, overloaded work hours and weaknesses of training courses put us as teachers in a weaker position to control our classes let alone practise our full leadership power"*.

Teachers assert that top down policies, the marginalisation by headteachers disempower them as being active agent in their profession. Moreover, the overload timetable and teaching hours let them have no time for leadership activities by having many responsibilities, which hinder them to practise their leadership. Moreover, resistance from colleagues and head teachers can be seen as another factor that might be seen as an obstacle for teachers to show their leadership abilities to the community of the school. In addition, teachers are controlled in their classes which in turn put them in a "weaker position" and become "bored, resentful, and unhappy by focusing merely on tests and raising students' scores rather than taking on leadership responsibilities" (Barth, 2001). Thus, head teachers can be seen as authoritarian people who have pressure on their teaches as followers to stress them to practise what they ask them to do regardless of their abilities, agency and qualifications to act on their owns. For examples, teachers might not be able to express their voice on the issues such as the choice of their teaching methodologies, building their materials and the structure of their exams. This can lead to a situation where teachers lose their autonomy which in turn might affect their desire and creativity to contribute to their leadership abilities and the development of their school. In most cases, this situation could have negative impacts on teachers who "have little or no say in scheduling, class placement, how specialists are assigned, decisions on hiring new teachers, and, perhaps most telling at ground level, the preparation of budgets and materials" (ibid). Conversely, teachers act beyond their capacity if they are treated as leaders and insiders of the education process. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) asserted that "When given opportunities to lead, teachers can influence school reform efforts. Waking this sleeping giant of teacher leadership has unlimited potential in making a real difference in the pace

and depth of school change" p: 216.

Weaknesses of teacher's education programmes

Teachers are treated as unprofessional by ignoring them from leadership practices especially when they lack material of supports for their teacher leadership. The support that teachers need can be described as the education they receive in their preparatory programmes in universities and the in-service ones. This is indicated in the following quotes by the participants:

Ali: *"I remembered what the university introduced to us in regards to teacher education. I can say nothing was introduced in relation to teacher leadership except class management and theories of teaching, I mean theory based knowledge".*

Hassan: *"the programmes that are introduced to us are top-down and we are chosen to attend in a random basis. I think they are merely about teaching styles, lesson preparation and the stuff of learning theories".*

Khalid: *"frankly speaking, our training programmes were done by non-specialists. They did not consult us or engage us in choosing them. They are one size fits all".*

Thus, pre-service and in-service programmes need to take into consideration the big picture about education and the need to think about the professional and cultural agenda of teacher education. Teachers need practical knowledge about current issues that relate to public education to empower their knowledge of leadership opportunities and practices. Here, the programmes of teacher development might consider the potential capacity, the professional identity and agency of teachers by providing them "opportunities to grow and lead while remaining in the classroom" (Frank, 2011).

RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Teachers can be engaged as leaders in decision-making since they are fundamental resources for the effective leadership of the school. Thus, teacher education models, as Handler (2010) asserted that need to be "adjusted to provide pre-service educators adequate knowledge of theory and critical pedagogy such that these teachers may understand the situation at the deeper level necessary to make decisions beyond the classroom level". In a nutshell, teacher preparation programs should offer their attendees the thorough courses that would provide depth and breadth under-standing of educational provision. This calls the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia to encourage and support training programmes and other in-service teachers'

development. In addition, treating teachers as legitimate leaders can be seen important since the awareness of the teachers in regard to their agency and identity is high as the study revealed, the Ministry of Education can cope with this demand by recognising them as legitimate and offer them opportunities that lead them to be engaged in the educational reform in their classrooms and beyond that to reach the curriculum building, their teacher education and teaching practices, just to name a few. The study also suggests engaging head teachers and teachers to take part in research and studies that relate to this essential area for teachers' development because there are few educational researches on teacher leadership issues in Saudi Arabia

Conclusion

Focusing on the complexity of teacher leadership situation in Saudi Arabia, it is not reasonable to just deal with this issue as a problematic and an area that lacks more research to deal with it. Instead, we need to challenge this topic area and study the practices of teachers as legitimate figures who can contribute to their immediate profession as the front line professional. Thus, if teachers are to be engaged to practise their leadership roles, they should have both the depth and breadth in their understanding of education as a whole process. This can be done through their teacher preparation programmes with careful consideration of both content and criteria. In this case, we can ensure that they have the depth of knowledge that is a prerequisite for their teaching and is required to fulfil that role as effective leaders. Support for this might begin in their graduate preparation programs and continue through professional development training in-sessional programmes. Finally, it is hoped that the findings of this study could contribute to the reform of the Saudi Arabian education by raising the awareness of its decision makers to rethink about their valuable teachers as legitimate and provide them the opportunities to help with the overall reform that is intended and planned by the numerous projects that have been implanted by the Ministry of Education. It is further hoped that the head teacher could realise the potentials that their teachers have in the school and inside the classrooms. This can achieve the reform and take over many responsibilities that can be done by teachers to share the pressures with the school head teacher.

To this end, it is recommended further research to study this issue in depth by overcoming the limitations that this study could not avoid because of time and resources.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Violence in schools: From the perspective of students, teachers, and mothers

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How school violence is perceived by the members of school is of importance because their conceptions might affect their understanding of the reasons and consequently, finding the solutions. The objective of this study is to analyze how students, teachers, and mothers perceive an event of school violence. The study was conducted in high schools with a mid-socioeconomic level in Adana city located in the Southern Region of Turkey. A purported event of school violence was staged in front of a group consisting of 36 students, 16 teachers and 17 mothers. The participants were asked to evaluate the event they watched in a written form. In terms of the findings about defining what the problem is, the results showed that a great majority of the students and mothers focused on the context of clearly displayed violence, while the teachers, on the other hand, focused on the ways of communication and the shortcomings in behavior while defining the problem. Based on the comments received on who is acting inappropriately in a problem situation, the majority of the students and teachers feel that the behavior of teachers is inappropriate. In a situation like this, they pointed out, that the teacher has to be more sympathetic, more tolerant, and has to make better contacts with the students.

Key words: School violence, violence scenario, mother, teacher.

INTRODUCTION

In a report published by WHO (World Health Organization) on violence and health, it is noted that violence among the youngsters is one of the most commonly observed types of violence in society. Every other day, news reports on the violence by youngsters in streets or gangs at schools make headlines in newspapers and the mass media. Violence among youngsters affects not only the victims, but also their parents, friends, and the society as a whole. The effects of violence are not just sickness and injuries; rather it

affects the quality of life as a whole (Krug et al., 2002, p.25). Just as anywhere in the world, violence in schools is also experienced in Turkey. In line with this fact, an international version of questionnaire in Health Behavior in School Age Children (HBSC) was distributed to 1720 students living in the metropolitan city of Turkey, İstanbul so as to determine the extent of violent behavior among high school students. The results of this research revealed that 42% of the students were involved in at least one case of physical fight in the last 12 months and

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7% of the students had to undergo a medical intervention. In addition, it was found that the rate of the students engaging in bullying behavior during their school life was 30% and that of students carrying a gun within the borders of the school was 8% (Alikaşifoğlu et al., 2004). In another study conducted with high school students, it was found that the percentage of the students engaged in verbal bullying was 33.5%; in physical bullying was 35,5%; in affective bullying was 28,3%; and in sexual bullying was 15% (Kepenekçi and Çınkır, 2006). Basic strategies on the prevention and reduction of violence in educational environments and an action plan were developed and implemented against the ever-increasing violence in schools in Turkey, by the Ministry of National Education with support from various institutions and the UNICEF on July 4, 2006 (MEB, 2006).

In order for a violence prevention program to be effective, it is necessary to build mutual cooperation and participation of all school members, including students, staff, and parents (Jimerson and Furlong, 2006; Waasdorp et al., 2011). While many bullying prevention programs aim to include all these multiple partners, cognitive differences between the students, the staff, and the parents were investigated in a few studies according to the school environment. In a study investigating the environment of bullying based on multiple perspectives, it was found that there were perceptual discrepancies between the students, the school staff, and the parents (Waasdorp at al., 2011). The results of a study investigating the perceptions of school staff toward violence showed that the school staffs were afraid not only of the behavior of the students but also of their parents. The researchers suggest taking this issue into consideration in future as the behavior of parents with respect to school violence is not fully understood (Pietrzak et al., 1988).

When the description by secondary school students and the school staff and the perceived seriousness of bullying behavior comprising aggression were compared, it was found that the students and the teachers differ in their opinion (Maunder et al., 2010). In a qualitative case study of violence in schools, the following questions, in particular, were tried to be answered: How do students and teachers define violence? When and how does violence start? Who resorts to violence? Whom from and how do students get help when they face violence? Who are the ones resorting to violence the most in school? What are the probable solutions to prevent violence in school? According to the results of the research, it was observed that students had the tendency to resort to violence when they had disagreements with each other; they believed that violence is unavoidable; they usually perceived violence as a physical behavior; and they stated that they resorted to violence as they were also exposed to violence. It was observed that the students' and the teachers' definition of violence were similar. The

students, teachers, and parents who participated in the study on violence in school revealed that the definition of violence could change with respect to situations. In other words, a case that is perceived as violence in a particular environment cannot be perceived as violence in another (Altun and Baker, 2010).

It is important to see how the events including violence are perceived by the members of the school society, since the way they perceive might influence finding the reasons of the problem and eventually the solutions to the problem. Besides, the variations in the definitions might result in an inconsistent approach, and it can affect the outcomes of the interventions. In this regard, data were obtained in the workshop conducted for students, parents and teachers by researchers in the scope of a project entitled, "Non- Violence Rules− Schools without violence" (LLLP, 2010) under the financial support of European Union Education and Youth Programmes− Comenius Regio Partnerships and the coordination of Adana Directorate of National Education in Turkey. The focus of the workshop was on two main topics. In the first stage, it was aimed at revealing how a case of violence in the classroom was evaluated by the students, the teachers, and the mothers. In the second stage, it was aimed at finding the proposals of the students, the teachers, and the mothers in order to prevent violence in school. The results of the study designed to answer the first question of the research are presented in this article. In the first part of the research, a purported incidence of violence was scripted and staged in front of the working group. The students, the teachers, and the mothers who watched this performance were asked to answer the following three questions about the staged performance:

(1) What is the situation in the scenario watched by you?
(2) Who is acting inappropriately in the observed problem situation?
(3) What are your suggestions as the solution to the situation in question?

METHODS

Participants

The participants were classified into two study groups. The study was conducted in high schools with a mid-socioeconomic level under the scope of the project entitled, "No Violence in Schools" in Adana city located in the southern region of Turkey. A working group of 80 people (40 students, 20 mothers, 20 teachers) from two schools, covered by the project, was invited to participate in the workshop conducted in the school's theatre. For this study, ninth grade students (15-16 years) were chosen, and the mothers and the teachers of the selected students were taken into consideration. The aim of the study was explained to the selected group. A scripted violent scenario in the class within the scope of work was staged in front of the group. A people group, who wanted to participate as volunteers after demonstration, was selected for evaluation of the staged scene. A total of 36 students (14-15 years), 17 mothers, and 16 teachers participated in the study.

Table 1. The questions which were asked to the participants about the scenario.

1	What is the problem?
2	Who is the incorrect person in the situation and why?
3	Who is the person resorting to violence?
4	Who is the person exposed to violence?
5	What is the reason of the problem?
6	Can the problem be solved in other ways? If yes, how?

The research process

A purported scenario of violence in classroom usually experienced at schools that causes stress was scripted. In the scenario, to enable viewers to better understand and interpret the events, the most often experienced events of violence in class that create a situation of stress were determined, and this scenario was adopted as a screenplay. According to the scenario, Mehmet did not do mathematics homework on that day. During the homework control, when it is time to check Mehmet's assignment, he says that one of his relatives had passed away and, hence, he could not do his homework. The teacher says, "This is not my problem. You always have an excuse"; and he gets angry with Mehmet, as he did not do his homework, and scores him zero. Mehmet gets annoyed and punches his teacher. Mehmet is sent to the discipline committee at school. His father is invited to the school and the event is told. His father says, "How dare you punch your teacher? He is both your elder and your teacher", and slaps Mehmet. Finally, Mehmet is admitted to another school. To enable the participants to focus on issues and to draw attention to the subject, the visualization of prepared material has been found useful and the scenario was staged as a drama. The scenario was staged in the school's hall by the students who are members of theatre club at Çukurova University, for the mothers, the teachers, and the students. Then, they were asked to answer the questions about the play in writing.

Data collection tool

A semi-structured questionnaire was prepared on the possible violent scenario in the classroom. The participants were asked to answer the open-ended questions about the scenario in writing (Table 1). While the open-ended questions provide the researcher with an opportunity for a flexible approach on the topic he wants to research, they prevent the important variables from being overlooked as well (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005). The questions that were asked to the participants were as follows: What was the problem in the scenario? Who did act inappropriately and why was it inappropriate? And, what other means can be used to solve the problem?

The analysis of data

The written answers given by the participants to the open-ended questions were analyzed through content analysis. The written explanation of each participant was analyzed; the main themes were determined within the scope of the research question; and explanations were compared with other explanations perpetually and common themes were determined (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005). In this process, the papers of the participants were numbered in the first place and then the specified

codes were identified. Finally, they were combined under common main themes. These common themes were converted into a table based on the prevalence.

In order to increase the reliability of the study, the defined categories and common themes were investigated separately by another expert colleague who was experienced in qualitative research and possessed a doctoral degree in education, and was employed at the same university. In addition, the discrepancies between the common themes were resolved together by the two researchers. Finally, there was a common accord on the codification and categories.

RESULTS

All the answers given by the participants of the research were analyzed in order to find the common themes, and are summarized as follows under three headings:

Definition of the problem

The data obtained from the answers of the students, teachers, and mothers to the question "What is the problem?" aim to define the problem in the scenario and is summarized in Table 2.

Based on the data obtained from the students, the teachers, and mothers, four themes—homework, violence, deficiency and system—were identified for determining the problem (Table 2).

The Theme of Homework: It was observed that the code of "not doing homework" was stated as the problem by 8 students, 4 teachers, and 7 mothers. The sample expressions from these answers include the response of one student that states, "I think the first reason is the student not doing homework, suffering oppression, and being scored zero"; while another student wrote that, "the student not doing homework and the teacher scoring the student zero and insulting"; one teacher wrote, "the student not doing homework, the teachers' and parents' overreaction"; another teacher wrote, "the student not doing homework"; one mother wrote, "the student not doing homework and the teacher resorting to violence".

The Theme of Violence: It was observed that 10 students opted for the code 10, i.e., "the teachers insulting" in the

Table 2. Students', teachers' and mothers; definitions of the situation.

Theme	Sub-theme	Code	Students (36)	Teachers (16)	Mothers (17)
Homework		Not doing homework	8	4	7
Violence	Verbal violence	The teacher insulting	10		1
	Physical violence	Violence against teachers	5	1	2
		Violence by teachers	4		2
	Verbal and physical	Resorting to violence	10	3	5
		Overreaction of the teachers and mothers		1	
		The teacher facing the student out		1	
Deficiency	Behaviour	Misbehaviors of the teacher and the student		1	1
		Deficiency in the sense of mission		1	
		Lack of education	2		3
		The student not being able to control anger	1		1
		The student's deficiency in expressing his or her feelings		1	
	Communication	Lack of healthy communication	4	3	
		Lack of sympathy	1	2	
		Lack of empathy		1	
System	Educational system			2	

sub-theme of verbal violence. The code for "resorting to violence" under the sub-theme of verbal and physical was stated by 10 teachers, 5 mothers, and 3 teachers. The code for "resorting to violence against teachers" was stated by 5 students and 2 mothers. The code for "teacher resorting to violence" was opted for by 4 students and 2 mothers. It was observed that the students and the mothers were the majority of the participants who defined the problem as violence. The sample expressions are as follows: One mother wrote, "the student not doing homework and the teacher scoring the student zero and insulting"; another mother opined, "violence and ignorance"; one student expressed, "the teacher is guilty as he insulted the student and the student is guilty as he slapped the teacher".

The Theme of Deficiency: Under the sub-theme of behavior, the teachers opined as "misbehaviors of the teacher and the student" and "deficiency in the sense of mission"; while the mothers and the students emphasized "lack of education" and "the student inability to control his anger". Under the sub-theme of communication, the teachers pointed to "lack of healthy communication", "lack of tolerance", and "lack of empathy". It was observed that the teachers focused more on the themes of communication and lack of behavior. The sample statements are as follows: one teacher stated, "the teacher not being able to build a healthy communication"; another teacher wrote, "The teacher's attitude and the student's behavior are wrong".

The remarks on who acted inappropriately in the situation and its reason

When the answers to the question, "who acted inappropriately according to the problem situation?" were analyzed, it was found that 13 students, 12 teachers, and 10 mothers felt that the guilty person was the student. On the contrary, 29 students, 13 teachers, and 8 mothers held the teacher accountable.

With reference to the reason of the violence; one mother expressed, "the student is the person who acted inappropriately as he slapped the teacher"; another mother stated, "The student is the person who acted inappropriately as he did not do his homework and slapped his teacher"; one teacher wrote, "The person who acted inappropriately is the teacher as he could not build a healthy communication"; another teacher said that, "the student and the mother are the persons who acted inappropriately as the student tries to resort to violence in school since he is exposed to violence back home". One student wrote that, "Both the student and the teacher are the persons who acted inappropriately since the student would not have resorted to violence had the teacher not resorted to violence. The first person who acted inappropriately is the teacher"; another student wrote, "The teacher is the person who acted inappropriately as he insulted the student"; another student expressed, "the teacher is the person who acted inappropriately as he should not have threatened the student. The problem might have been solved by soft

Table 3. The codes, themes and frequencies obtained from the answers of the students, the teachers and the mothers about the solution of the problem situation.

Theme	Code	Student N (36)	Teacher N (16)	Mother N (17)
Communication	Talking	16	4	7
	Listening without prejudice	2	1	3
	Apologizing from the teacher			1
	Communicating		2	
Sympathy and tolerance	Staying calm, sympathetic and tolerant	11	5	1
	Giving some time to student		1	
	Forgiving the student for once	2		1
	Ignoring		1	
	Searching the reason	1	2	2
	Criticizing himself or herself			1
Behaviour	The teacher's changing his or her behaviours		1	
	Not resorting to pressure and violence	1		
	Taking precautions		1	
	Giving different homework	1		
Getting help	Getting help from the school counselor		2	1
	Not including the headmaster into the problem	1		

words"; another student stated, "the teacher is the person who acted inappropriately as the student forgot to do his homework just like me".

The remarks on the solution to the problem

The data obtained from the answers of the students, teachers, and mothers on the solution to the problem are summarized in Table 3.

The evaluations of the solutions to the problem summarized in Table 3 can be sub-divided as follows:

The Theme of Communication: A solution proposed for the problem by 16 students, 4 teachers, and 7 mothers is through "talking"; 3 mothers proposed, "listening without prejudice", and 2 teachers suggested, "building communication". One mother opined, "both sides should listen to each other without prejudice"; another mother expressed, "the teacher and the parent should know how to listen"; one teacher felt that "the teacher should listen to the student and show empathy and..."; another teacher wrote, "if the teacher had built communication instead of putting pressure on the student, it would have resulted in a different way"; one student felt, "the problem could have been solved by talking and showing tolerance"; another student noted, "the problem might have been solved by using soft words", and "it can be solved by talking sweet".

The Theme of Understanding and Tolerance: 11 students and 4 teachers opted for the code referring to "staying calm and being sympathetic and tolerant". One student noted, "the teacher might have been more sympathetic"; another student opined, "if the teacher might have been more sympathetic, the student would not have behaved in this way"; one teacher expressed, "the teacher could have behaved more moderately when he had seen that the student was not talking"; another teacher wrote, "the problem could have been solved more easily through perpetual sympathy and tolerance".

DISCUSSION

In this study, a scenario representing a purported violent event was staged in the presence of students, teachers, and mothers and their perceptions about the screenplay were investigated. The usage of qualitative approach in research provides an opportunity to study the perspectives of three groups in a detailed way.

When the findings about the determination of the problem situation in the research were taken into account, it was found that the students, teachers and mothers identified the situation by considering various factors in the scenario about violence. The students and their mothers determined the problem by taking the verbal (the teacher's insulting) and physical violence (resorting

to violence against the teacher and the student) into consideration. In this regard, the expressions of the mothers and the students were found similar. Also in previous studies, it was found that there exists a significant positive relationship between the perceptions of the teenagers' and the parents' attitudes towards violence (Cotton, 1994; Malek et al., 1998; Orpinas et al., 1999; Solomon et al., 2008). The study of Cotton et al. (1994) indicated a significant positive correlation between students' attitudes toward violence and their perceptions of their families' attitudes. Malek et al. (1998) found a strong correlation between students' perceptions of their families' violence-related attitudes and the amount of acquaintance violence among students. In this research, the teachers defined the problem by drawing attention to the problem behaviors such as not being able to control the feelings and building a healthy communication, and the lack of building tolerance and empathy. This result might be an indication which shows that the teachers made an evaluation of the situation more profoundly. Some findings point to the lack of awareness in teachers on this issue. In a study which was carried out at schools under the theme of high social violence, teachers admitted that they lack proper awareness on this issue and that they required some training to deal with students' behaviors in the classrooms, to apply the school rules, and to teach the social skill program (Maring and Koblinsky, 2013). In another study, it was reported that the teachers who received an anti-bullying training dealt with bullying more effectively compared with the teachers who did not receive the training (Sairanen and Pfeffer, 2011). In this study, it can be said that the finding about the teachers is consistent with the results of the studies on teachers' training requirements.

In this study, some students, teachers, and mothers claimed that the person who acted inappropriately was the student for the query on who acted inappropriately and what the reasons of the violence were with reference to the problem situation. They showed the reason for their remark as the student's statements and behaviors about his resorting to violence. A great majority of the students feel that the teacher is the person who acted inappropriately; and most of the teachers found both the student and the teacher as the persons who acted inappropriately. The teachers and the students emphasized on the teacher's negative attitude, insulting, being intolerant, being unsympathetic and violent behaviors as the reasons of the crime. It is understood from these results that the teacher was blamed as he is supposed to be more responsible and show proper behavior. It was also found in earlier studies that the teacher's interaction with the students affected the student's behaviors. It was also found that there exists a strong relationship between the teacher having positive expectations from the student and the sociometric status of the student (the students being loved by his or her peers and being popular). This

finding indicates that being considered positively by the teacher is related with high social status for the student and it was also stated that the students who were considered positively by both friends and teachers displayed a high degree of school self-concept. It was observed, on the other hand, that the students who were perceived negatively by the teachers had negative school self-concepts and low sociometric status (Ochoa et al., 2007). In another study conducted with secondary school students aimed at revealing which intervention strategy the students preferred in case of bullying, the results showed that the students find the intervention of the teacher as the most helpful strategy in cases of bullying (Crothers et al., 2006). This shows that the teachers who are trained to tackle bullying are really important to understand and intervene with the violent cases in schools. There exists a direct correlation between safe school climate and positive learning experiences. Educators have a good reason to deal with violence cases at their schools. The fear of violence interferes with education at schools (Joong and Ridler, 2006). Accordingly, teachers have the power to assess the situations at the school individually and to look for all possibilities so as to reduce the violence cases at schools.

The students, teachers, and parents who emphasized the themes of communication and sympathy indicated tolerance as the solution to the problem. The participants expressed their opinions on subjects, which involved solving the problem by talking, listening without prejudice, building an effective communication, giving some time to student, forgiving the student for once, ignoring, and searching the reason. On the prevention of violence, in the literature, strategies such as improving self-sufficiency, building strong social skills, and developing good relationships with parents and teachers which require the usage of extensive anti-bullying strategies rather than the techniques alone which aim at suppressing are considered as helpful anti-violence strategies. Extensive strategies consisting of 6 elements which are basic in dealing with the violence in schools are defined as follows: long-term anti-bullying strategy and procedures, training of teachers and parents in handling school bullying, providing students with social skills and emotional-control training packages, adopting a multidisciplinary cooperation strategy, involving students in conflict resolution, and an adequate approach for monitoring the situation (Wong, 2004). In this study, the suggestions preferred by the students, parents, and teachers as the solution to the violence case in the scenario, indicate that the strategies discussed above are helpful in dealing with violence.

Limitations

This study has some limitations. As it was a study based

on qualitative analysis, a few working groups were formed. Moreover, the results cannot be generalized for larger groups since the remarks of the participants were recorded in a written form during the evaluation. The students, teachers, and mothers who participated in the study evaluated a purported scenario which was designed for this study and not a real situation. It must also be considered that their reactions might be different when they encounter a real situation.

Conclusion

The present study might contribute to educators to design programs and policies to prevent violence as it offers some insights into how students, teachers, and mothers evaluate a possible case of violence in school, the definition of the problems, and some recommendations as solution to the problem. The students and parents, in general, agreed on similar points in the scenario. This is seen as a significant result as the students can claim that they will get the support of their parents for their negative behaviors. These results are coherent with the explanations of the social learning theory which states that parents are the role models of their children. This finding indicates that it is also important to investigate the family background of the children who get involved in violent cases.

In this study, the teacher is expected to be more responsible, to give more appropriate reactions, and to be part of the solution to the problem in the violence case in the scenario. Furthermore, it reflects that the teachers play important roles in preventing violence; while the teachers pointed to the deficiencies in effective communication and displaying appropriate behaviors. In order for the teachers to handle the violent cases better, it is seen essential to implement positive coping strategies. In this study, the preference for more positive coping strategies as the solution to the problem including violence becomes more of an issue in terms of creating positive atmosphere at schools.

The results of this study provide additional information to the literature which investigates the multi-perspectives intended for a violence case in school. So as to prevent violence in schools, encouraging the active participation of mothers, students, and teachers in the design of intervention programs might increase the efficiency of the program.

The teacher is seen as a key player in solving violent cases in schools. Training the teachers on finding solutions, reflecting positive intervention strategies such as talking and listening, building a healthy communication, being sympathetic and tolerant might lead to the imple-mentation of more effective solutions in possible violent cases or problem in schools.

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