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Learners' preferences of oral corrective feedback: An example of Turkish as a foreign language learners

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The aim of this study is to investigate the oral corrective feedback (OCF) preferences of learners of Turkish as a foreign language (TFL) in order to understand whether they would like their errors to be corrected and, if so, when, which of them, how and by whom they would like to be corrected in the classroom environment. A questionnaire with multiple choices, adapted from the review of Hendrickson (1978), was administered to 165 TFL learners. A total of 141 of the participants were C1 level learners, and 24 of them were B2 level learners. The results show that the vast majority of the participants (97. %) prefer their errors to be corrected, and a smaller majority of them prefer teachers (73.2%) to correct them immediately (58.9%). Just over half (54%) of the participants primarily prefer grammatical errors to be corrected; the most preferred correction strategy (43%) is teachers giving the correct form immediately and the second most preferred correction strategy (21.2%) is teachers repeating the erroneous part of the utterance.

Key words: Second language acquisition, classroom discourse, error correction, error treatment.

INTRODUCTION

As in every learning environment, the errors of the students are unavoidable in foreign/second language environments. There are many variables – such as intelligence, personality, aptitude, gender, motivation, ethnicity and expectations of the learner – that affect foreign and second language development. The teachers' responses to the errors (whether syntactic, lexical, semantic, phonetic, pragmatic, or otherwise) are called corrective feedback (CF). Walsh (2013) states that classroom discourse has a fairly typical and predictable structure, which has three parts: the *Initiation* of the teacher, the *Response* of the student and the *Feedback* of the teacher – commonly abbreviated as IRF – and feedback in this order allows a learner to see whether their response has been accepted or not. The types of CF in general are *oral CF* and *written CF*. The current study is concerned with oral CF. At the beginning of sixties, errors were viewed as the facts that have to be corrected, but by the end of the decade they had become tools for learning (George, 1972 in Hendrickson, 1978). Properly chosen feedback positively enhances students' learning. In other words, errors are the tools to develop learning, if proper CF is provided, because every learner expects to be corrected. The study of Katayama (2007) found that the majority of Japanese ESL students prefer their pragmatic errors to be corrected as well as the other kinds of errors. She relates this situation to the education system of Japan: junior and senior high school students

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are taught grammar-oriented English and they also have a wide range of vocabulary, so this is why they need mostly to improve their pragmatic usage of English, and require pragmatic feedback.

According to Chaudron (1977, p.31), CF is 'any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance'. It is implied that CF's are primarily used to improve the proficiency of the learner. Language teachers or other students in the classroom can provide CF, as can native speakers or other non-native speakers in naturalistic settings (Sheen, 2011).

There are various different methods, from simply indicating a lack of comprehension or signaling the occurrence of an error and getting the learner to self-correct, to the most elaborate grammatical explanation and drill of correct forms to give learners feedback (Crookes and Chaudron, 1991). Request for clarification, confirmation check, recast, repetition, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and explicit correction are the most preferred corrective strategies that teachers employ (Ellis, 2008). In Loewen et al. (2009), it is stated that although students may believe that error correction is essential for language learning, there is no consensus on how this error correction should be implemented. Katayama (2007) reached a similar conclusion; nearly half of the participants (47.3%) in her study disagree that teachers should correct all errors in speaking, and the majority of the participants agreed that the errors that interfere with communication should be corrected. At this point, it is clear that teachers have a critical position; they are the decision makers responsible for choosing the CFs and, in addition to pedagogical targets, they need to be aware of learners' individual differences, needs, levels and expectations. In Ellis's (2008) review of a number of studies, it is clearly seen that teachers employ various corrective strategies and that factors such as instructional contexts, pedagogic focus, style of teaching, etc, affect the strategies they employ.

Ellis (2008) states that early CF research focused on addressing key theoretical issues and describing the corrective practice of teachers, while later research has attempted to investigate whether CF is taken up by learners and whether it actually assists acquisition. One of the earliest reviews (Hendrickson, 1978) addressing questions about error correction in second language learning yielded the following questions, which also provide the starting point for the present study: '1. Should learner errors be corrected?, 2. If so, when should learner errors be corrected?, 3. Which learner errors should be corrected?, 4. How should learner errors be corrected?, 5. Who should correct the learner errors?'. He reviewed a number of studies investigating error correction, and the main conclusions he reached are listed below:

a. If the learners are corrected, they become aware of their mistakes.
b. Correcting *all* the errors is counter-productive. The important point is to make students feel the supportive classroom environment, make them feel confident, and to avoid them suffering embarrassment for their errors.
c. Errors that seriously impair communication, those that stigmatize learner or reader understanding and those which are frequently produced by learners have higher priority than others.
d. Direct types of corrective procedures are in effective.
e. In addition to teacher correction of learner errors, peer-correction and self-correction would be effective facilitators, but differences of learners and the type of the language classrooms should be considered to choose the best instructional strategy.

METHODOLOGY

Research questions

This study aims to find out answers to the research questions posed in the questionnaire, namely:

1. Do TFL learners believe that the errors that they make should be corrected, and what is the breakdown for C1 and B2 level students?
2. According to TFL learners, when should learner errors be corrected, and what is the breakdown for C1 and B2 level students?
3. According to TFL learners, which learner errors should be corrected, and what is the breakdown for C1 and B2 level students?
4. According to TFL learners, how should learner errors be corrected, and what is the breakdown for C1 and B2 level students?
5. According to TFL learners, who should correct the learner errors, and what is the breakdown for C1 and B2 level students?

Limitations of the study

Throughout this study, the term oral corrective feedback (OCR) is used to refer to the feedback given in response to an ill-formed usage of the target language by a student. In other words, only the corrections of erroneous usages in oral language are covered by the questionnaire; didactic CF and written CF are beyond the scope of this study.

The reliability of the findings of this study would be increased if the number of participants of different language levels (such as A1, A2 and B1) was increased.

Setting and participants

The study was carried out at two foreign language teaching centers of two state universities in North-west Turkey at the end of the spring term of the 2013–14 academic year. The participants were international students (aged from 17 to 36) who had studied prep Turkish as a foreign language (TFL) classes. Their aim in learning Turkish is to study at Turkish universities as undergraduate or graduate students, and they are expected to pass a TFL certificate exam at the end of the semester. Various native languages and ethnic backgrounds were represented among the participants (including Arabic, French, English, Russian, Uighur, Uzbek, Polish, Spanish, Mongolian, and Persian). There were two groups of TFL learner: The first group consisted of C1 level learners (N: 141), who are accepted as effective operational proficiency (advanced) level, and the second group consisted of B2 level learners (N: 24) who are accepted as vantage (upper intermediate) level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe 2001: 23). The total number of learners was

one hundred and sixty-five (N: 165).

Instrument

The measurement instrument used in this study was a questionnaire, prepared on the basis of the aforementioned five questions discussed in the review of Hendrickson (1978). Possible answers were adapted from Lyster and Ranta (1997), Ellis (2008) and Sheen (2011) for each question by the author of the present study, and participants were asked to select from the given multiple-choice answers. The questionnaire also included a section about the personal background of participants (age, education, mother language, known foreign language/s and level of Turkish). The content validity of the questionnaire was assessed by two experts (one subject expert and one assessment and evaluation expert) before being given to the students.

Data collection and analysis

As the first step of the data collection process, all the volunteer participants were informed about the content of the study and they signed a consent form confirming their agreement to take part in the research. Secondly, they filled out the questionnaire, which took about fifteen minutes. Subsequently, the data was collated and analyzed.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In the present study, TFL learners' oral corrective feedback (OCF) preferences are investigated in order to discover if they would like their errors to be corrected and, if so, when, which ones, how and by whom they would like to be corrected in the classroom environment. In total, 165 participants of C1 and B2 level took part in the study, 141 of whom were C1 and 24 of whom were B2 level students. Table 1 shows the distribution of participants in each group.

A total of 85.5% of the study sample comprised C1 level participants, while the remaining 14.5% comprised B2 level participants. The questions were grouped into five categories and each question offered multiple-choice answers. Table 2 displays the OCF choices for each question.

The preferences of the participants regarding OCF patterns are given in the following tables. Participants were asked if they would like to be corrected or not, and their responses are summarized in Table 3.

As can be seen in Table 3, the vast majority of both C1 and B2 level participants (97.6%) agree that errors should be corrected. While B2 level participants are unanimous (100%) in thinking that errors should be corrected, 97.2% of the C1 level participants agree. According to Crookes and Chaudron (1991), even in the most learner-centered instruction, students need feedback because they will see the difference between acceptable and unacceptable linguistic usage in the target language, and Gass and Selinker (2008) state that there are numerous ways of providing feedback to learners from the *explicit* (stating that there is a problem) to the *implicit*

Table 1. Distribution of participants according to their language levels.

Participants	No	%
C1 Level	141	85.5
B2 Level	24	14.5
TOTAL	165	100

(feedback during the course of interaction).

The second research question in the questionnaire was 'When should learner errors be corrected?' In Table 4, the findings from this question are presented.

According to Table 4, the majority of both C1 and B2 level participants (58.9% overall) prefer to be corrected '*immediately*', 36.2% of them prefer to be corrected when they finish their utterance, and a small minority of them (4.9%) prefer to be corrected at the end of the lesson. A higher proportion of participants in level B2 (79.2%) indicated a preference for *immediate* correction, while it lowered for those in C1 level (55.4%). In other words, the B2 participants showed a stronger preference to be corrected immediately than the C1 participants. One possible explanation for this result may be the self-confidence of the learner and their proficiency in the target language; when the proficiency increases, self-confidence of the learner may increase as a con-sequence. This explanation requires further detailed qualitative research to be validated.

The third research question was about which types of errors learners preferred to be corrected. In Table 5, the responses of participants concerning which errors should be corrected are illustrated.

As can be seen in Table 5, the majority of both C1 and B2 level participants (54.0% overall) agree that gram-matical errors should be corrected primarily. Studying the breakdown figures, we see that 79.2% of B2 participants express a preference for correction of grammar errors, but a much lower 49.6% of C1 participants agree. While B2 participants wish secondarily for lexical error correction (12.5%) and thirdly for pronunciation error correction (8.3%), there is not a significant difference between the proportions of C1 level participants desiring these two types of correction: 24.5% for lexical and 25.9% for pronunciation errors. One possible explanation for these results is that lower level/proficiency learners (B2) need more structural support (grammatical and lexical) in the target language. As stated before, the participant of TFL learners are expected to continue their university education in Turkish in Turkey. Therefore, they need to become proficient enough in the language in order to follow academic and scientific Turkish. Loewen et al. (2009) state that '*ESL learners were less convinced about the need for grammar instruction and error correction and were more enthusiastic about improving communicative skills than were foreign language learners.*' For example, learners of Arabic and Chinese

Table 2. OCF choices of the questions.

Should errors be corrected?	When should errors be corrected?	Which errors should be corrected?	How should errors be corrected?	Who should correct errors?
Yes	Immediately	Grammar errors	Teacher should give the correct form immediately	Student should correct by him/herself
No	At the end of the utterance	Lexical errors	Teacher should repeat the incorrect part	Teacher should correct
	Altogether, at the end of the lesson	Pronunciation errors	Teacher should repeat the sentence until the incorrect part and then stop to allow student to complete it correctly	Other students
			Teacher should ask student for the correct form	
			Teacher should indicate that the student is incorrect by means of body language	

Table 3. Participants' responses about whether errors should be corrected.

	Should learners' errors be corrected?		
	Yes (%)	No (%)	Total (%)
C1+B2	97.6	2.4	100
C1	97.2	2.8	100
B2	100.0	0.0	100

Table 4. Participants' views regarding the timing of error correction.

	When should learners' errors be corrected?			
	Immediately (%)	At the end of the utterance (%)	Altogether, at the end of the lesson (%)	Total (%)
C1+B2	58.9	36.2	4.9	100
C1	55.4	39.6	5.0	100
B2	79.2	16.7	4.1	100

Table 5. Participants' views regarding which errors should be corrected

	Which learners' errors should be corrected?			
	Grammar errors (%)	Lexical errors (%)	Pronunciation errors (%)	Total (%)
C1+B2	54.0	22.7	23.3	100
C1	49.6	24.5	25.9	100
B2	79.2	12.5	8.3	100

were more positive about grammar and error correction then were learners of other languages. In another study, Katayama (2007) states that 77% of the students agreed teachers should correct their *speaking errors* to improve their accuracy.

Considering the literature, studies are conducted both

Table 6. Participants' views regarding how errors should be corrected.

	How should learners' errors be corrected?					
	Teacher should give the correct form immediately (%)	Teacher should repeat the incorrect part (%)	Teacher should repeat the sentence until the incorrect part and then stop to allow the student to complete it correctly (%)	Teacher should ask student for the correct form (%)	Teacher should indicate that the student is incorrect by means of body language (%)	Total (%)
C1+B2	43.0	21.2	17.0	10.7	8.1	100
C1	44.2	23.2	17.4	8.0	7.2	100
B2	41.7	12.5	16.7	20.8	8.3	100

from the point of view of teachers and students, and the results vary upon the perspective. In his review of a number of studies, Chaudron (1988) states that teachers focus more on discourse, content and lexical errors than phonological and grammatical errors. However, in the present study, participants prefer primarily for their grammatical errors to be corrected. Another example, Brown (2009), is a study about ideal effective teacher behavior in foreign language teaching, and it is stated in that study that while students seem to favor a grammar-based approach, teachers prefer a more communicative classroom. It is clear that more detailed descriptive research is needed, examining both teacher and student perspectives, and the most common errors in accordance with the language and language levels.

The forth research question in the questionnaire was 'How should learner errors be corrected?'. In Table 6, responses of participants are presented regarding how learners' errors should be corrected.

As can be seen in Table 6, the majority of both C1 and B2 level participants (43.0% overall) prefer the method of error correction where the teacher gives the correct form immediately, and secondly they prefer the teacher to repeat the erroneous part of speech (21.2%); the least desired (8.1%) correction type is teachers' use of gestures, mimics, body language, etc. to indicate that student's utterance is erroneous. The ranking of strategies by C1 participants matches the overall order, but B2 participants' rankings are different. The majority of B2 participants (41.7%) prefer the teacher to give the correct form immediately but their secondary choice (20.8%) is waiting for the teacher to ask about the rule. This third most preferred strategy is for the teacher to repeat the sentence until the erroneous point and then stop to let student give the correct form (16.7%). The least preferred correction type (8.3%) is in accordance with the overall result, namely teachers' use of gestures, mimics, body language, etc.

In the second question, participants were asked when they should be corrected and the majority of them indicated a preference to be corrected 'immediately'; this result is compatible with the results of fourth question, which revealed that students prefer to be corrected by the

teacher immediately. Bölükbaş (2011) states that the teacher should correct errors indirectly. Thus the student finds out the mistake by her/himself and gains courage in the target language. Present findings suggest that lower proficiency learners are more focused on the structure of the language and they are less interested in non-verbal corrections such as gesture, mimic or body language in the language learning process.

The study conducted by Fidan and İnan (2012) about OCF patterns in B2 level TFL classes states that one of the most common CF types that teachers use in the classroom is recast, and the least commonly used type is repetition. These findings are consistent with the studies conducted by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster (1988). However, the finding of the present study related to repetition is not consistent with the above studies. While repetition is the second the most preferred corrective strategy across all the participants, the above studies indicate that it is the least used one in the classroom by teachers. This finding suggests that learners' expectations and teachers' preferences may differ. This is why detailed future studies are needed in the field.

The fifth research question in the questionnaire was 'Who should correct the learners' errors?' In Table 7, the findings regarding the preferred person to correct errors are presented.

As can be seen from Table 7, the majority of both C1 and B2 level participants (73.2% overall) prefer teachers to correct their errors. This finding is similar that of the study by Katayama (2007), which states that students had strongly positive attitudes toward teacher correction of errors. On the other hand, when the C1 and B2 participants in the present study are compared to each other, even though the majority of B2 participants (66.7%) prefer teachers, the preference rate is somewhat higher in C1 participants (74.9%). While 33.3% of B2 level participants prefer to correct their errors by themselves, the rate goes down to 23.7% for C1 participants. Peer-correction develops learners' inter-language grammar (Crookes and Chaudron, 2001) but in the present study peer-correction is the lowest preference among the participants. This finding is interesting and it may be linked to the individual differences such as

Table 7. Participants' views regarding who should correct errors.

	Who should correct the learners' errors?			
	Student by him/herself (%)	Teacher (%)	Other students (%)	TOTAL (%)
C1+B2	25.2	73.2	1.6	100
C1	23.7	74.9	1.4	100
B2	33.3	66.7	0.0	100

shyness, lack of self-confidence, fear of making mistakes, or cultural backgrounds of learners. Katayama (2007)'s study is a good example of the effects of cultural background. In the study, a total of 50.6% of participants agreed that they want their classmates to correct their oral errors in group work. She states that Japanese students have negative attitudes toward peer-correction because peer-correction violates the concept of in-group harmony. However, conducting further qualitative research will contribute to the field.

In the study of Bang (1999; in Loewen, 1999), most of the students agreed that oral correction is necessary, but they disagreed about when and how should it be executed. The study's findings are consistent with those of the present study. There are differences in the distribution of TFL learners' preferences between the groups (C1 and B2) about when, how and by whom should it be done. However, there are common preferences as well; the majority of all TFL learners prefer teachers to correct them immediately, they prefer grammatical errors to be corrected primarily, and the most preferred correction strategy is teachers giving the correct form immediately.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

It is commonly accepted that students' errors should be corrected so as to make them aware of the proper target language usage. However, there are no fixed strategies that can be applied universally on any occasion, as is seen in the above discussions. Studies that are related to oral classroom discourse activities – such as Kayı (2010), Fidan and İnan (2012), İnan and Fidan (2013) – on Turkish as a foreign/second language are seemingly very few. In the present study, TFL learners' remarks related to OCF are investigated. Nonetheless, the present study did not ask learners to justify their responses. Future studies should therefore be carried out, with more participants from every level of learning (from A1 to C1), and asking for justifications will lead to improvement of understanding in error treatment in Turkish as foreign/ second language classrooms.

Kayı (2010), in a qualitative study, investigates recast in a TFL class and she states that opinions of students differ related to recast. It is seen as a developer of intrinsic motivation or seen as an inhibitor of the motivation. Thus, taking into consideration individual differences, this is another important issue for TFL studies requiring more detailed work.

Schulz (2001) mentions the significance of teacher education programs and how important they are in changing teachers' perceptions of effective error correction. In order to schedule an efficient teacher education program like the one Schulz proposes, the most common error lists for every level (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1), both for oral and for written language, should be prepared for Turkish. While preparing these kinds of lists, both learners and teachers should be asked about their experiences when they were learning/teaching Turkish. This is why further studies examining the needs of learners and teachers will be helpful especially when preparing materials such as teacher books, course books, etc.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Organizational citizenship levels of academicians in terms of several variables: The sample of Physical Education and Sports Sciences

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This study is performed with 176 academicians working in the institutions related to physical education and sports at universities. It aims to analyze organizational citizenship behaviours of academic personnel about the institutions they have been working in. Descriptive survey model was used, along with demographic data like gender, marital status, academic title. "Organizational Citizenship Behaviour" scale developed by Özaslan et al. and consisting of 21 expressions was used as data collection tool to determine organizational citizenship behaviour of people. Spearman's Correlation coefficient was calculated for the relation between scale scores in the analysis of data. In the analysis of 3 and more groups of Normally Distributed variables ANOVA test was applied. To compare 2 groups of variables which do not come from Normal Distribution in terms of scale score Mann-Whitney U test was used and to compare 3 and more groups of variables in terms of scale scores, Kruskal-Wallis H tests were used. At the end of the research, organizational citizenship behaviour of the participants and the averages related to its dimension were above normal. As a result of additionally made multi comparisons, although a significant result was not obtained between the organizational citizenship behaviour of the participants and its dimension in statistical level according to the working period in the institution, the ages, the marital status and the academic titles of the participants, several significant results were reached statistically according to their genders and administrative position in the institution.

Key words: Academician, organizational citizenship behaviour, altruism, organizational virtue, conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, courtesy.

INTRODUCTION

Organizational citizenship behaviour

With developing technology and therefore in globalizing world, day by day competition between organizations has become more than ever. While conscious consumers encourage this competition, organizations have been making studies intensively on the way of gaining success by making each move which affects their success positively. Human resource which is one of the elements affecting success and efficiency in organizations has a

serious importance in this competition environment.

At the point of increasing the efficiency of the personnel, organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has emerged as one of the concepts seriously emphasized recently. The basis of this concept also known as behaviours beyond role goes to Katz and Kahn (1978) who analyzed the same concept within the context of role beyond and role definition with Barnard (1938). .

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour" concept was defined by Smith et al. for the first time in their works called "Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its Nature and Antecedents" published in 1983 (Smith et al., 1983). Serious studies on organization citizenship behaviour which was evaluated as an important highlight within organizational behaviour were made (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; George and Bettenhausen, 1990; Moorman, 1991; Munene, 1995; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993; Organ, 1988; Organ, 1990; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff and Colgs, 1996a, 1996b; Podsolkoff and Colgs, 1993; Podsakoff and Colgs, 1990, Puffer, 1987; Skarlicki and Latham, 1996; Smith and Colgs, 1983; Williams and Anderson, 1991) They define organizational citizenship behaviour as "behaviours which are performed voluntarily by personnel and are not expressed directly and clearly in job description but have positive contribution to organizational activity" (Vanyperen et al., 1999: 377). In other words, organizational citizenship behaviour can be defined as including devoted behaviours of the personnel who display them for the benefit of the organization without expecting any response.

On the other hand, Greenberg and Baron defined organizational citizenship behaviour as an employee's presenting more than expected from him/her apart from determinated job description in the organization and bounden duty (Greenberg and Baron, 2008). Many examples like personnel's harmony with each other, their healthy and fast communication, fitting more work into working hours voluntarily can be given.

Dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour

Many researchers defined various dimensions about the concept of organizational citizenship behaviour. Organ's five dimensional evaluation "Altruism", "Organizational Virtue", "conscientiousness", "Sportsmanship" and "Courtesy" is evaluated as the most accepted structure in the literature (Organ, 1990).

Altruism

This dimension defined as willingness, valuableness or altruism includes all optional behaviours which personnel exhibit for helping other members of the organization in duty and problems related to the organization (İşbaşı, 2000). This may not be only among the personnel in the organization, may involve third party individuals like suppliers or business associates. Thus, it is expected among the personnel to have synergism, experience share and efficiency increase.

Organizational virtue

Organizational virtue behaviour which was defined as organizational participation by Graham (2000), organizational protection by Brief and Motowidlo (1986) in literature includes allegiance to the organization in all its aspects and the interest at high level (Şahin, 2013). In other words, people not only do the jobs in their job definitions, they also develop innovations for increasing their efficiency voluntarily.

Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness dimension can be characterized as the inner harmony of the personnel against organization rules. That is to say, although there is not a control, the dependence of personnel to business rules expresses conscience dimension of organizational citizenship behaviour.

Organ (1988) defines conscience, as their being volunteers to show behaviour and attendance to work, working regularly at work, punctuality, using resting time correctly and without overrunning beyond minimum role behaviour expected from the personnel.

Sportsmanship

Podsakoff et al. (1996a) evaluate sportsmanship dimension as avoidance behaviour and define it as the organization individuals refraining from negative behaviours which may cause any argument or tension in the organization. The tolerant and non-complaining manners of the personnel against negative events occur within the organization define this dimension.

Courtesy

Personnel in the organizations are in constant communication. This communication can also be evaluated as a piece of work that flows mostly. Organ presents that in case both the style and the content of this communication are performed gently, courtesy dimension of organizational citizenship behaviour develops. The personnel act in kindness both in their ordinary communication and information which can help them to do each other's work better (Sezgin, 2005).

Table 1. Organizational citizenship behaviour of participants and sub-dimension averages.

	N	Average	SD
Altruism dimension	176	3,77	,6233
Organizational Virtue	176	4,05	,545
Conscientiousness Dimension	176	4	,615
Sportmanship Dimension	176	3,87	,585
Courtesy Dimension	176	4,26	,72
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale	176	4,01	,5119

MATERIAL AND METHOD

This study which analyzes organizational citizenship behaviours of the academic personnel according to its several demographic characteristics was implemented with the participation of 176 academicians in physical education and sports department in 2012 academic year. In the study along with demographic data like gender, marital status, academic title, Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) scale which was developed by Özaslan et al. (2009) and consisting of 21 expressions was used.

Mentioned scale is 5 point likert type and has five sub-dimensions of "altruism", "Organizational Virtue", "Conscientiousness", "Sportsmanship" and "Courtesy". As a result of the literature study, the reliability analysis of the scale was determined as cronbach's alpha value "0.720" (Özaslan et al., 2009). In the evaluation of the scale, the average of points total corresponding to the answers which the participant gave was used. In the evaluation of the scale, the total average of score corresponding to the answers of articles given by the participant was used.

The analysis of data was made by using SPSS 15.0 package program. With collecting related scale articles, scale sub-dimension scores and total scale scores were obtained. For scale sub-dimensions score and total scale scores, Normality Analysis was carried out. Analysis result in analyses of variables coming from Normal Distribution parametric test techniques, in analyses of variables not coming from Normal Distribution nonparametric test techniques were used. Significance coefficient was taken as (α) 0.05 in the analyses.

For the relation between scale scores, Spearman's Correlation coefficient was calculated. In the analysis of 3 and more groups of Normally Distributed variables ANOVA Test was applied. To compare 2 groups of variables which do not come from Normal Distribution in terms of scale score Mann-Whitney U test was used; to compare 3 and more groups of variables in terms of scale score, Kruskal-Wallis H test were used.

FINDINGS

According to data obtained, 84.1% of the participants are males (n=148). Classifying the participants according to their working periods in their institutions, it is seen that most participants have been working in the institution for 15 years and more (30.1%; n=53). Again as a result of classifying the participants according to their age groups, it is seen that most participants are between 36-45 age range (43.2%; n=76). In addition to these data, it is seen that most participants are academicians who are married (80.7%; n=142) and do not have administrative position (77.8%; n=137). When academic titles of the participants were analyzed, it is possible to see that majority of 40.9% are academic staff (n=72).

According to Table 1, organizational citizenship behaviour of the participants and sub-dimension averages are at high level. In addition to this, while the highest average of the participants is organizational virtue sub-dimension, the lowest average belongs to altruism sub-dimension.

As a result of classifying participants according to their working periods in the institution, a significant difference is not found among the groups in terms of Altruism, Organizational Virtue, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, and Courtesy sub-dimensions and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (p>0,05) (Table 2).

As a result of classifying participants according to their marital status, a significant difference is not found among the groups in terms of Altruism, Organizational Virtue, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, and Courtesy sub-dimensions and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. (p>0,05) (Table 3).

As a result of classifying participants according to their genders, a significant difference is not found among the groups in terms of Organizational Virtue, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, and Courtesy sub-dimensions and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. (p>0,05). However, there is a significant difference between females and males in terms of Altruism Dimension (p<0,05). Altruism Dimension scores of males are higher (Table 4).

As a result of classifying participants according to their administrative status (being administrator and not) in the institutions they have been working, a significant difference is not found among the groups in terms of Altruism, Organizational Virtue, Sportsmanship, Courtesy sub-dimensions and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. (p>0,05). However, there is a significant difference between the participants who have administrative position and not in terms of Conscientiousness Dimension (p<0,05). Conscientiousness Dimension scores of the ones who have administrative position are higher (Table 5).

As a result of classifying participants according to their academic title, a significant difference is not found among the groups in terms of Altruism and Organizational Virtue

Table 2. Organizational citizenship behaviour of participants according to working periods and comparison of sub-dimension levels.

		Your working period in the institution				Kruskal-Wallis H Test	
		N	Average	SD	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	p
Altruism Dimension	1-2 years	40	3,89	,696	79,26		
	3-8 years	32	3,74	,663	102,23	4,416	0,220
	9-14 years	51	3,82	,473	84,03		
	15 years and more	53	4,06	,663	91,48		
Organizational Virtue	1-2 years	40	4,16	,613	90,96		
	3-8 years	32	4,07	,521	98,30	3,018	0,389
	9-14 years	51	3,97	,466	89,76		
	15 years and more	53	4,02	,576	79,51		
Conscientiousness Dimension	1-2 years	40	4,14	,42	92,34		
	3-8 years	32	4	,495	99,50	2,948	0,400
	9-14 years	51	3,91	,67	85,97		
	15 years and more	53	3,85	,612	81,40		
Sportmanship Dimension	1-2 years	40	3,93	,59	88,45		
	3-8 years	32	3,83	,642	94,41	0,931	0,818
	9-14 years	51	3,88	,565	83,70		
	15 years and more	53	4,32	,577	89,59		
Courtesy Dimension	1-2 years	40	4,39	,767	92,96		
	3-8 years	32	4,2	,682	97,64	2,301	0,512
	9-14 years	51	4,21	,725	82,50		
	15 years and more	53	4,00	,71	85,39		
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale	1-2 years	40	4,12	,575	90,23		
	3-8 years	32	3,99	,494	101,20	2,883	0,410
	9-14 years	51	3,97	,469	84,26		
	15 years and more	53	3,89	,516	83,60		

Table 3. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour of Participants According to Their Marital Status and Comparison of Sub-dimension Levels.

		Marital Status				Mann-Whitney U Test	
		N	Average	SD	Mean Rank	U	p
Altruism Dimension	Married	142	3,77	,593	88,03	2.347,500	0,799
	Single	34	3,76	,746	90,46		
Organizational Virtue	Married	142	4,05	,521	86,95	2.193,500	0,404
	Single	34	4,11	,643	94,99		
Conscientiousness Dimension	Married	142	4,03	,61	89,73	2.240,000	0,509
	Single	34	3,93	,64	83,38		
Sportmanship Dimension	Married	142	3,87	,577	87,67	2.295,500	0,653
	Single	34	3,88	,62	91,99		
Courtesy Dimension	Married	142	4,27	,703	88,33	2.390,500	0,929
	Single	34	4,25	,803	89,19		
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale	Married	142	4,01	,487	87,73	2.304,500	0,681
	Single	34	4,01	,610	91,72		

Table 4. Organizational citizenship behaviour of participants according to their genders and comparison of sub-dimension levels.

		Your Gender			Mann-Whitney U Test		
		N	Average	SD.	Mean Rank	U	P
Altruism dimension	Female	28	3,58	,46	68,80	1.520,500	0,022*
	Male	148	3,81	,643	92,23		
Organizational Virtue	Female	28	3,95	,381	72,32	1.619,000	0,064
	Male	148	4,08	,571	91,56		
Conscientiousness Dimension	Female	28	3,89	,442	72,57	1.626,000	0,068
	Male	148	4,03	,641	91,51		
Sportmanship Dimension	Female	28	3,93	,465	90,54	2.015,000	0,815
	Male	148	3,86	,605	88,11		
Courtesy Dimension	Female	28	4,22	,502	75,57	1.710,000	0,138
	Male	148	4,28	,755	90,95		
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale	Female	28	3,93	,334	72,27	1.617,500	0,066
	Male	148	4,03	,538	91,57		

*p<0.05.

Table 5. Organizational citizenship behaviour of participants according to their administrative status in the institutions they have been working and comparison of sub-dimension levels.

		Do you have administrative position?			Mann-Whitney U Test		
		N	Average	SD.	Mean Rank	U	p
Altruism Dimension	Yes	39	3,84	,483	93,09	2.492,500	0,514
	No	137	3,75	,333	87,19		
Organizational Virtue	Yes	39	4,14	,506	98,36	2.287,000	0,167
	No	137	4,04	,555	85,69		
Conscientiousness Dimension	Yes	39	4,23	,555	108,74	1.882,000	0,004*
	No	137	3,95	,62	82,74		
Sportmanship Dimension	Yes	39	3,89	,567	89,95	2.615,000	0,838
	No	137	3,87	,592	88,09		
Courtesy Dimension	Yes	39	4,44	,627	102,38	2.130,000	0,051
	No	137	4,22	,74	84,55		
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale	Yes	39	4,12	,449	102,55	2.123,500	0,051
	No	137	3,98	,525	84,50		

*p<0,05.

(p>0,05) (Table 6). However, according to the average of Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, and Courtesy sub-dimensions and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, it is seen that there are significant differences among groups statistically (p<0,05). The differences which groups they originate from are presented in Table 7 by determining Post Hoc analysis.

According to multiple comparison results, there are significant differences between academic members and lecturers/instructors in terms of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour and Sportsmanship (p=.001). Accordingly, academic staffs have higher Organizational Citizenship

Table 6. Organizational citizenship behaviour of participants according to their academic titles and comparison of sub-dimension levels.

Dimension	Title	N	Average	SD.	F	P
O.C.B	Academic Staff	72	3.37	.626		
	Research Assistant	33	3.20	.621	6.371	.002*
	Lecturer/Instructor	71	3	.619		
Courtesy	Academic Staff	72	3.3	.758		
	Research Assistant	33	3.02	.855	6.214	.002*
	Lecturer/Instructor	71	2.83	.790		
Sportmanship	Academic Staff	72	3.67	.879		
	Research Assistant	33	3.43	.964	6.985	.001*
	Lecturer/Instructor	71	3.1	.889		
Conscientiousness	Academic Staff	72	3.07	.870		
	Research Assistant	33	2.92	.740	4.440	.013*
	Lecturer/Instructor	71	2.67	.751		
Organizational Virtue	Academic Staff	72	3.31	.692		
	Research Assistant	33	3.23	.682	2.060	.131
	Lecturer/Instructor	71	3.08	.709		
Altruism	Academic Staff	72	3.59	.793		
	Research Assistant	33	3.45	.900	1.454	.237
	Lecturer/Instructor	71	3.35	.830		

p<0,05.

Table 7. Multiple comparison results of organizational citizenship behaviour of participants according to their academic titles and sub-dimension levels.

Post Hoc (Tukey Test)				
Dimension	Comparison		Difference Between Average	Significance
O. C. B.	Academic Member	Research Assistant	.168	.404
		Lecturer/Instructor	.371	.001*
Courtesy	Academic Member	Research Assistant	.279	.215
		Lecturer/Instructor	.464	.002*
Sportmanship	Academic Member	Research Assistant	.230	.443
		Lecturer/Instructor	.560	.001*
Conscientiousness	Academic Member	Research Assistant	.148	.652
		Lecturer/Instructor	.396	.010*

Behaviour and Sportsmanship dimension than lecturers/instructors. On the other hand, again there are significant differences between academic member participants and lecturers/instructors in Courtesy and Conscientiousness dimension averages (p=.002, p=.010). Accordingly, it is seen that academic members have higher averages than lecturers/instructors in dimensions case.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

At the end of this study which analyzes organizational citizenship behaviour of academic staff with the participation of 176 academicians, it is seen that it has a high average in organizational citizenship behaviour of the participants and sub-dimensions (OCB, X=4,01±,5119; Altruism, X=3.77±,6233; Organizational Virtue, X=4,05±,545; Conscientiousness, X=4±.615; Sportsmanship, X=3,87±.585; Courtesy, X=4,26±.72). It can be considered that academicians who come together and perform activities like class distributions, exams and academic studies affect organizational citizenship behaviours positively. With regards to sub-dimensions it can be said that as there is less bureaucratic hierarchy and their educational levels are high, it caused that Altruism and Sportsmanship dimensions of the academicians at universities are high. In related literature for example, in the study of Podsakoff et al. (1996a)

where they form a general frame for organizational citizenship behaviour, it is also stated that educational level, team spirit and hierarchy factors are effective in organizational citizenship behaviour and sub-dimensions.

A significant difference between participants working period in their institutions and organizational citizenship behaviours was not found statistically. However, it is seen that participants who have 1-2 year working period in the institutions have higher averages than other groups in courtesy, Conscientiousness and organizational virtue dimensions than organizational citizenship behaviour and its dimensions. Participants who have 15 year and more working period in the institution have more average than other groups in sportsmanship and altruism sub-dimensions. It is natural that people who start working recently want to develop more polite relations among each other with colleagues they have just become sincere. This situation can explain that people working 1-2 years have higher average than other groups in courtesy dimension. On the other hand, it can be evaluated conceivably that people who start working recently show behaviours including Conscientiousness and organizational virtue dimensions with triggering senses of belonging in institutional sense. It is possible to see altruism and sportsmanship behaviours of people whose working period in the institution is 15 years and more originating from owning institution and experience. When the related literature is analyzed it points out that organizational citizenship behaviour dimensions appears differently according to working periods of people in the institution (MacKenzie and Colgs, 1991,1993; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994). In other words, differences in terms of organizational citizenship behaviour dimensions between experienced personnel in the institution and personnel with less experience relatively can occur. For example, Podsakoff and McKenzie emphasized in their studies in 1997 that data and experience sharing happened as a good example of in-house relations between experienced personnel and inexperienced ones.

A significant difference was not encountered as a result of comparing participants' marital status and organizational citizenship behaviour and its dimensions statistically. Moreover, the average of organizational citizenship behaviour is the same in two groups. In the relevant analysis of literature it is seen that there are a few studies including marital status and organizational citizenship behaviour and dimensions variables and this study will be an example in the literature with this aspect.

As a result of evaluating participants' organizational citizenship behaviour and its dimensions according to gender variable significance results were achieved statistically. According to this, the average of male participants (X=3,81±,643) in altruism dimension is higher than the average of female participants (X=3,58±,46) in significance level. Related to the subject, the results of Lovell et al. (1999) show parallelism with this study

results. In the study, where Lovell and his colleagues analyzed organizational citizenship behaviour and gender relation, they reached significant results between male and female in altruism dimension.

As a result of analyzing the relation between participants' administrative position in the institutions they have been working and organizational citizenship behaviour and its dimensions, significant results were achieved in Conscientiousness Dimension in statistical level. According to this, altruism average of people who have administrative position in their institution as to the people who are not administrators is higher in significant level. When Conscientiousness dimension is evaluated as personnel's presenting self-devotion related to the institution beyond their job description which was determined by administration, it is possible to state that administrators in the institution can apply such example behaviour. According to Avila et al. (1988), administrators exhibit these behaviours themselves before expecting organizational citizenship behaviour from personnel.

In conclusion, as a result of the comparison on organizational citizenship behaviour of the participants according to academic titles and Courtesy, Sportsmanship and Conscientiousness dimensions, a significant result was not achieved statistically. According to this, academic members have higher averages as to the participants of lecturer and instructor staff in significant level. At universities academicians are promoted from research assistant staff to assistant professor after postgraduate. This extension of promoting time can direct people to negative thoughts about their institutions. Similarly, professorship is known as the top title which an academician can reach. So professors have this title as a result of working as an academic personnel for long years. This situation can cause professors to have high institutional belonging and so adopt their organizational citizenship behaviours. On the other hand, lecturers and instructors who do not do master degree and doctorate mostly do not have promotion status can be shown as their organizational citizenship behaviours are low. In literature although a study which associates organizational citizenship behaviour directly according to academicians' titles is not encountered, in some studies with organizational citizenship behaviours of academicians and teachers, some variables are compared; it is seen that organizational citizenship behaviour and its dimensions have high averages (Taşçı and Koç, 2007; Somerch and Drach-Zahavy, 2004).

Considering these data, in organizations where activities based upon harmony and cooperation like sports administration are organized, informal structure is strong Organizational Citizenship Behaviour can be said to make contributions to institutional efficiency. So in order to achieve Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, behaviours of the administrators in the organization in this aspect are important in terms of encouraging the personnel. This situation can simplify the formation of the

participant, organizational climate based upon interaction where information exchange is important and the communication and harmony among the personnel.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Humanism factors and Islam viewpoint from Motahri's point of view

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The aim of this research is to criticize liberal humanism based on Islam viewpoint emphasizing Motahri's point of view. In this paper, the researchers tried to identify liberalism humanism factors with analytical look in order to present a new categorization called "main factor of liberal humanism". Then, each factor was studied and criticized based on Motahari's thoughts. This research was done with qualitative research approach, thereby, liberal humanism has been criticized based on freedom, individualism, and rationality. Motahari's critics on studied factors suggest that existed differences arise from Islam and liberalism view and attitude toward human and nature; however, there is a relative agreement in the importance of factors within human education arenas. According to Motahari's point of view, freedom has a religious base and it is considerable under divine will, not natural human situation. As his point of view, emphasis on individualism along with society gentility is not negating each other and it seems that there is an agreement in support of rationality factor. However as Motahari points out, (as opposed to liberalism view), wisdom is not the only resource of achieving knowledge, but there are other resources such as revelation, intuition, narration, and sense as the resources of achieving knowledge in Islam, and he knows the contrast between wisdom and religion as a result of western condition and distorted Christianity. In addition, it can be said that training divine human is an ultimate goal of divine education system which has been emphasized on material and mundane goals in liberal humanism arena.

Key words: Liberal humanism, Islam, individualism, freedom, rationality.

INTRODUCTION

Humanism is a philosophical and literary movement which originated from Italia in the second half of fourteenth century and was brought to other European countries. This movement contains one of a new cultural factors, which are valuing human beings and knowing it

as a criterion of everything (Edwards, 1986). Humanism has originated with the purpose of creating motivation and a new tendency towards prominent Roman and Greek works. Rene Guenon believes that humanism (a philosophy that regards 'human' as a value criterion for

everything) was respected and validated in renaissance and then it was transformed into modern civilization. In fact, the purpose of this paper is to limit everything within humane pure norms and values and to make every principal and doctrine, which had a spiritual and sublime feature, to be abstract and immaterial. Although it can be said that the purpose was to turn away from sky instead of dominating the earth, in an allegory form (Gross, 2001).

Humanism is a way of thinking or a mental state ,which prioritizes human personality and his full growth over everything. It will follow an action that agrees with this state and way of thinking (Locke, 1971).

"Humanism" has been translated in Farsi as human gentility, anthropocentrism, humanity, and human manifestation. This doctrine puts man in the center of value; this means that gentility is given to his will and desire. In this doctrine, everything originates from man and terminates with him, as well, and there is not any fact superior to man. Therefore, humanism is in contrast with religious doctrine which is based on manifestation of God (Curriculum Development Centre, 2007).

Humanism is an approach which focuses on man's abilities and his troubles in the form of empirical experiments, social studies, philosophical research and artistic creations. Humanism, democracy, human gentility or human manifestation are doctrines which put man in the center of the universe and deprive God and religion or any other non-human phenomena of originality and authenticity, by giving man that very same attribute. This means that man is in the center of attention in all philosophical, political, economic, ethical, or social systems. Humanism considers man as the only truth and reality in creation and places him in the throne of God. In fact, humanism is to worship man (Muir, 2005).

The main centre of humanism thought system is to value human tendencies and values. Humanism view emphasizes present time experiences, total existential value of human, creativity, freeness, and human ability to solve his problem. Humanism is rooted in two philosophical views:

1. First: Existential Psychology which is an approach to perceive newer certain experiences, existential situations, and the need to practice freedom in a diverse world.
2. Second: Phenomenological approach which has stressed on personal experiences. In other words, each person has his world and the reality for each person is not anything but his special view (Maslow, 1995).

Liberalism is one of the philosophical views known in education arena, which is basically person-centered and human-oriented. The word "Liberalism" is derived from a Latin word "liberty". Liberalism is known as a combination of methods, thoughts, and policies with the aim of providing individuals with the upmost freedom and liberation possible (Bring, 2008).

Liberalism is a movement which is concerned with individual freedom of human. Therefore, human has thorough authority, regardless of any deterministic rule. Factors of liberal humanism include freedom, individualism, rationality, privacy, democracy, secularism, promotion and progress, justice, equality, individualism and natural rights, which explain a type of view toward human. Liberal philosophers claim to provide and honor equality rights for all citizens regardless of their religion, ethnicity, race, group or gender.

They claim that all human beings were granted equal rights and this benefit is with respect to their humanity which might not be limited to particular groups of individuals such as men, white people, Christians or rich ones (Heywood, 2000). Based on liberal humanism, human has a pure and good nature and there is no evil in his existence.

The goal of social life is only to provide individual interests and desires.

In modern times, liberalism emphasizes more on individualism. In modern liberalism, man is his own and the universe's savior, who does so by relying on his logic with no need of God or any other divine being. As the modern philosopher, Isaiah Berlin states "what our nowadays age needs is not stronger faith, but in actuality, the opposite of it. In modern liberalism, less messianic fervor, more intellectual skepticism, materialistic plea-sures, even those which are loathsome, are considered of high importance, due to the reason that in this doctrine, all that passes the mind is considered so" (Walzer, 1995).

Regarding education, experts believe that true education should always seek human evolution, and in this way create educated man and "noble man" as Newman said (Peters and Hirst, 1978). Hirst (1974) believes that liberal education is training special and superior mind activity to seek knowledge . Whatever distincts liberal education from non-liberal education is that mind limitations are removed in liberal education, mind seeks knowledge for its intrinsic value, and external purposes play no role in seeking knowledge (Kimball, 1998).

According to resulting developments in communication industry and technology as well as communities moving toward globalization, it makes more effectiveness and interaction of social and cultural systems as possible. Liberalism view toward human will impress education system of Islamic countries.

Based on Islamic thoughts, therefore, reviews of the principles of liberal humanism as Islams hold. Educational thoughts help to upgrade awareness level of young generation in the contemporary world. A prominent personages of Islamic thought in Iran, Motahari, reviews liberal education and the concept of human while recognizing Islamic education doctrine. His point of view is respected in this research.
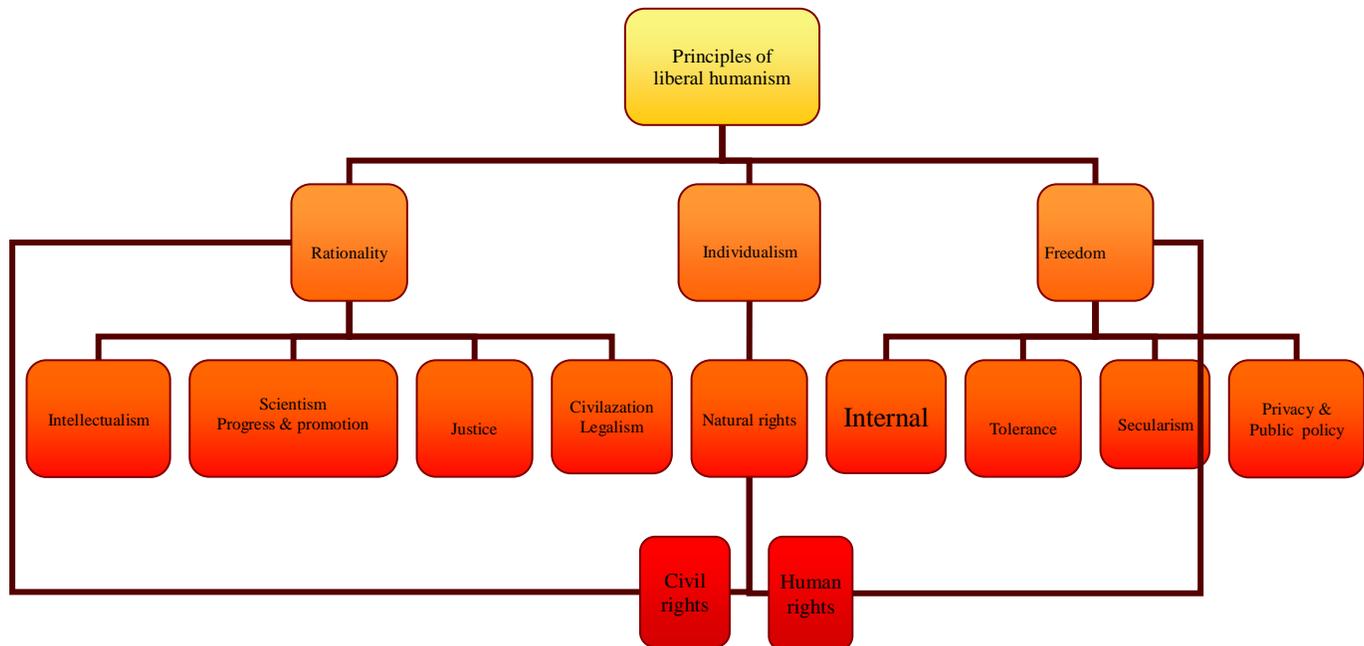
Figure 1. Factors of liberal humanism.

FACTORS OF LIBERAL HUMANISM

The principles of liberal humanism are based on human and natural rule. In the history of liberal humanism, the basis of this doctrine is established on three factors: freedom, individualism, and rationality. Freedom factors explain equality, secularism, tolerance and forbearance, with attention to privacy and public policy. Also, rationality factor explains civilization or legalism, justice, scientism, or progress and promotion which are requisite for individuals and social life. On the other hand, what justifies the main core of liberal humanism is to empha-size on individual and his natural and civil rights; of these two individual rights relate to three factors- rationality, individualism, freedom. These rights have been clearly established in the declaration of human right which was approved in General Assembly of United Nations as an international treaty on December 10, 1984 in Paris. The content of this declaration has determined civil, cultural, economical, political, and social fundamental rights which all human beings must have them (Schapiro, 2012). Each of the main factors of liberal humanism has indictors which were illustrated in Figure 1.

In the following, it will be discussed Motahari's critique of liberal humanism as one of the contemporary Islamic philosophers, in addition to describing factors of liberal humanism.

Freedom

The most important aspect of liberalism is freedom. In liberalism, freedom is not an instrument in achieving higher political goals, but it is, in fact, the highest political aim (Arblaster, 2006). Freedom is considered as superior value and it is the essence of life, the most important desired goal of human, and the most precious value in the most philosophical works. In the argument "freedom from what?" which is the most central principle of liberalists, most importantly, freedom means release from government control, force, restrictions, and interventions. In the argument "freedom for whom?", freedom is for individuals which is the principle concern of liberalists. The purpose of individual freedom is usually personal freedom (Arblaster,2012). Hobbes presents such a definition of freedom which includes non-human creatures because he considers human in the whole order of nature along with other creatures. Therefore, he emphasizes that external barriers in the way of human freedom is man's self-made. Isaiah Berlin believed that the degree that a person or others do not interfere in each others' actions. In this concept, political freedom is the only area where a person could act on without others' obstructions. The degree of each person's freedom depends on others' interference and something missing here (Arblaster, 2006).

Even Liberal economic policies aim to construct an economy that people perform their transactions liberally with freedom to develop their talents. From the Bourgeois liberals' point of view, the ranking and social welfare is related to the natural inequality of humans. They believe that the government's intervention in the economy is harmful. Some of the most famous experts in this field are David Ricardo (1772-1823) and Thomas Robert Malthus (1766-1832) [Shapiro, 2012; Fam, 2004].

Motahari, in the manner of Islamic philosophers and theologians, knows the world as a God creature. In this regard, he knows human freedom as God's will and he believes that divine destiny governs the entire world and man is free, authorized, responsible, and his fate sovereign to be doomed to destiny (Motahari, 2014A). Motahari believes that the base of human freedom is human wisdom and his nature talent to interact, but this freedom is in continuity with God's will. There is a strong and deep relationship between wisdom and freedom, and human to be free is the best claim for this radically base because God has created man authorized through "indeed, we have guided him to the path, he is either grateful or ungrateful" and this freedom has no meaning without having wisdom. There is no difference between freedom and lack of freedom for unwise man. According to Motahari's point of view, man is free because he has wisdom and will unlike animals who do not have this. So he believes that liberal thought has reduced human dignity with too much emphasis on human material. After focusing on human with two dimensions, Motahari presents a definition of freedom which emphasizes two dimensions. "Freedom means that there is no obstacle; free men are people who preclude obstacles. Freedom is likely internal, on one hand, and it is likely external, on the other hand. Thus, it gets spiritual dimension, on one hand, and social dimension, on the other hand. Social dimension means that human must be free from the rest of society and others do not prevent him to grow and develop" (Motahari, 2014, C pp, 15-17).

Who believes that prophets focus on this level of freedom. One of the purposes of the prophets was generally and certainly to provide social freedom and to fight with social servitudes and slaveries (Motahari, 2014, B).

Despite this level of freedom which both liberalism and religion followers are jointly in support of, there is another level of freedom called "spiritual freedom" that was only sought by divine prophets. They have addressed human to be released from slavery and captivity of ignorance and evil and to care for heavenly values and ethics. Elsewhere, Motahari speaks about three kinds of freedom: human freedom from nature captivity, human release from his own sovereignty, and human release from other people sovereignty. Third dimension of freedom is social freedom, but second dimension is spiritual freedom. According to his point of view, ultimate and perfect freedom is only achievable through obeying the laws of Islam. Since, spiritual freedom has more importance; social freedom could be set as a tool of spiritual freedom. Otherwise, it will be rejected where social freedom becomes the tool of immoral greed. "Freedom is instrumental perfection, not targeted perfection. Human goal is not to be free but human must be free to reach his own perfections" (Motahari, 2014, A, pp, 83-86). Therefore, there are two major problems on considering liberal freedom: 1- it only considers social freedom and 2- it negates any attempt to make freedom the tools for

evolution as a positive freedom. As a result, liberalism totally sets spiritual freedom aside and it sets the target human life to be separated from religious essentials.

As Motahari's point of view shows, freedom has a religious essential and it is considerable under God's will, not natural situation of human. Also, freedom is a tool for human evolution and it could not be precedence over everything. Meanwhile, freedom is not only summarized in social freedom but it has more important aspects such as spiritual freedom. Freedom is being released from others' sovereignty and his own ego sovereignty through this interpretation.

Figure 2 expresses types of freedom from Motahari's point of view:

The sovereignty of the individual to the community (individualism)

An individual is the first and the last concern of liberalism; the first, because an individual's rights are based on the natural state, a state which he has no other options but to change nature into his own accord; the last, because individuals are production unit (Garandu,2004). In liberalism, individuals are regarded without concerning their race, group, society, religion, and the party they have joined. He is regarded as a person in the possession of natural rights. In fact, it can be stated that the goal of liberal system is to maintain individual and help him to achieve happiness. Individualism is a main core of liberalism and its purpose is a single person. This term emphasizes the integrity of every human being and distinction of one person from another one, not on their similarities (Berlin, 1969).

Being within present time is of liberal individualism tools. Liberalism negates to rely on past and traditions and it considers the future as a nowhere. Thus, it considers the refusal of some advantages existed in providing welfare, happiness, and wellbeing of future generations. Isaiah Berlin quotes from Bentham: "the only real interest is individual interest… Can one understand the existence of so unreasonable humans who prefer missing people to living human being? (Berlin, 1969). Bhikhu Parekh believes that future is hypothetical and unavailable and it is morally of importance to the extent which is related to the future of present generation, not numerous generations and yet unborn. So, triple aspects are decreased only to present time. It is considered only present or future claims of alive generation (Parekh, 1972).

Liberal humanism theory is often referred to Locke and his morality and some relate this theory to Habez. Various theories have been suggested regarding individualism that has been generally categorized in eight groups (Tuhidfam, 2004):

Natural or innate individualism theory: In this theory, individualism is a manner or behavior that treats person
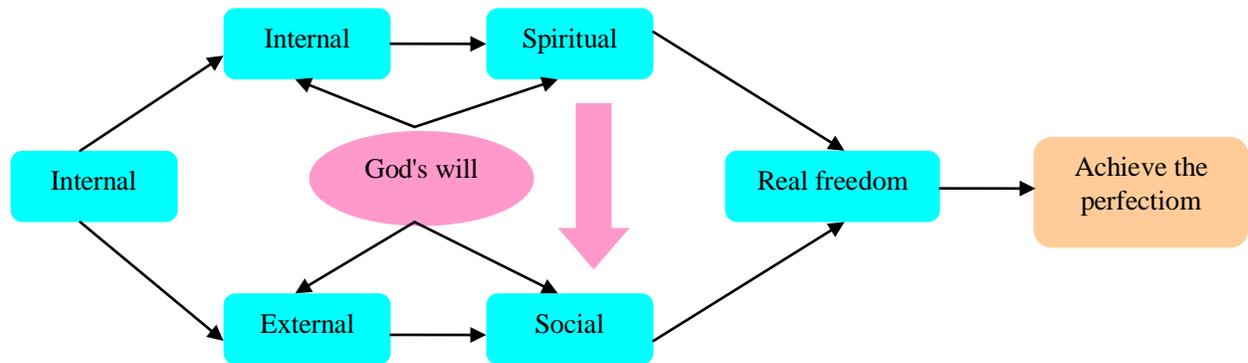
Figure 2. Types of freedom from Motahari's point of view.

as a human whom rights and needs have had preference over every community such as family, company, civil society, or government in moral- political decisions. Just "individuals" are entitled to have natural rights and rights related to group that in fact, is a set of various individuals. Theories of natural right, natural law, and human rights are arisen from this theory.

Metaphysical individualism theory: This theory considers a high degree of perfection and self-reliance for human. Thus, separation and self-reliance account on the basic quality of human metaphysics. Accordingly, this theory considers metaphysical situation which a person is independent on community or any social relations. So, it considers all social events in regard to human being.

Methodological individualism theory: According to this type of individualism, one should prevent to mention social entities or organizations as far as possible and in contrast, should pay attention to individual interactions while he studies society and social realities. Therefore, it is emphasizing more on individual, individual rights and freedom; communities and various groups such as group or family who consider unrealistic things.

Atomism individualism theory: In this theory, individualism is to diminish the importance of whole community-disagreement with group gentility- that it can be nothing but its aggregated components. Thus, the society cannot have its own set of common interest separated from individual interests or claim the rights against individual. Mil believes that large cultural developments were the product of human genius; it is the product of determined minority view and social space which provides the opportunity of diversity and proliferation (Arblaster, 2006).

Humanism individualism theory: In a world view liberalism is essentially humanism and individualism, so it has finally mundane nature. Human in the centre of worldview is the product of modern humanism of sixteenth century.

As Christianity scheme for creatures, human had also special position because Christ had came to rescue human. Nevertheless, prominent thinkers of renaissance era had drawn an image of human implicit challenge with this theology view. This theory considers potential abilities and successes of humans as the main basis or position of values.

Holism individualism theory: Totally, the purpose of holism is that human rights and duties have general and global aspects and its origins from the special condition of human being that is beyond time and location. People must learn to forget their local and insignificant dependencies, such as their look to problems which must be neutral as a legislator view. As holism individualism doctrine, it can mention international socialism, human rights, and Kant's moral laws.

Rational individualism theory: Liberalism establishes that individual is necessarily rational. So, if individual is the main origin of values, rationality of individual will be a necessarily base. Because, it is so difficult that irrational person, who cannot be more than an animal, has high value. The assumption of rationality justifies democracy, freedom, justice, equality, and even public participation in formation of government.

Moral individualism theory: Liberal individualism is both existentialism and ethics. This concept considers a person more real and prior to human society, institutes, and its structures. Individual has already existed before society in terms of time. Existential individualism creates necessary philosophical foundation for moral and political individualism. Accordingly, a person is protected and respected human and he must fully protect the respect of human life. Obligation limits and moral rights in liberalism are individual own conscience commanding to the extent which have no anti-social consequences. An individual should choose his own values and follow his moral values (Figure 3).
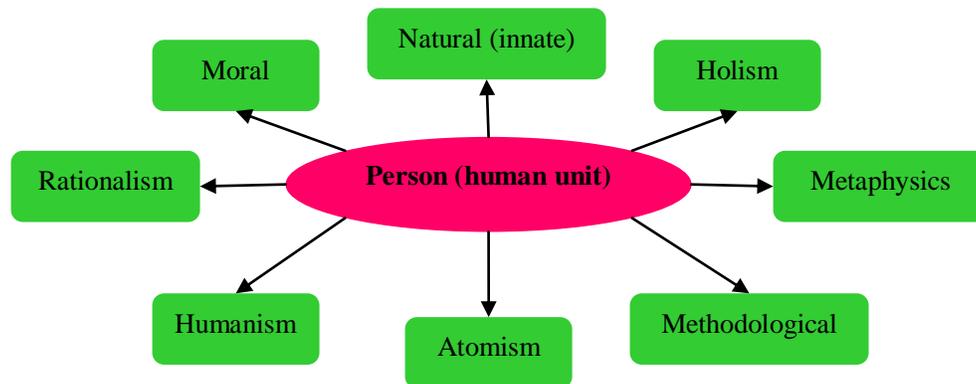
Figure 3. Types of individualism in liberalism.

Motahari' point of view concerning the relation between individual and society has multiple aspects:

1. Based on Quran verses, he believes in individual gentility as in society gentility when both do not negate each other. Motahari suggested his theory using Quran verses. He emphasizes on the role of Quran in making social arguments between Muslims (Motahari, 2012). Abdu r-Rahman Ibn Khaldun Tunisi is the first social thinker who found the personality and the reality of the society according to Quran views. On one hand, Quran (Al-Isra: 4-8) talks about tradition sovereignty and unchangeable and general laws governing society (Motahari, 2014, A). On the other hand, Islamic education has been established according toe44 governing social determinism over human. Otherwise, the responsibility of enjoining good and forbidding wrong, Jihad, and so on will essentially have no meaning (Motahari, 2008).
2. In addition to accepting the real identity of the society and the argument over "philosophical gentility", he believes in "value (legal) gentility" and "epistemology gentility". Thus, he believes that the society has its own existence and life that is different from the existence of one by one individual of the society and it has gentility, existentially (Motahari, 2013).
3. He believes in logic relation between these three gentilities. He knows epistemology gentility and value gentility based on existential gentility. Because, the society has a special nature, it has its own specific laws and tradition, thereby, its own independent science. He believes that if we do not believe in gentility for society existence, talking about society rights will be extravagant. Then, he expresses the distinction between mixture and composite and notes that human relationship with the society is closer to the relationship between components of the composite than the relationship of the mixture; he presents evidences of the society impact on creating moods and beliefs. Motahari believes that the whole of community is really one unit and it has spirit and life. In

this regard, Moatahri represents Allameh Tabatabai's view about society character by inference to verses 34 of Al-A'raf; he mentions the role sins of some community members playing in misfortunes to be generalized and expansion of it to all community members. Then, mentioning the verse "The Prophet is closer to the faithful than they are themselves" (Al-Ahzab: 6), He argues that Islam entitles society; because it considers gentility for the society; and because it considers life for the society. In fact, the community has a unity and it is not absolutely authenticity. The society to be entitled is required to accept a goal for it. The fact that, we entitle future generation and children is based on accepting the creation. Otherwise, if we believe in fortuity, we will not know to speak about the society to be entitled. Then, Motahari criticizes also the hypothetic of community gentility. He believes "the fact that, it is said that there is community, not individual; it is the ridiculed one and irrelevant" (Motahari, 2012, pp, 220-230).
4. Regarding the primacy of society, he does not negate individual responsibility while accepting extraordinarily influence of society on individual, trying human collective destiny. He confirms motion against society and this means that he prefers psychology to sociology. Motahari believes that individualism or collectivism theories developed in Western are a kind of extravagance which has resulted in economic alignment in this regard. In fact, individualism is a reaction to extravagantly collectivism (Motahari, 2008).
5. He states that individual psychology is precedence on its sociology, in some cases, as in Islamic point of view. But in reference to his speeches, it is clarified that the purpose is not the precedence of individual over society such it is expressed "individual gentility" view against "collective gentility" view. Because, he always empha-sizes on society combination formed of individual to be true. In his opinion, individual independence is preserved to a certain degree and individual can change his society or he can move against river flow of the society while
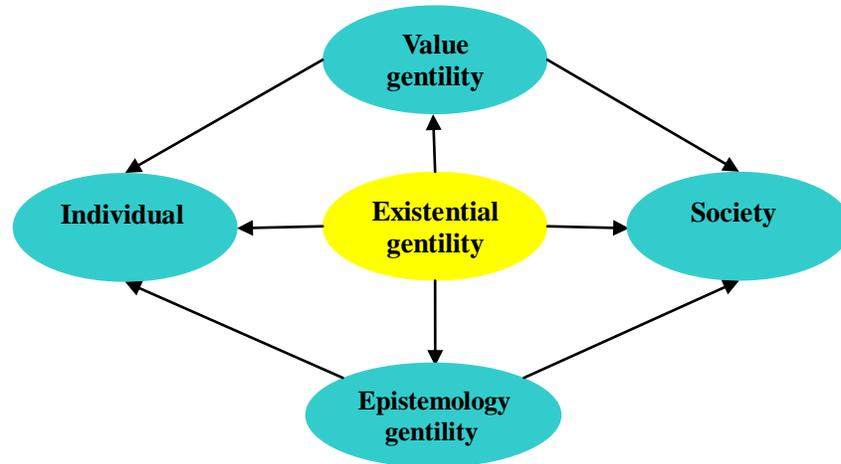
Figure 4. Individual and society gentility.

society is a fact and a combination. He can change history route. This means that human has freedom and authority. Here, the main masterpiece of Motahari is to totalize these two cases and this is under protection of accepting temperament for human. Therefore, the precedence of psychology is to accept innate and natural talent inside human which preserves a possibility of his independent character against society (Dezhkam, 2005).

Individualism is precedence to society in the liberalism point of view and individuality will be known as the main base of liberalism doctrine. While individualism and socialism are considered as two sides of one coin in Motahri's thought (Figure 4).

RATIONALITY

In liberalism, human is inherently wise person. Rationalists approach science due to its being an illuminator and they consider wisdom as their usher and leader (Schapiro, 2012). In Lock's Natural State, humans are not living in mutual hostility but it is established peace and wisdom. As his thought, humans were not living in the state of permanent war or continual fear, in natural state.

In his opinion, if people live in a situation corresponds to wisdom without common superior who has the right to arbitrate them, it will be certainly natural state. Natural state is under rule of natural law and no human orders other. In other words, natural state has natural law that governs it and it is binding for everyone. Wisdom is the same natural law and it teaches all people who conduct an opinion from it that all people are equal and independent; nobody should hurt or harm other's life, health, freedom, or property (Guteg, 2005).In this enlightenment era liberalism emphasizes on the power of human´s rationality to dissolve the problems, innovate

solutions and improve life and society. The reasoning power provides a powerful tool for human to reconstruct the traditional system .They also believe that the scientific approach may be applied for the most of social, political, economic and educative issues. The superstition and ignorance residues distort the human ´s rationality. Human ´s rationality is released by removing the research barriers [Mill, 1949].

Motahari believes that rationality has much value. In support of rationality, Islamic scholars have a disagreement with Western liberal thinkers. Disagreement appears where rationality will be defined against religion. As Moatahari's point of view is concerned, a problem of confronting wisdom and religion is not a problem which has link with pure nature (identity of wisdom, and reality) fact of religion. Manifestations and expressions of human wisdom in its essence have no conflict or contrast with religion or religiosity. Being inspired with Quran verses, narratives, and Nahj Al-Balagha, Motahari believes that prophets came to utilize and release wisdoms and intellects. All prophets were common in awakening human intellect and removing the chains which fetter wisdom and intellect. As humankind has achieved today, even intellectual and scientific achievements are indebted to the emergence of prophets in history of human life (Motahari, 2008).

According to Motahari's point of view, although church had had the thousand years support of political and cultural sovereignty in renaissance era (medieval), and it had controlled over all material and spiritual abilities of Europe it could not present a systematic, humanistic, and rationality culture or thought from its accepted religion. It could not embed systematic and evolved knowledge into the mind and heart of people. In fact, inadequate and self-made trainings of church were the most factor for religion aversion and irreligious ones. Because scholars and thinkers immediately found religion that ritual owners,
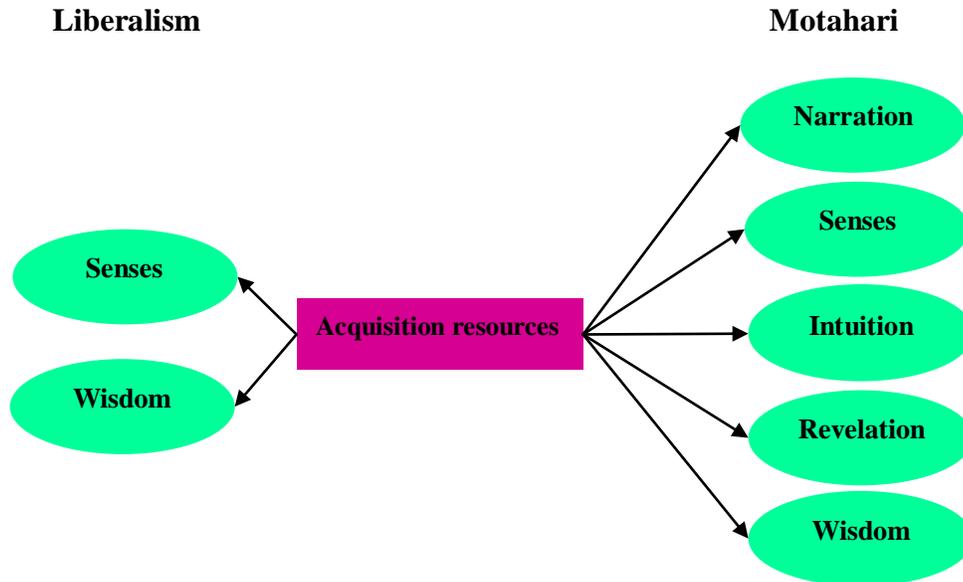
Liberalism   **Motahari**

Figure 5. Acquisition resources of knowledge in Motahari's and Liberalism point of view.

clergies, and church administrators were made and addressed, incompatible with wisdom and science, they immediately pushed human-made/human-addressed religion and religiosity to the field; and faced them with wisdom and intellect. It was common that metamorphosed and bared religion would succumb against strong and fresh wisdom and intellect.

Therefore, the conflict between wisdom and religion has roots in Western and Christianity history rather than being public problem and it could not consider it as general. Motahari has stated in his various works how religious principles of Islam are related to wisdom and he often has remembered existed differences with written thought in distorted religions. For example, he has encountered the interpretation of Christianity form the story of Adam and Eve, where picking the fruits of knowledge led to expulsion from paradise, with the interpretation of Islam where God is Himself the teacher of human (according to Quran verses ". Then He gave Adam knowledge of the nature and reality of all things and everything" (Al-Baqara, verses 31)). And he has emphasized on rational aspects of Islamic narrative against distorted narrative of Christianity (Motahari, 2014, B) (Figure 5).

Conclusion

Today, liberalism is a dominant ideology of the West. Liberalism in contemporary concept is an outlook style to life, social world, and set of assumptions about it, where human being is being absorbed gradually. Liberalism reconstructs itself synchronizing time and social circumstances. It influences the different components of

communities. Liberalism doctrine has various philosophical, ethic, economics, and human principles . In this research survey humanism principles were considered .Three factors- individualism, freedom, and rationality- are to express focusing on human and individualism in this doctrine. It can be pointed to factors such as freedom, individualism, rationalism, progress and promotion, justice, equality, human rights, etc. In this study, individualism, freedom, and rationality have been criticized according to conceptual relation. Since, dominant social philosophy of Iran is religious and Islamic and it is in contrast with liberalism in expressing human values; therefore, it seems that this contrast has roots in a type of outlook where these two doctrines belong to human. After studying and analyzing each factor of individual liberalism, it results that freedom factors expressing equality, secularism, tolerance and forbearance, as well as privacy and public policy, and rationality are explaining civilization or legalism, justice, scientism, or progress and promotion which are required for individual and social life and individual and collective rationalism. On the other hand, what makes the main core of humanistic liberalism acceptable is to emphasize on individual and the nature and civil rights of him that these two individual rights also related to three main factors of rationality, individualism, and freedom. As one of Islamic thinkers, Motahari has criticized these factors. As far as Motaharis' point of view is concerned, freedom has a religion base and it is considerable under divine will, not natural human situation. As his point of view, emphasis on individualism along with society gentility is not negating each other and it seems that there is an agreement in support of rationality factor. However as Motahari's point of view (as opposed to liberalism view),

wisdom is not the only resource of achieving knowledge, but there are other resources such as revelation, intuition, narration, and sense as the resources of achieving knowledge in Islam. He knows the contrast between wisdom and religion as a result of western condition and distorted Christianity. It can be concluded that Motahari's theories are most relying on Quran, Islamic traditions and narratives; and his outlook to human and nature is religious and spiritual that is different from liberalist outlook which is based on nature and "mundane". Thus, in addition, to consider the global and idealism concepts, the liberalism school emphasizes the key elements contributing to the improvement of living such as rationalism, freedom of human, ownership and economy , tendency to progress based on rationality as well as civil and individual rights. It is concluded that despite some differences in general, it is possible to reach an agreement between both schools of Islam and Liberalism in applying Humanism components to improve human life using the modification format of various social systems.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Difficulties encountered by both teachers and students in teaching and learning Turkish as a second language

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The objective of this research is to identify and suggest solutions to the problems experienced by students learning Turkish as a second language according to the opinions of both teachers and students evaluated. The research has been conducted among the classroom teachers, Turkish language teachers and the students attending the schools in districts and villages of Batman city. Descriptive model has been used during the research. Data considering the research has been collected through qualitative research.Semi-structured interviews have been carried out with the teachers and an effective usage of Turkish survey has been applied on the students to reveal the difficulties encountered and the solution suggestions considering these difficulties in teaching Turkish as a second language. Data collected from the interviews has been examined through descriptive and content analysis. Teachers' opinions about the difficulties encountered have been investigated with respect to the expected learning outcomes, content, learning process, assessment and evaluation of 1st to 8th grades Turkish curriculum, while students' opinions have been investigated with respect to their levels of Turkish, learning objectives of Turkish, Turkish learning and effective usage, problems encountered in learning Turkish and their solution suggestions for the problems. Identified problems and their suggested solutions concerning the teaching of Turkish as a second language have been stated in the conclusion part.

Key words: Bilingualism, learning of Turkish, mother tongue.

INTRODUCTION

Mother tongue is the language which is acquired from the mother and other close relatives at first and later through the society an individual interacts, and that can go down to the subconscious of the individual and creates the strongest bonds between an individual and the society. Individual picks up the mother tongue from his/her mother and close relatives and acquires all the qualities of his/her language. Consequently, individual uses his/her mother tongue throughout his/her entire life. He/she views and perceives the world from his/her mother tongue's perspective at first, and the universe is shaped in his/her mind according to the mother tongue. One expresses all the happenings he/she encounters and all the judgments related to the life by making use of the

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comprehension and expression properties of his/her mother tongue (Aksan, 1994: 67; Ahmet, 2005: 37).

Besides his/her mother tongue one should also learn social language. Social language or official language is the language which is agreed upon by the society and through which citizens can communicate with each other while formal education is given. Beyond being used as an instrument for the individual to explain his/her thoughts, emotions and desires, social language turns the individual to member of the society he/she lives, makes one to identify with the society and gives the individual being the property of it at the same time. Learning process of the mother tongue occurs through random domestication within the family and surroundings and is followed by teaching Turkish through intentional domestication at school. Teaching Turkish through intentional domestication at school aims to provide individuals with the rules and correct usage of the language (Aksan, 1977: 81; Demirel, 2003: 6).

Bilingualism, despite not having an agreed upon definition, is the situation where at least two languages are spoken in a society such as a mother tongue (L1) and the social language (L2). Bilingualism, implemented in different ways all over the world, is one of the fundamental problems in education systems (Luchtenberg, 2002: 49-50). Moreover, in the "Education for Everybody" report of World Bank (2005) it was stated that 5% of the school-age children in the world use different languages in the school and at home.

Bilingualism is a concept having both individual and social aspects. There are several definitions about this concept. Vardar (1980: 93) defines bilingualism as "the situation where an individual speaks two languages or two languages are being used in a society". Aksan (1998: 26) also defines bilingualism close to Vardar's definition "in linguistic the situation where an individual acquires, uses or learns a second language in a level close to his mother tongue due to various reasons and under various conditions is called bilingualism". There is no social and institutionalized bilingualism in Turkey. Various languages are spoken within the political boundaries but none of these languages are accepted as a second official language. Turkish is the mother tongue of the majority of the citizens (İmer, 1990: 166).

Even though many countries have a single official language, nowadays it is more difficult to claim that the official language is the only language spoken in those countries. In many countries, besides the official language, there can be different languages spoken by minorities, and different mother tongues could be spoken by the groups in certain regions. That's the case for Turkey, too. Several languages such as Kurdish, Arabic, Laz and Zaza are spoken at least within the families besides the official Turkish language. As Haskara stated, if the mother tongue of an individual is not the official language, the individual mostly uses his mother tongue while speaking at home or with somebody from the same

linguistic minority (1996: 23). This causes problems for the students whose mother tongues are different than Turkish to learn Turkish at school.

National and international researches show that the education that is provided is far from being successful and there are significant problems in Turkish language teaching (Özbay, 2004:2805; Anılan, 2004:1293; Özyürek, 2004:469; Şahin, 2007:302). According to Aşıcı (1996), problems in Turkish language teaching can be classified under two topics. First of which is the training of the Turkish language teachers, and the second is the content of the books to be used and teaching methodology. Sever (2004: 31–32) states that these problems are, in one aspect, related with the teacher training, and in other aspect, related with the basic elements of the curriculum (expected learning outcomes, content, methods, tools and materials, time and evaluation). Furthermore, being a multidimensional concept which aims to develop skills simultaneously, makes the methodology significant in language teaching.

Turkish language teaching is a process which affects success in all other subjects in formal education starting at the primary school level. During this process, it is aimed to develop students' comprehension and expression skills. This general objective is achieved through integral implementations of four basic language skills, which are listening, speaking, reading and writing (Sever et al., 2006).

Turkish language is the basis of all courses especially at primary school level. Hence, as students become more proficient in their linguistic skills, their mentalities develop and they start to perceive their national and cultural heritage better. Thus, the student's mentality, comprehension and interpretation ability develops and the student starts to perceive his/her national and cultural erudition.Consequently, they become significantly more successful in other courses too. Therefore, Turkish teachers have a great responsibility to help students to acquire the basic language skills of Turkish.Througout his /her lifetime, one's perceiving, comprehending and adapting his/herself to life is upto his/her Turkish that had been taught at primary school level. Language learning in this level turns into the production of thought, and provides conscious development of an individual in mental and psychological aspects (Tosunoğlu, 2002: 562).

Formal learning at school depends on language skills. The language used by a student not only affects his/her learning at school, but also affects all his/her cognitive achievements such as his/her perception, imagination, transferring, analysing which are all included in learning process, too. Therefore the students with under-developed language skills are unable to participate effectively classes at school and they tend to be unsuccessful in all subjects, Turkish standing first on the list(Yılmaz, 1974: 130). Using Turkish effectively is the basis of the learning. Proficiency in language skills as an

employer, citizen and a member of a family and the society is of great importance. Therefore more importance should be given to Turkish language teaching for increased success in the schools.

Rapid developments in education have also led to important changes in language teaching. It has become evident towards the end of the 20th century that it is unlikely to bring up qualified individuals by the means of a language teaching approach in which students are continuously conditioned, their behavioral changes are regarded more important than their mental skills, knowledge is transferred passively and students are unaware of what they have learnt. In this context, not being able to achieve expected learning outcomes and the rapid increase of the problems have forced educators and linguists to turn to new pursuits in language teaching. Thus, language approaches which require active involvement and social interaction of the individuals, which are learned through linking the prior knowledge with the new ones and which prioritize the concept of learning rather than teaching, have stood out (Güneş, 2007: 1).

In the constructivist learning approach which Turkish curriculum is based on, students construct their own knowledge by taking an active role in the learning environment and by linking new knowledge with the previous experiences. Constructivist environments do not function as passing on the knowledge; on the contrary, they provide students with the facilities to support construction of their knowledge. According to the constructivist learning theory, teaching is not the direct transfer of the pre-determined content to the students but it is the process of facilitating the learning and helping the students' learning in order to construct their individual knowledge, meaning or interpretations related to the outside world (Yager, 1991: 5; Brooks et al., 1998; Terwel, 1999: 195–197; Anagün et al., 2007).

New Turkish curriculum has been prepared to let the students acquire listening, reading, writing, visual reading and visual presenting skills which are going to be used lifelong to develop their cognitive, social and emotional aspects and to communicate effectively (MEB, 2005: 14). Changes in Turkish curriculum and the adaptation of a student-centered teaching approach have led the teachers to become guides rather than authorities in the class. This change in the curriculum has also brought other changes in teaching methods, tools and equipment as well as assessment and evaluation methods.

In the newly released Turkish curriculum the emphasis has been given on developing students' linguistic, mental, and social skills and effective use of these skills. It also promotes skills such as correct, fluent and effective usage of Turkish, critical and creative thinking, communication, problem solving, research and decision making too. Thus the curriculum consists of four dimensions as learning outcomes, content, learning process, and assessment and evaluation With this new curriculum

these four dimensions of the curriculum should be considered holistically and to determine the problems encountered in its implementation in order to deliver Turkish language teaching in line with its objectives.

Contemporary education paradigm aims to bring up self-sufficient and self-conscious individuals who have their own personalities with sufficient knowledge to tackle the problems they may encounter. This needs independent and critical thinking skills, understanding correctly and acting objectively. An individual needs to understand and internalize the expression capabilities of the mother tongue since the development of these skills depends on it. Its realization is directly related to the quality of the language education. The quality of the language education can be improved by identifying and tackling the problems encountered in this process (Ergenç, 1994: 12; Ahmet, 2005: 37).

Problems often seen in students are using limited set of words, lack of talking subject, inability to use proper terms, inability to enrich the speech with suitable metaphors, idioms, and proverbs, and word misusages. Students use their mother tongue after they start the school too. Standard spoken language is the language free of any dialects. One of the objectives of Turkish language curriculum is to provide students with the ability to use standard language to express themselves (Sağır, 2002: 12-13).

Alcindor (2001) shows that the students whose mother tongues are different than English have a limited proficiency of English, and he coined the term LEP (Limited English Proficiency) to describe those students in his research. This situation may be generalized for the students with different mother tongues. It is known that the students who have different mother tongues than Turkish have limited Turkish proficiency. Teachers think that these students encounter more problems at school than other students whose mother tongues are Turkish.

The most important component in identifying the problems encountered in Turkish language teaching is the teachers, as they are the ones who face the problems in the first sense and in charge of implementation of the program. Taking the teachers' opinions into consideration is an effective way to find solutions to the problems. The efficiency of Turkish language teaching undoubtedly decreases due to both problems about implementation of the curriculum and inadequate training of the teachers (Çelenk, 2002: 42). Therefore finding timely, rational, common and practical solutions to the problems in Turkish language learning before for those problems become chronic by the help of students' and their teachers' opinions is very important.

Many researches have been conducted on investigating the problems and the reasons of these problems in learning Turkish. In this research, a new perspective and approach has been put forward to solve the problems encountered in learning Turkish and unlike the scientific studies has been conducted so far, it has been aimed to

reveal the problems encountered in learning Turkish by the primary and secondary school students having a different mother tongue and suggest solutions to them. Hence, it has been thought that this study might be useful for Turkish teachers and classroom teachers and contributes to the studies which have been carried on or to those which are going to be carried on in the future.

Objectives and significance of the study

This study aims to determine the problems in Turkish language teaching that students who have different mother tongues encounter by the help of teacher and student opinions and to suggest solutions to these problems. Determining the problems encountered in implementation is important for further development of Turkish curriculum. Additionally, it is argued that the determination of these problems may contribute the creation of new ideas by the educators to solve these problems, the development of more effective plans and programs for Turkish language teaching and the development of Turkish curriculum.

METHODOLOGY

Method of the study

This is a qualitative study which aims to determine the problems encountered in teaching Turkish based on the opinions of the teachers and students, reveal the current situation in pheno-menological design.Data considering the research has been collected, analyzed, and interpreted through qualitative research A qualitative research, is a study in which qualitative methods such as observation, interviews and document analysis are used to reveal the perceptions and phenomenon realistically and holistically where a qualitative process is followed (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2006:39).

Phenomenology focuses on individuals' meaning making as the quintessential element of the human experience. The important findings derived from phenomenology are an understanding of a phenomenon as seen through the eyes of those who have experienced it. Phenomenological inquiry assumes that there is an essence or essences to shared experience (Patton, 2002).

Scope of the study

Criterion sampling as a purposive sampling method was used to identify the schools in which the study has been implemented in qualitative study. Therefore primary school to which bilingual students attend was determined as the basic criteria by the researchers.

The reason that the research has been carried out in the province of Batman and villages was the bilingual students in Turkey have trouble with learning Turkish. Batman is one of the provinces in the Southeastern Anatolia Region where Arab and Kurdish population is intense. Therefore, the research was decided to be applied in the primary schools of Batman which have intensively bilingual students. The research was carried out with the classroom teachers, Turkish teachers and the students in the schools in districts and villages of Batman.

18 classroom teachers, 6 Turkish teachers and 60 students chosen with convenience sampling of intentional sampling methods participated in the research. The researchers have chosen an easily accessible nearby case for convenience sampling. This sampling method adds speed and practicality to the research. (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2006: 113).

Data gathering and analysis

Research data was gathered by semi-structured interview forms and Turkish proficiency questionnaire conducted on the students. In semi-structured interviews, the participants are asked a set of predetermined questions. However, new questions may be asked or some questions may be cancelled if deemed necessary (Karasar, 2007: 167–168).

Recorded data was transcribed and analyzed. Furthermore, the findings of the research have been supported with direct quotations from the teachers' replies to the questions.The students'opinions have been collected by a questionnaire prepared by the researchers. This questionnaire which included 3 items about the conditions of the participants in learning Turkish, 2 items about the activities of learning and using Turkish, and 2 items about the problems encountered in learning Turkish and possible recommendations have been submitted to 3 field experts for inspection.The experts have analyzed the open-ended questions in the questionnaire in terms of clarity and scope. The questionnaire was arranged based on the expets' opinions. Data was collected from 60 students between 10-18 April by this questionnaire.

Data gathered in the research was analyzed by descriptive analysis and content analysis. The main objective of content analysis is to be able to reach the concepts and relationships that could explain the collected data. In descriptive analysis, on the other hand, gathered data is summarized and interpreted according to the predetermined themes. In descriptive analysis, direct quotations are frequently used to reflect the opinions of the interviewed or observed individuals (Yıldırım et al., 2006).

Validity and reliability are the most commonly used two important criterion in the research studies to determine the credibility of the results. Reporting the collected data in detail and the justifications of the results are among the most important criterion of the validity in a qualitative research. The processes of data collection and analysis are described in detail to ensure the validity of this research. Gathered data has been analyzed individually by two separate researchers to ensure the internal validity of the research. Then, common conclusions have been drawn by comparing the analyses conducted by researchers. In addition, the researchers have to make their own position clear in the scope of external reliability in a qualitative research (LeCompte and Goetz, 1982). In this regard, roles and responsibilities of researchers can be defined as designing, implementing and finalizing the research process, planning of the implementation process, creation and execution of the implementation environment, analyzing and reporting the findings and results. The researchers' personal opinions have also been included while reporting the results.

RESULTS

Results and findings of the research are divided into two major themes as "Teachers' opinions about the status of the students learning Turkish who have different mother tongues" and "Students' opinions about their conditions in learning Turkish, who have different mother tongues". Results are shown as frequency distribution tables and are summed up with the direct quotations of the

Table 1. Teachers'opinions on the encountered problems about the expected learning outcomes.

Problems encountered (Population=22)	F
Curriculum being prepared with the presumption that students operate in Turkish well	11
Time Insufficiency	10
Students not using achieved expected learning outcomes in daily life	7
Expected learning outcomes set above the level of students	10
Excessive number of expected learning outcomes	6
Students being promoted to upper classes without reaching the ability to write and speak Turkish fluently.	4
Students transferring the structure of their mother tongues into Turkish.	4

participants.

Teachers' opinions about the status of the students Learning Turkish who have different mother tongues

This theme is divided into four sub-themes as expected learning outcomes, content, learning-teaching process, assessment and evaluation.

Problems encountered in expected learning outcomes in Turkish Language

Half of the teachers who have participated in the research have stated that they do not have any problems about the expected learning outcomes of Turkish teaching, while the other half stated that they have some problems. The encountered problems about the expected learning outcomes by the teachers are shown in Table 1.

The teachers have stated that the problems related with the expected learning outcomes they have encountered are curriculum being prepared with the presumption that students operate in Turkish well, time insufficiency to cover the expected learning outcomes, the expected learning outcomes being set above the level of the students, students not using the achieved expected learning outcomes in daily life.

Teacher 10 has stated his opinions as *"It is impossible to teach the same expected learning outcomes both to the students whose mother tongue is Turkish and to the students who have different mother tongues. Because some students are unable to understand Turkish when they come to the school and they are unable to express themselves in Turkish."*

Teacher 8 has stated his opinions as *"The expected learning outcomes are above the levels of the students, and it is impossible to teach all of them within limited time."*

Teacher 1 has stated his opinions as *"Some students jump up to the second level without learning to write and*

speak fluently in Turkish. This makes it impossible to teach them higher level language skills."

Findings from the research about the problems related to the expected learning outcomes encountered in Turkish language teaching show that the most frequent encountered problems by the teachers are having too many expected learning outcomes, time insufficiency to reach expected learning outcomes and curriculum being prepared with the presumption that all students know Turkish.

Problems encountered in content of Turkish Language teaching

While one third of the teachers who have participated in the research (8 people) have stated that they do not have any problems about content, the rest (16 people) have stated that they had. The problems related with content encountered by the teachers are indicated in Table 2.

The teachers see the texts being unattractive for the students, level of the subjects not being appropriate for the students, students forgetting the new words they have learned because of not using in daily life, students being unable to follow the written sources and inadequate and wrong teaching of grammar as the mostly encountered problems related to content.

Teacher 6 has stated his opinions as *"Reading materials in the course books should be prepared with short and simple sentences which are easily understandable and enrich the imagination of the students. Reading materials are above the levels of the students so, students have difficulties in understanding the subjects."*

Teacher 7 has stated his opinions as *"Students have difficulty in understanding the metaphors and the meanings of idioms and proverbs. Students are unable to use the words they have learned in a sentence. Maybe they have this problem because of lack of reading habits."*

Teacher 12 has stated his opinions as *"The kid has*

Table 2. Teachers' opinions about the problems encountered about content.

Problems encountered (P=22)	F
Students having difficulty to understand metaphorical phrases.	3
Students not aware of meanings of idioms and proverbs.	3
The level of the subjects not being appropriate for the students.	6
The texts being unattractive for the students.	8
Students forgetting /not using the new words they have learned.	5
Students having difficulties in following the written sources.	5
Inadequate and wrong teaching of grammar	2

Table 3. Teachers' opinions about the problems encountered related with learning-teaching process.

Problems encountered (P=22)	F
Lack of communication between the teachers and students in the classroom.	14
Activities being unattractive and above the levels of the students.	11
Physical conditions of the schools being inadequate for education.	13
Wrong teaching techniques	6
Students who do not speak Turkish sufficiently.	11
Students who do not prepare for classes well.	8
Students who cannot participate in the classes because of speaking problems.	8
Students preserving the structure of their local dialect.	3
Students having problems in spelling and pronunciation of the words.	10
Underdeveloped reading comprehension skills of the students.	5
Poor listening skills and attentions of the students.	6
Students having difficulties in repeating what they have listened.	7
Reading speed of the students being too slow.	6
Students not paying attention to pauses, stresses and intonation in reading exercises.	4
Students not having book reading habit.	9
Excessive usage of words in mother tongue in classroom	6
Slang learned from TV	1

difficulties in understanding long texts and so he is distracted. In addition, selection of boring texts which has low literary value rather than the texts of famous authors prevents the students from having literary taste and reading habits."

After the analysis of the teachers' opinions about content, most encountered problems can be stated as themes and subjects being inappropriate for the levels of the students, too long texts, and grammar being ignored.

Problems encountered in learning-teaching process in Turkish Language teaching

Nearly all of the teachers participated in the research (22 people) have stated that they had faced some problems in learning-teaching process. The problems encountered by the teachers are given in Table 3.

Most encountered problems related with learning-teaching process are lack of communication between teachers and students in the classroom, physical conditions of the schools being inadequate for education, students who do not know Turkish sufficiently, students with poor listening skills, students who transfer words from their mother tongues into Turkish, reading speed of the students being too slow, and students who do not pay attention to pauses, stresses and intonation.

Teacher 13 has stated his opinions as *"Some students come to the school without speaking Turkish and the students who can speak Turkish act as translators for us to communicate with them. Even students who can speak Turkish make sentences by transferring words from their mother tongues in a local dialect when they have difficulty in expressing themselves."*

Teacher 9 has stated his opinions as *"It is difficult for the students to talk and make comments on the subject. Activities are too many and mother tongue differences have been ignored."*

Teacher 11 has stated his opinions as *"Language training should follow the steps of listening, speaking, and later*

Table 4. Teachers' Opinions about the Problems Encountered in Assessment-Evaluation Process.

Problems encountered (P=22)	F
Low marks because of ambiguities in oral and written expressions.	18
Student errors in punctuation and spelling in the composition exams.	14
Insufficient time.	11
Some of the assessment and evaluation forms being too difficult.	7
Students having difficulties in expressing themselves.	7
Students failing in multiple-choice exams because of lack of reading comprehension.	4

reading and writing skills Starting teaching Turkish in the first grade with writing skills makes it difficult for children to learn Turkish.."

Teacher 20 has stated his opinions as *"Although teaching with pictures is very useful for teaching vocabulary in the first grade, it does not work with the students who have different mother tongues. Let me tell you an experience on this issue. I showed a "horse" ("at" in Turkish) picture to teach letter "a" to the student and I asked what it is. But he defined it as "hasp" starting with the letter "h" which is the word used in his mother tongue to define "horse". Turkish language should be taught with different methods to the students whose mother tongue is Turkish and to the students who have different mother tongues."*

The teachers have stated that the most encountered problems about the learning-teaching process are activities being unattractive and above the levels of the students, physical conditions of the schools being inadequate, language teaching being carried out with wrong teaching techniques, and readiness level and developmental properties of the students being inadequate.

Problems encountered in assessment and evaluation in Turkish Language teaching

While majority of the teachers participated in the research (19 people) have stated that they have problems in assessment and evaluation, 5 teachers have stated that they do not have any problems. The problems in assessment and evaluation encountered by teachers are indicated in Table 4.

The teachers have stated that most encountered problems in assessment and evaluation process are students getting low marks because of the ambiguities in their oral and written expressions; student errors in punctuation and spelling in the composition exams, insufficient time, some of the assessment and evaluation forms being too difficult for the students, students having difficulties in expressing themselves, and students failing in multiple-choice exams because of lack of reading comprehension.

Teacher 3 has stated his opinions as *"We have problems in assessment and evaluation. Time is not enough for our curriculum. We are trying to finish all the subjects in the curriculum as students do not know Turkish enough and so we cannot find enough time for assessment and evaluation."*

Teacher 14 has stated his opinions as *"Students have difficulties in expressing themselves in written. They cannot get good marks because of the ambiguities in their exam papers."*

Teacher 17 has stated his opinions as *"Students are unable to express themselves in oral exams. They are unable to pronounce the words correctly. They cannot be successful in national exams like SBS due to the lack of reading comprehension."*

The analysis of the problems related with the assessment and evaluation process shows that most encountered problems are insufficient time and students having difficulties in expressing themselves either oral or written.

Suggestions to overcome the problems determined in Turkish Language teaching

The suggestions of the teachers to overcome the problems determined in Turkish language teaching are indicated in Table 5.

Most cited suggestions by teachers are; restructuring Turkish curriculum by taking the students with different mother tongues into consideration, publishing attractive and appropriate textbooks according to the levels of the students, improving physical and technological facilities of the schools, increasing Turkish class hours, increasing parent and student awareness for Turkish education, encouraging students to read in order to equip them with reading habits, training teachers against offenses to the students who use regional dialect and incorrect Turkish, teachers developing students' self-expression skills and the self-confidence, increasing teachers' sensitivity about the use of language as a role model, in-service training to teachers, and implementing alternative assessment and evaluation techniques .

Table 5. Suggestions of the teachers to overcome the determined problems.

Suggestions of the teachers (P=22)	F
Restructuring of curriculum by taking the students with different mother tongues into consideration.	8
Publishing attractive and appropriate textbooks according to the level of students.	15
Improving physical and technological facilities of the schools.	20
Increasing Turkish class hours.	4
Increasing parent and student awareness for Turkish education.	10
Encouraging students to read in order to equip them with reading habits.	8
Training teachers against offenses to the students who use regional dialect and incorrect Turkish	5
Teachers developing students' self-expression skills and the self-confidence.	6
Increasing teachers' sensitivity about the use of language as a role model.	5
In-service training to teachers.	5
Implementing alternative assessment and evaluation techniques.	2

Table 6. Students' Turkish knowledge before attending to school.

Students' Turkish knowledge before attending school (P= 60)	F
Yes	7
No	53

Teacher 8 has stated his opinions as *"Students should be provided with a rich learning-teaching environment to develop their reading, writing, speaking and listening skills and they should also have necessary facilities to express themselves confidently with various teaching strategies. Turkish teachers of the students who have different mother tongues should be given in-service training. I suggest that textbooks and materials should be prepared by field experts taking the needs of the students who have different mother tongues into consideration."*

Teacher 11 has stated his opinions as *"Teachers should collaborate with the families for the students to use Turkish in social life. The time period of students using Turkish should be increased by various activities like theatre and cinema. Students should be encouraged to gain reading habits to follow written sources."*

The opinions of the students who have different mother tongues about learning Turkish

The theme about the opinions of the students who have different mother tongues about learning Turkish is divided into four sub-themes as states of Turkish knowledge, the objectives of learning Turkish, effectiveness of learning and using Turkish, and the problems and suggestions in learning Turkish.

The States of Turkish Knowledge

The students were asked the question of "Did you speak

Turkish before school education?" Their answers are indicated in Table 6.

The students who have different mother tongues have been asked the question of "Did you speak Turkish before school education?" It has been found out that 53 students had not spoken Turkish before school education. 7 students who had spoken Turkish before school education have been asked how much they had spoken Turkish.

Student 8 has responded as *"I could made simple sentences and sing songs. I could understand what elder people had spoken."*

Student 52 has said *"I could understand the conversations in the cartoons. I had difficulties in makining sentences with the words I have learned from television while speaking with my friends."*
Student 24 has said *"My family used to speak Turkish with me at home for me to not to have any difficulties in learning Turkish at school. So, I do speak Turkish very well. I speak Turkish and I listen to Turkish music. I can easily understand the movies in the television."*

The students have been asked the question of "Where have you learned Turkish?" Their answers are indicated in Table 7.

Most of the students have stated that they want to improve their Turkish. 42 of the students who have different mother tongues have stated that they have learned Turkish in primary school. 9 of those have stated that they have learned Turkish by the help of their families, 4 of those stated that they have learned

Table 7. Students' opinions about their source of Turkish.

Students' opinions about their source of Turkish (P= 60)	F
Family	9
Kindergarten	4
Primary School	42
Holiday	1
Course	0
On my own	2
Other	2

Table 8. Students' opinions about ımproving their Turkish.

Students' opinions about improving their Turkish (P= 60)	F
Yes	56
No	4

Table 9. Students Opinions about the objectives of learning Turkish.

Students' opinions about the objectives of learning Turkish (P=60)	F
To use Turkish effectively	49
To achieve success in other subjects	47
To communicate with friends better	35
To access information in Turkish	29
To understand what is told in Turkish television channels better	8
To read Turkish news	5

Turkish in kindergarten.

The students have been asked the question of "Do you want to improve your Turkish?" Their responses are indicated in Table 8.

Almost all of the students have stated that they want to improve their Turkish.

Objectives of learning Turkish

The students have been primarily asked the question of "What is your objective of learning Turkish?" Their responses are indicated in Table 9.

As seen in Table 9, majority of the students who have different mother tongues want to learn Turkish to use Turkish more effectively and achieve success in other subjects. Also, more than half of the students want to learn Turkish to communicate with friends better, while almost half of the students to access information in Turkish.

Turkish learning and practice activities

The students have been asked the questions of "What types of extracurricular activities do you do to learn

Turkish?" and "Where do you practice Turkish in your daily life?" Their responses are indicated in Table 10.

As seen in Table 10, more than half of the students have stated that they practice Turkish at school. Almost all of the students watch Turkish TV channels and listen to Turkish music.

Student 27 has stated his opinion as "*I practice Turkish every day, I read books, I watch TV, I listen to music. At school I speak to my teachers and friends in Turkish*".
Student 12 has stated his opinion as "*We speak our mother tongue at home. We only need Turkish when we watch television*".

Student 5 who does not always practice Turkish has said "*We often speak in our mother tongue, we rarely speak Turkish*".

Problems and suggestions in Learning Turkish

The students have been asked the questions of "What kind of problems do you encounter while learning Turkish?" and "What are your suggestions in order to solve these problems?" Students' answers to these questions are indicated in Table 11.

As seen in Table 11, 15 of the students who have

Table 10. Students' opinions in Turkish learning and practicing activities.

Students' opinions about Turkish learning and practicing activities (P=60)	F
The extracurricular activities of the students for learning Turkish	
Listening to Turkish music	55
Reading Turkish books	40
Speaking Turkish with family and friends	27
Reading sport news	31
Using internet	10
Students' practice of Turkish in daily life	
At school	52
With friends	21
In watching TV and listening to music	58
In reading books	44
With guests, relatives	12
With family at home	6
On the phone	3
Online	10
Do not practice	4
Sometimes practice	22

Table 11. Students' opinions about problems encountered in learning Turkish and solution suggestions.

Problems encountered in learning Turkish and suggestions (P= 60)	F
Students' opinions about the problems encountered in learning Turkish	
Problems in writing	15
Problems in speaking	32
Forgetting because of lack of practice	45
Poor vocabulary	29
Problems in understanding written materials	20
Problems in listening	6
Suggestions of the students	
Web pages for Turkish language teaching	40
Various education CDs	35
Diversifying extracurricular activities	30
Increasing Turkish class hours	5
Increased usage of books and journals	7

participated in the research have stated that they had had some problems in writing, while 32 of those have stated that they had had problems in speaking. 45 of those have stated that they had forgotten what they had learned because of lack of practice while 29 of those have stated that they have poor vocabulary. More than half of the students have stated that Internet can be utilized, while 35 of those have stated that CDs can be used to solve these problems.

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

With this research, it has been aimed to identify the problems encountered in Turkish language teaching to those students who have different mother tongues and to suggest solutions to these problems. It is very important to determine the problems encountered in Turkish language teaching in order to improve the quality of teaching activities and to carry out Turkish language teaching as intended.

The results obtained from this research reveal that half of the teachers has been having problems about the expected learning outcomes in Turkish language teaching. Most cited problems are curriculum being prepared with the presumption of students operate in Turkish well, time insufficiency to teach the expected learning outcomes, expected learning outcomes being

set above the level of the students, and students not practicing the achieved outcomes in daily life. These findings yield to take actions including restructuring of Turkish curriculum by taking the students with different mother tongues into consideration and restructuring the goals, can also be counted as the expected learning outcomes have been set above the level of students when Turkish lesson duration is taken into consideration. Expected learning outcomes should be redesigned based on the development and readiness levels of the students.

It can be stated that more than half of the teachers face problems about content of the Turkish language teaching curriculum. After the analysis of the opinions of the teachers, most cited problems are found to be the texts being unattractive for the students, level of the subjects not being appropriate for the students, students forgetting new words they had learned because of lack of practice, students being unable to follow the written sources, and inadequate and wrong teaching of grammar. These findings can be interpreted as the subject level in Turkish curriculum not being appropriate for the students and grammar subjects should be revised and be taught in association with other language skills.

After the analysis of teachers' opinions on the problems encountered in learning-teaching process of Turkish language teaching, it can be stated that almost all of the teachers have had some problems about learning-teaching process. Most encountered problems are lack of communication between teachers and students in the classroom, physical conditions of the schools being inadequate for education, students who do not know Turkish sufficiently, students with poor listening skills, students who transfer words from their mother tongues into Turkish, reading speed of the students being too slow, and students who do not pay attention to pauses, stresses and intonation. These findings can be interpreted as the students who have different mother tongues are unable to fully participate in the learning-teaching process and education cannot be carried out as intended due to physical conditions of the schools and limited Turkish knowledge of the students. Although it is known that the language teaching required special effort because it is a complex and multidimensional issue, it can be interpreted that the success of Turkish teaching depends on personal skills of the teachers due to the fact that curriculum, family awareness, student motivation, school conditions and social environment are not as in desired level. In addition, it can be concluded that it is necessary to use attractive strategies providing self-confidence to the students such as drama and educational games together with enrichment of the activities in the curriculum.

Majority of the teachers have reported problems related with assessment and evaluation encountered in Turkish curriculum. The main problems related with assessment and evaluation encountered are students getting low marks because of the ambiguities in their oral and written expressions; student errors in punctuation and spelling in the composition exams, insufficient time, some of the assessment and evaluation forms being too difficult for students, students having difficulties in expressing themselves, and students failing in multiple-choice exams because of lack of reading comprehension. The purpose of assessment is the evaluation of students' knowledge; however, students who have different mother tongues do not only fail in the exams of Turkish subject but also of other courses due to the lack of expressing themselves and their knowledge. This failure reduces students' motivation and self-confidence and it leads to a negative attitude towards school. Assessment and evaluation in the new Turkish curriculum includes the assessment of both the process and the product. This aspect of the curriculum requires diversified assessment and evaluation methods to be used.

All of the teachers have stated that students make pronunciation mistakes, while a large portion have stated that students' lack reading comprehension, speak with a few words, and have difficulties in spelling. The suggestions of the teachers to tackle these problems are restructuring Turkish curriculum by taking the students with different mother tongues into consideration, publishing attractive and appropriate books according to the levels of the students, improving physical and technological facilities of the schools, increasing Turkish class hours, increasing parent and student awareness for Turkish education, encouraging students to read in order to equip them with reading habits, training teachers against offenses to the students who use regional dialect and incorrect Turkish, teachers developing students' self-expression skills and the self-confidence by using various expression methods, increasing teachers' sensitivity about the use of language as a role model, providing in-service training to teachers, and implementing alternative assessment and evaluation techniques.

Majority of the students have stated that they had not spoken Turkish before attending school and they had learned it at primary school. Almost all of the students have stated that they find their Turkish insufficient, and they want to improve it. The students want to learn Turkish because of reasons such as communicating with friends better, using Turkish effectively, and being successful in other subjects. It can also be stated that most widely used activity to improve Turkish is music, more than half of the students read Turkish books, while few of them use Internet. In addition, results of the research confirm that more than half of the students practice Turkish, while few of the students do not or rarely practice Turkish. Students have stated that problems they encounter in Turkish are in speaking and expressing, forgetting due to lack of practice in daily life, and poor vocabulary. The suggestions of the students to overcome these problems are mainly related to the use of technology and are using online sources and various Turkish education CDs, extracurricular activities, and increasing Turkish class hours.

It can be stated that teachers' and students' opinions show great resemblance about the problems in learning Turkish: Students practice Turkish mainly with their families. They have lots of problems in learning Turkish in terms of language skills. Their suggestions to tackle these problems are that education should be supported with resources and extracurricular activities.

In the light of the results obtained in the research, following suggestions can be made for effective implementation of Turkish language teaching and to overcome the problems:

1. Turkish teachers should be given in-service training about how students can be encouraged to gain the basic skills of Turkish, and about which methods are appropriate in teaching.
2. Students who have different mother tongues should be taught with different methods in a different curriculum. Therefore, initially a needs analysis should be performed to these students. After determining the Turkish proficiency levels of the students, an alternative curriculum should be implemented.
3. Teachers should not overreact or humiliate students who speak in a local dialect in the classroom; but they should correct the pronunciation mistakes in a proper manner.
4. Classes should provide an appropriate environment for the students to use and to improve their understanding and expression skills. Teachers should create a comfortable environment for the students to express themselves by making use of fine arts. Turkish language teaching should be carried out in a classroom equipped with a library that includes qualified examples of audiovisual tools for the students to dramatize an event when necessary, since it is necessary to practice language skills in order to develop them.
5. Grammar is very important in Turkish language teaching. Traditional prescriptive language teaching should not be used in grammar classes. Simple rules should be taught. Focus should be on communication rather than grammar.
6. Turkish language education given in the schools should be expanded to family and social environment. Therefore schools should be continuously in collaboration with the families. Parents' awareness of the Turkish education should be raised, and they should be sensitive for their children to learn Turkish.

Conflict of Interests

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Three-step approach for developing integrated work-ready assessment tools to foster student's learning and satisfaction

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The purpose of this paper is to present the relevance of the three-step approach undertaken by a marketing academic working in the University of New England Business School to foster distance student's learning, satisfaction and overall study experience. This work is a reflection of the author's teaching practice whereby a multitude of innovative teaching resources, relevant assignments and effective feedback system were integrated to develop work-ready assessment tools that are required for today's graduates to be readily employable. Evidence gathered from teaching and unit evaluation data obtained from the years 2011 to 2014 indicated that this three-step approach fostered students' independent learning by transforming them from being passive surface learners to deep and active learners. Similarly, the overall satisfaction rate of students with the units (subject) coordinated by the author, the pass rates and grade point averages as well as the number of distinctions and high distinctions secured by students enrolled in those marketing related units indicate the acquisition of authentic cognitive skills. The evidence gathered from teaching practice indicates the relevance of integrating work-ready assessment tools with worthwhile feedback and innovative teaching resources to enhance distance students' overall study experience.

Key words: Marketing units, work-ready assessment tools, teaching resources, assignment plans, quality feedback, student's independent learning.

INTRODUCTION

Australian universities are the preferred destinations for many students pursuing their tertiary education dreams. For many years Australian universities have been providing enhanced higher education opportunities for diverse student cohorts consisting of domestic, international, mature and younger age students. Today, the global higher education market is rapidly changing and so is the Australian higher education market due to funding restrictions, changing domestic and international students' needs and wants, many universities offering similar offerings, and the ever-changing purchasing power parity that comes with fluctuating monetary exchange rates. Additionally, many private education providers are also rapidly entering the Australian higher education

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market with an attractive offering of flexible study and course delivery modes (Precision Consultancy and Commonwealth of Australia, 2007).

Within the services context, the role of tertiary education sector in revenue generation cannot be overlooked as it generates massive revenues and adds significantly to the Australian national economy. Therefore, it is imperative for the Australian higher education sector to focus on the provision of customised service offerings to its students that align with the ever changing demands of universities, industries and students (Yorke, 2006; Harvey, 2005). Given this context, there seems to be a lot of pressure on higher education institutions as the industry's demand for seeking work-ready graduates is steadily increasing, promoting an enterprise culture (Ballantine and McCourt, 2007).

The benefits associated with the focus on work-ready graduates are varied and manifold. Universities develop a distinct competitive and market advantage and can attract increased student numbers. Similarly, universities can use their focus on developing work-ready graduates as a base to attract scholarships and funding from industries apart from building upon collaborative projects through national and international grants. Academics can focus on developing work-ready assessment tasks in order to be able to respond effectively to the present and future needs (Alderman and Milne, 2005) of education institutions, industries and students; produce more work-ready graduates (Orrell, 2004); enhance community engagement through meaningful partnerships; and produce graduates with better integration capabilities with societal values (Smith, 2012).

The purpose of this study is to present the relevance of the three-step approach for developing integrated work-ready assessment tools to foster student learning and satisfaction with the unit offerings in the context of Business School at the Australian university. Regional universities occupy a distinct position in terms of their student cohorts and research priorities in Australia. There exists a need for the regional universities to differentiate themselves and focus on appropriate positioning strategies in order to achieve a better competitive advantage given the current situation whereby city-based universities can enroll as many students as possible. Regional universities need to focus on improvising measures to provide a quality on-campus education experience, a unique off-campus education, increased social inclusiveness, and enhancement of students' work-ready capabilities. Students pursuing their higher education studies within regional universities also seem to be isolated and tend to pace their study options. Universities Australia that oversee the universities teaching and learning activities and students' capabilities and needs in 2008 urged universities to address the national skills shortage and student employability through appropriate measures (Universities Australia 2008).

Therefore, this study presents the three-step approach as a reflection of good teaching practice developed and implemented by the author (a marketing academic) in delivering marketing-related units to undergraduate and postgraduate students in a regional Australian university. The initial focus was on the revitalisation of subject content within the unit offerings. Then the author focused on developing a multitude of innovative teaching resources presented to students in the form of interactive case studies, activities, power points, audio podcasts, and topic summary notes that were released to students on a weekly basis. The assessment tasks developed were divided into formative and summative assessment tasks. Formative assessment tasks were linked to the weekly teaching resources and summative assessment tasks were linked to specific industry needs. Throughout the unit offering the author, as the instructor, provided timely and useful feedback to students on both formative and summative assessment tasks.

The following section presents a brief review of existing literature and presents the conceptual framework of the present study. The next section outlines the method adopted to obtain students' data related to their overall grade point averages and satisfaction rates with subject offerings. Results and discussion are then presented and implications of the three-step approach and work-ready assessment tools are discussed.

BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE SYNTHESES

Students need to be active and independent learners as these skills developed at the university level will reap greater benefits when students enter the work environment. Biggs (1994)' classification focuses on three types of learners: surface learners with an aim to just pass the units; achievement-oriented learners who aim to get good grades; and deep learners who enjoy learning apart from securing higher grades. In order to be active and independent learners, students need to change their overall thinking about the units, unit coordinators, and the content included within these units. This overall change in students' thinking will actually allow them to think beyond the surface learning process.

In terms of managing the students' cohorts, Business Schools operating within the Australian context have unique student cohorts with varied needs and study demands. The student cohorts enrolled in the units coordinated by me varied greatly in terms of variables such as age (18 to 60 years), gender (male and female), type of employment (full time to part time to casual) and ethnicity (domestic to international). The size of the units also varied from being 'small units' consisting of 15 to 30 students to 'large units' consisting of over 60 students. Similarly, it is noticed that the students' perceptions of 'what they wanted from enrolling in marketing units?' and
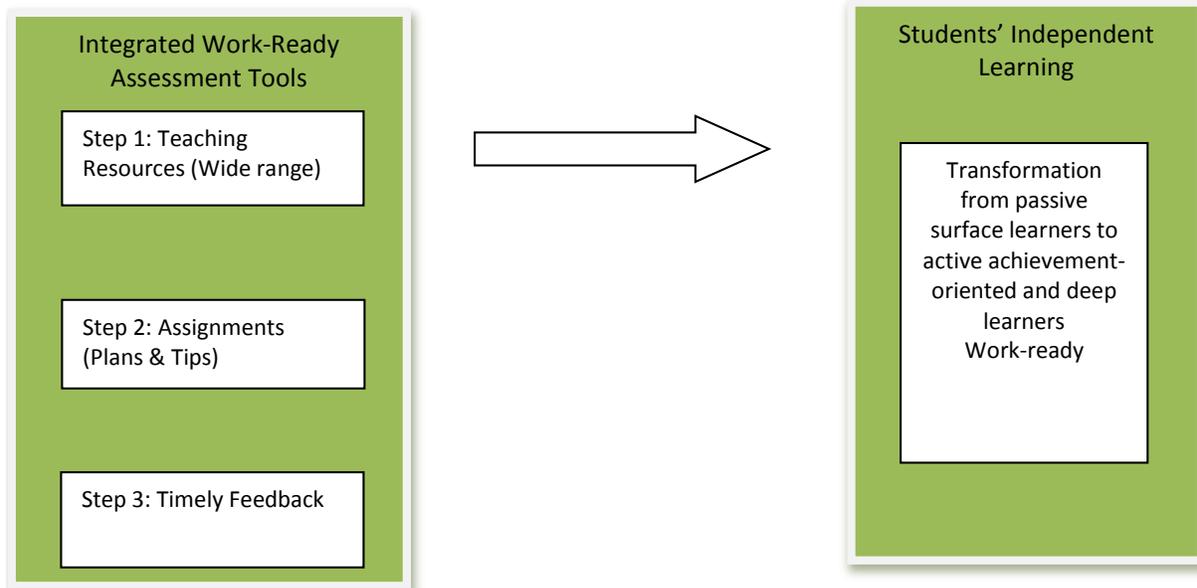
Figure 1. Three-step approach fostering students' learning and satisfaction. Source: Developed for this paper.

'where they want to be after completing their studies?' exhibited greater variability.

These perceptions largely determined students' inter-action with the unit coordinator, their overall engagement with the unit content, their performance, and their level of engagement on Moodle discussion boards. Similarly, the career aspirations of domestic, international, under-graduate and postgraduate students exhibited greater differences. Based on the students' interactions on Moodle, it was evident that a majority preferred to be surface learners and seemed to be highly passive in terms of their interaction with the unit content, the unit coordinator and their peers. Despite all of the aforesaid variability, the ultimate aim of all the students is to enter the work environment as soon as possible by gaining work-ready skills. To complement students' aspirations, work experience components were successfully integrated into the teaching curriculum through work-ready assessment tools.

A three-step approach (Figure 1) in covering important components such as resources, assessments and feedback that reflect the development of work-ready assessment tools was adopted. The first step focused on providing a range of resources by way of writing/rewriting/updating teaching material, including appropriate readings, relevant case studies, unit related content in Power point slides, audio summaries, video links and other relevant activities. All of these resources are released on a weekly basis to fit the students' learning pace. In the second step, the focus was on developing assignments in the form of 'Marketing Plans' and 'Strategic Marketing Plans' whereby students need to use

their critical thinking skills and draw logical conclusions. This was further supplemented with 'assignment tips' that provided an overview of the entire assessment task. In the third step the focus was to provide a worthwhile feedback system to students in order to develop their core competencies and ongoing development (Table 1).

Implementation of this three-step approach that feeds back directly to the development of integrated work-ready assessment tools benefited students to a greater extent and is evident in terms of their enhanced independent learning abilities and their transformation from surface to achievement-oriented, deep and active learners. The success of this approach is further evidenced through the grades secured by students in respective units and the consistency of overall student satisfaction ratings across various Marketing units.

Smith (2012) outlined six domains of work-integrated learning curriculum that cover structural and conceptual measures such as authenticity, alignment of teaching and learning related activities with learning objectives, alignment of assessment tasks with learning objectives, integrated learning support, academic contact and achieving successful outcomes through preparation process. Integration of work-ready assessment tools needs to provide students a meaningful engagement with a real work environment (Herrington and Herrington, 2006). Realistic problems need to motivate students and encourage active participation (Keogh et al., 2007). Biggs' (1996) framework suggests that to constructively align learning objectives with assessment tasks in order to foster students' learning and teaching activities. The connection of theoretical frameworks with practice-

Table 1. Overall students' satisfaction (out of 5).

Year	Units			
	GSB737	GSB736	MM314	MM316
2009	4.40	4.18	3.67	3.83
2010	4.86*	4.38	4.17	3.71
2011	4.71	4.50*	4.29	4.71*
2012	--	--	4.62*	4.59*
2013	X	o	4.63*	4.50*
2014	X	o	4.54*	4.73*

-- Unit not evaluated; X Unit not taught by the author; o Unit has been removed from the programme; *Units taught by the author.

oriented approaches triggers intellectual stimulation towards learning by way of fostering state-of-the-art disciplinary knowledge, thus allowing learners to transfer university learning to the workplace (Dymock & Gerber 2002). Academic engagement and contact is important in fostering integrated learning support to students by way of providing feedback with feed forward elements and support throughout the experience (Keogh et al., 2007). The management of effective pedagogical requirements helps students achieve successful learning outcomes and prepares them for ever changing industry requirements (Smith, 2012).

METHOD

The author focused on obtaining existing student data as a measure to understand students' learning and satisfaction. Data were extracted from the unit and teaching evaluations obtained from students for each unit offering. Extant literature indicates that positive student experience is highly correlated to academic performance and overall grade point averages. Students' academic performance is related to their attention to detail with various assessment components set out for the units available in a specific course (*for example Bachelors in Business*) into which the student is enrolled. Two postgraduate and two undergraduate unit offerings were evaluated. The postgraduate units were GSB736 International Marketing and GSB737 Services Marketing in 2009, 2010 and 2011. The data related to the postgraduate unit offerings in 2012, 2013 and 2014 were not included as one unit offering has been removed and a different academic taught the other unit. The two undergraduate unit offerings included MM314 Services Marketing and MM316 Strategic Marketing offered in 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2014. The grade point averages, pass rates, distinctions and high distinctions secured by the students are presented in Tables 1, 2 and 3 as a key measure to understand the impact created by the three step approach developed and implemented by author on students' academic performance and their overall satisfaction with unit offerings.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Enhancements to student learning are evident through the educational opportunities provided to off-campus students through Moodle discussion boards, to ensure that students who are not on campus have the same level of support as those who attend lectures and tutorials. Biggs and Tang (2007) highlight the importance of the communication of clear objectives and expectations for active learning. The weekly release of a range of learning resources for distance students in the form of power point slides, audio podcasts, activities in the form of exercises for students, topic summaries, case studies, and video links on the Moodle Learning Management System attracted students to focus on independent learning. Topic related content was repeated in various formats and integrated with relevant examples that were much appreciated by students. The scaffolding of the academic literacy related aspects of these units by introducing a combination of learning resources was deemed to be very useful. The development of well-informed assessment tasks enhances learning processes and develops goal setting and critical reflection (Ganda et al., 2014). The incorporation of integrated assessment strategies in various Marketing units attracted active engagement in Moodle discussion boards and other related forums, self-monitoring and critical reflection on learning process, interactive response to the feedback, enhanced peer participation and development of the essential skill sets and core competencies required for real world practice, as well as continuous improvement and life-long learning.

The assessment tools and revised learning resources provided for this unit encouraged students to think beyond it, the discipline and the university context to expand their knowledge and skills in order to meet real world work situations. The development of work-ready assessment tools as assessment tasks for Marketing units with a focus on the clear articulation of goals stimulated students' interest in the subject. The focus upon incorporating assessment tasks that support student learning in and beyond the University context through the acquisition and development of necessary skills and competencies enables students to be work-ready, yet also delivers higher levels of student learning, engagement and satisfaction.

Table 2. Unit evaluations.

Year/Units	Postgraduate unit 1	Postgraduate unit 2	Undergraduate unit 1	Undergraduate unit 2
2009	4.40 (13) 0.00% (HD) 58.33% (D)	4.18 (26) 20.83% (HD) 41.67% (D)	3.67 (30)/(15) 0.00% (HD) 30.00% (D)	3.83 (29) 3.70% (HD) 33.33% (D)
2010	*4.86 (23) 4.35% (HD) 60.8% (D)	4.38 (18) 6.25% (HD) 56.25% (D)	4.17 (16)/(9) 6.25% (HD) 37.50% (D)	3.71 (65) 0.00% (HD) 24.19% (D)
2011	4.71 (11) (40.00% (HD) 40.00% (D)	*4.50 (21) 0.00% (HD) 75.00% (D)	4.29 (31)/4.60 (12) 32.14% (HD)/16.67% (HD) 35.71% (D)/50.00% (D)	*4.71 (63) 8.20% (HD) 62.30% (D)
2012	------ (6) 33.33% (HD) 50.00% (D)	++++	*4.62 (27) 3.85% (HD) 42.31% (D)	*4.59 (69) 13.43% (HD) 55.22% (D)
2013	------	++++	*4.63 (32) 4.10% (HD) 43.21% (D)	*4.56 (87) 14.34% (HD) 55.40% (D)
2014	-------	++++	*4.54 (41) 4.23% (HD) 45.21% (D)	*4.73 (92) 15.20% (HD) 56.23% (D)

------ Evaluations not available as less than 5 students attempted to perform unit/teaching evaluations. ++++ Unit no longer offered.
*Coordinated by the author. 2009, 2010 and 2011 – MM314 offered as a double-badged unit MM214/MM314
Numbers in parentheses – students enrolled in that particular unit.

Table 3. Pass rate (PR) and grade point average (GPA).

Year/unit	Postgraduate unit 1	Postgraduate unit 2	Undergraduate unit 1	Undergraduate unit 2
2009	75.00% PR 4.25 GPA	87.50% PR 5.12 GPA	90.00% PR 4.80 GPA	77.78% PR 4.26 GPA
2010	*100.00% PR 5.70 GPA	88.24% PR 5.06 GPA	93.75% PR 5.06 GPA	90.48% PR 4.63 GPA
2011	100.00% PR 6.20 GPA	*100.00% PR 5.75 GPA	85.71% PR 5.25 GPA	*93.44% PR 5.43 GPA
2012	100.00% PR 6.17 GPA	-------- --------	*88.46% PR 4.88 GPA	*98.51% PR 5.73 GPA
2013	------------- 	--------- 	*92.40% PR 4.90 GPA	*98.54% PR 5.77 GPA
2014	------------- 	---------- 	*93.00% PR 4.92 GPA	*98.60% PR 5.78 GPA

*Units taught by the author; PR – Pass Rate; GPA – Grade Point Averages.

Assignments were developed by taking into consideration the knowledge levels of the students at that stage of the unit with all of the necessary support and resources provided as well as what is actually expected from them when they join the workforce. These assignments were made interesting by allowing students to develop marketing plans that aligned with the unit material with greater emphasis on application-based learning. Assignment tips were provided in advance that helped students to enhance their problem-solving and critical thinking abilities. Assignment tips focused on a range of information detailing how the assignment

question needed to be carefully interpreted and responses logically argued. Additionally, these tips highlighted the structural and general components of assignments.

Feedback is an important component for both academics and students as it provides diagnostic evidence of teaching quality and is usually communicated in a way that is informative and improves students' work. Essential elements of an effective feedback system for academics include the identification of learning gaps, encouraging student involvement and focus upon on students' overall learning progression. In identifying the learning gap, the difference between what students already know and they need to know by enrolling into a specific course or taking up specific units needs to be clearly identified by academics. Embedding adequate instructional support allows students to progress in their learning and engage in cognitive learning activities. Appropriate feedback given by academics will inform the next step in the critical learning process and is directed at identified learning deficiencies. Care needs to be taken to build the cognitive skills of students by breaking down the larger learning goals into smaller components and continuously monitoring the entire learning process (Hattie and Timperley, 2007). A worthwhile feedback system also will enable students to acquire and develop core competencies (Hattie and Timperley, 2007).

Acquisition of key competencies encourages students to focus on independent learning in dynamic complex business environments. For example, the provision of prompt feedback to students on their assessment submissions and responding to their enquiries in a professional manner will generate interest among students and encourage deeper learning. Provision of regular formative learning support to students in various Marketing units with relevant feedback fostered their ongoing development. Similarly, provision of constructive, respectful criticism (often by highlighting areas for further development) stimulated students' engagement with the unit, peers and the unit coordinator.

It is important for students to utilise disciplinary knowledge in the workplace through integrated learning. Therefore, it is very important for academics to embed the concept of integrated learning in curriculum activities and assessments. It also is important for academics to focus on enhancing the cognitive authenticity of students evident through their transformation from surface passive learners to deep active learners through personally meaningful and relevant learning settings (Herrington and Herrington, 2006; Smith, 2012). The structural dimensions associated with the unit are important in fostering students' independent learning. These structural dimensions relate to the organisation and structuring of various learning tasks and the presentation of materials and information in a clear, concise and accessible manner (Richardson, 2005). The process dimensions relate to the instructor's interpersonal skills and ability to engage and encourage students to contribute to learning tasks and think independently (Goldstein and Benassi, 2006). Students' evaluations clearly reflect the focus of the instructor in integrating structural and process dimensions to foster independent learning and critical thinking (Luke and Hogarth, 2011). Similarly, open-ended comments obtained from students clearly indicate the balance brought by the instructor by bringing together the needs and expectations of the various student cohorts.

Formative assessment is a process of continuously assessing students while instruction is underway through the provision of effective feedback (Popham, 2008). This assessment technique enables instructors to understand what students actually know; to identify knowledge gaps; and to plan future instruction in order to improve the quality of the learning process. Formative assessment also includes ongoing activities and processes that are linked to current teaching and learning activities (Perie et al., 2007). This type of assessment helps instructors diagnose students' progress throughout the unit. Three broad strategies associated with formative assessment include 'on-the-fly' alteration whereby instructors' change the course in order to address any misconceptions before proceeding with the usual instructional sequence; planned-for interaction whereby the instructor decides to draw out students' thinking during the course of instruction; and curriculum embedding whereby the instructor integrates various tools and activities in the curriculum to gather feedback from students at key points in the learning process (Heritage, 2007). The exemplary student outcomes in terms of grade point averages, low attrition rates, grading distributions and the high standard of reported satisfaction for various marketing related units are further evidence of prompt and timely feedback, the positive influence that has been generated, and the result of formative learning support.

The overall unit evaluation scores over the past four years in five Marketing units are presented in Table 1. An increase in students' cognitive skills is evident through the rise in the number of 'distinctions' and 'high distinctions' secured by students and the increase in the pass rate and overall grade point averages over the years presented in Tables 2 and 3.

These scores show a steady improvement in overall students' satisfaction with units over the time that the author has been involved. The author taught a postgraduate unit in 2010 and another postgraduate unit in 2011 for postgraduate distance students and secured teaching evaluations of over 4.5 out of 5.0 (which place the units in the top 10% of the offerings made at the university). The author also taught the undergraduate services marketing unit in 2012, 2013 and in 2014 and undergraduate strategic marketing unit in 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2014 to undergraduate distance students and secured teaching evaluations of over 4.5 out of 5.0 on all measures of providing best teaching resources, timely

and constructive feedback and overall student satisfaction.

Table 2 presents information regarding the number of students enrolled within each unit offering and the change in the students' learning patterns. Due to the teaching interventions embraced by the author within these unit offerings, the number of students securing distinctions and high distinctions has increased substantially and it has been further reflected in the author receiving commendation awards from the university across all of these unit offerings.

Table 3 presents information related to the students' pass rates and grade point averages that have increased over time and which truly reflect the learning outcomes achieved by students from these unit offerings. The implementation of the three-step approach changed the focus of learning for students as they valued the real-life authentic assessment tasks that meet the needs of the industry. Students' academic results shifted from pass to distinction and high distinction assessments.

Conclusion

It is evident that the three-step approach taken by the author integrates the elements of innovative teaching resources, assessment tools and feedback systems to foster students' learning and overall satisfaction. A marked shift is evident through the increased engagement of students on the learning management system and the quality of answers provided in discussion forums. The grade point averages, distinction and high distinction scores secured by students within the unit offerings taught by the author showed a further transformation of students from passive surface learning to deep achievement-oriented learning. A focus on enhancing the work-ready skills of students was greatly appreciated by students and reflected in their teaching and unit evaluations through objective measurement. Similarly, the data support the conclusion that students developed their meta-cognitive skills (evident in the increase in the number of distinctions and high distinctions secured). The overall pass rate and the grade point averages also exhibited an increasing trend. Integration of innovative teaching resources with authentic assessment tasks directed towards meeting the ever-changing challenges of the industry coupled with continuous feedback motivated students to focus on integrating theory with practice, deeper learning and satisfaction with the study content. Higher education institutions need to focus on embracing work-ready assessment tools in their teaching and learning activities in order to better prepare students for the real world industry experiences.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Teacher efficacy of Turkish Physical Education teachers

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The main purpose of this study is to determine the validity and reliability of the Teacher Efficacy Scale in Physical Education (TESPE) in Turkey's conditions, and to test if there are any differences in gender and teaching experience of Turkish PE teachers. Turkish version of the scale was administered to 257 physical education teachers (184 males and 73 females) from three cities in Turkey. Exploratory factor analysis showed that the scale consists of four dimensions similar to the original Cronbach's alpha .89, while both Equal-Length Spearman Brown split-half coefficient (r=.74) and Guttman's split-half coefficient (r=.74) showed a good result. The independent *t*-test results revealed that there were no significant gender differences in TESPE subscales. Teaching experience is not statistically significant on PE teachers' efficacy. These results indicated that the TESPE is a valid and reliable scale for Turkish culture.

Key words*:* Teacher efficacy, physical education teachers, teaching experience.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years there has been a growing body of research on teacher efficacy as an important factor underlying teaching and learning. Teacher efficacy is concerned primarily with having a positive effect on students' learning (Ashton, 1985). Research suggests that teacher efficacy may underlie critical instructional decisions including the use of time, classroom management strategies and questioning techniques (Gibson and Dembo, 1984; Saklofske et al., 1988; Woolfolk et al., 1990; Tschannen-Moran, 2000; Hand, 2013).

Teacher efficacy has also been shown to be a strong predictor of commitment to teaching (Coladarci, 1992), adoption of innovations (Midgley et al., 1989) and higher levels of planning and organization (Allinder, 1994).

Highly self-confident teachers are more committed to their profession (Coladarci, 1992), display more persistence in the face of failure, and spend more time on teaching than do teachers with low self-confidence (Gibson and Dembo, 1984). Important antecedents of teacher efficacy have included teacher training and experience (Hoy and Woolfolk, 1993; Ramey-Gassert et al., 1996), the academic ability of one's students (Smylie, 1988), and school and community support (Fuller et al., 1982; Hoy and Woolfolk, 1993; Park, 1992; Ramey-Gassert et al., 1996).

Teacher efficacy is the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching

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task in a particular context (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Teachers with a higher sense of efficacy are less critical of students when they make mistakes (Ashton and Webb, 1986) and exhibit more enthusiasm about teaching (Allinder, 1994). Highly efficacious teacher are more likely to use student-centered learning strategies, while teachers with low efficacy tend to use teacher-centered strategies (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2001; Kaufman and Sawyer, 2004). Higher teacher efficacy is also associated with higher students' achievement (Moore and Esselman, 1992; Ross, 1992; Watson, 1991), higher sense of learning efficacy in students (Anderson et al., 1988), and more positive student attitude toward school and teachers (Woolfolk et al., 1990). Thus, the importance of teacher efficacy is well established.

One characteristic of investigations of teacher efficacy is that virtually all researchers conceptualize the construct in terms of fostering student academic achievement only. Teaching efficacy is a predictor of variables such as student motivation (Herman et al., 2000) teaching commitment (Darling-Hammond et al., 2002; Johnson and Birkeland, 2003). Researchers have reported that teachers with high efficacy are more likely to get involved in teaching, satisfaction with the profession, producing greater effort and motivation for teaching, taking on extra roles in school (Goddard et al., 2000; Wheatley, 2005).

Although teacher efficacy phenomenon is generally concerned with the students in classroom, the physical education lessons have been made outside of the classroom. Physical education is a subject matter domain in which students are expected to learn knowledge and skills in sports and physical activities (Allision et al., 2000). Given that physical education is education about movement, education through movement, and education in movement (Arnold, 1979), learning in physical education individuals is often accomplished by mastering a physical movement through physical training. Therefore, the present study is focused on the physical education teachers' efficacy.

In view of definition of the research area, the initial purpose of the research was to validate and evaluate the reliability and factorial validity of the Teacher Efficacy Scale in Physical Education (TESPE) for the Turkish population. The TESPE was designed to measure the nature of the PE teacher efficacy by Chase and Lirgg (1999).

Chase and Lirgg (1999) suggested a conceptual framework for their study on the PE teacher efficacy. Their concept of teacher efficacy comprises four dimensions: a) motivation (a teacher's confidence in his/her ability to motivate students); b) analysis of skills (the teacher's ability to analyze students' performance in skills); c) preparation (the teacher's ability to prepare and plan for instruction); d) communication (the teacher's ability to communicate information to his/her students). They hypothesized that teacher efficacy will affect a teacher's commitment to teach, persistence in teaching, use of time in providing instruction, and the quality and type of feedback provided to students. These outcomes are important variables in preparing physical education students.

It was hypothesized that the model of teacher efficacy in physical education developed by Chase and Lirgg (1999) would be a valid model that probably contains four sources: motivation, analysis of skills, preparation, and communication in Turkish samples.

Therefore, the objective of the study is to validate the Teacher Efficacy in Physical Education Scale (TESPE) in the Turkish context in the area of physical education and to discover the effects of gender and teaching experience. Thus, the study addressed the following questions:

Is there a significant difference between physical education teachers' gender and their teaching efficacy? Is there a significant difference between the experienced and inexperienced teachers' teaching efficacy?

METHOD

Translation

The English version of the TESPE items was translated into Turkish, followed by a back translation procedure widely described in the literature (Hambleton and Kanjee, 1995). Initially, translation from English to Turkish was done separately by three bilingual researchers. Thereafter, translation discrepancies between the three translated forms were discussed in order to develop an initial Turkish version of the scale. A second bilingual translator whose native language was English and, who had not seen the original English version of the TESPE translated this initial Turkish version of the scale from Turkish back to English. The back-translated versions were then compared to the original English version and any inconsistencies, errors, biases and incongruences were highlighted.

Prior to carrying out this research, a pilot study with 7 physical educators was designed to control possible semantic instrument concerns. As an additional check, the translated instruments were independently reviewed by the jurors to confirm whether each item served the purpose of the instrument (Brislin, 1980). It was emphasized to the physical education teachers on how to fill the questionnaire and not to leave any item unanswered on the questionnaire. The approximate time necessary to complete the instrument was 15 min. Incomplete or badly answered questionnaires were rejected.

Participants and settings

Participants consisted of 257 physical education teachers (184 males and 73 females) who were randomly selected from middle and high schools in the three cities (Kahramanmaras, Mersin and, Osmaniye) in Turkey. After the determination of schools, permission was requested and granted from the Ministry of Education to conduct the study in these schools. The questionnaires were applied to physical education teachers in the school settings by the researcher. These were 96 early career teachers (5 years' experience or less), 67 mid-career teachers (6–10 years'

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of Physical Education Teachers' Physical activity Self-Efficacy Scale.

Items	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Motivation (4 items)				
1.Adjust your teaching style, when necessary, to motivate your students	3.87	.83	-.49	-.18
5.Motivate your students to persist after failing in skill attempts	4.07	.99	-.94	.06
16. Motivate your students to attempt new skills	4.12	.93	-.8	-.16
12.Talk with students in ways that allows them to feel that you care about them as a student	4.11	.91	-.81	-.03
Analyze (4 items)				
2.Analyze what is wrong with a movement	3.96	.86	-.96	1.3
6.Watch students perform skills and analyze what improvements they should make	3.97	.82	-.54	-.12
9.Break down or extend certain skills to match the ability level of your students	3.69	.88	-.26	-.43
13.Appropriately describe ways in which your students can improve their performance	3.91	.83	-.55	.09
Preparation (4 items)				
3.Prepare lesson plans using behavioral objectives that promote learning	3.85	.91	-.63	-.01
7.Plan a developmentally appropriate curriculum for all grades that you teach	3.74	.94	-.35	-.51
10.Prepare lessons that match the ability levels of your students	3.93	.94	-.57	-.55
14.Organize quick transitions from one activity to another	3.92	.94	-.57	-.42
Communication (4 items)				
4.Provide students information feedback about their performance in a positive manner	3.94	.78	-.54	.34
8.Explain instructional cues and strategies to your students in ways that they will understand	3.93	.9	-.54	-.14
11.Correctly explain technique cues for skills to your students	3.99	.84	-.49	-.19
15.Organize activities in class so that your students frequently feel successful	3.93	.82	-.25	-.49

experience), and 94 late career teachers (11 years or more experience), with ages ranging from 23 to 58 years (M = 33.59; *SD* = 7.37).

Instrument

Teacher Efficacy Scale in Physical Education (TESPE). The TESPE was developed by Chase and Lirgg (1999) to measure the teacher efficacy in physical education and originally included four subscales and 16 items; motivation (α = .77), analyze (α = .79), preparation (α = .78) and communication (α = .79) subscale. When answering each of the questions, physical education teachers were first asked to indicate their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all true of me) through 5 (very true of me), adapted from the 7-point Likert type scale used in the originally TESPE.
Socio-demographic variables. In addition, a series of socio-demographic variables were included in the questionnaire: sex, age and, teaching experience.

Statistical analysis

The TESPE items' descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) are shown in Table 1. KMO (Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin) and Barlett tests were conducted. Principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation was used to

analyze instrument structure, followed by a reliability analysis. To examine the internal consistency and reliability of the TESPE, Cronbach's alpha and Spearman-Brown split-half coefficient analysis was accomplished. The Guttman's split-half technique for reliability of the instrument was also calculated.

Many statisticians (Cronbach, 1951; DeVellis, 1991; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994) conclude that the internal consistency is acceptable if a Cronbach alpha value is greater than .70. This guideline was employed in this study. Independent samples *t*-tests were used to compare differences in gender and, one-way ANOVAs with *post hoc* test used to compare difference in teaching experience (independent variable) and subscales of the TESPE (dependent variables). The statistical analysis was conducted by SPSS 15 for Windows.

RESULTS

Psychometric Properties of the Turkish version of the TESPE

Exploratory factor analysis. KMO of sampling adequacy test result was .86 and Barlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi 2 = 2182.67$, df = 120, p < 0.001). These results exposed that the sample size was adequate and has shown sphericity. A principal components analysis

Table 2. Factor Loadings for Physical Education Teachers' Physical activity self-efficacy scale.

	Factor loadings			
Items	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Item 5	.88			
Item 16	.84			
Item 12	.79			
Item 1	.77			
Item 2		.84		
Item 6		.82		
Item 13		.8		
Item 9		.66		
Item 3			.81	
Item 7			.79	
Item 10			.78	
Item 14			.69	
Item 4				.81
Item 8				.71
Item 11				.71
Item 15				.74
Eigenvalues	*6.25*	*1.96*	*1.67*	*1.39*
% of Variance	*39.12*	*12.27*	*10.44*	*8.68*

Note. Principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation performed.

Table 3. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients, Spearman-Brown Coefficient and Guttman Split Half Coefficient for TESPE.

Subscales	No of items	Cronbach Alpha	Spearman-Brown Coefficient	Guttman Split-Half Coefficient
Total	16	.89	.71	.71
Motivation	4	.89	.9	.9
Analyze	4	.84	.86	.86
Preparation	4	.83	.84	.84
Communication	4	.82	.83	.83

followed by rotation using the varimax criterion was conducted on the 16 TESPE items to replicate the four-factor structure reported by Chase et al. (2003). The 0.4 cut-off point was used for excluding items not permitting reasonable interpretation (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2000) in any factor. Together, the four factors explained 70.52% of the variance (Table 2).

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .89. The Guttman's split-half coefficient procedure resulted in a good reliability coefficient (r= .74). Likewise the Equal-Length Spearman Brown split-half coefficient showed a good correlation (r= .74). These good reliability coefficients infer that the test halves are highly correlated and the questionnaire has good internal consistency (Table 3). The results from principal components and reliability analyses strongly indicated that four factors for the TESPE model were appropriate.

Pearson correlation analyses. To test the extent to which the responses on the TESPE were entered into a Pearson's product moment correlation analysis along with the TESPE subscale scores. There was a significant positive correlation in the subscale of the TESPE (r = .34 to .47; $p < .05$) (Table 4).

Gender differences. Gender differences in the TESPE subscales tested by independent samples t-test. The test results indicated that there was no statistically significant

Table 4. Mean Scores, SD, and Pearson Correlations for TESPE.

Subscales	M	SD	Motivation	Analyses	Preparation
Motivation	4.04	.79	.37**	.34**	.47**
Analyze	3.88	.7	-	.42**	.45**
Preparation	3.86	.76		-	.45**
Communication	3.95	.68			-

Note. *p < .05, two-tailed. **p < .01, two-tailed.

difference between gender and *motivation* ($t(2, 255) = .42$, $p = .66$), *analysis* ($t(2, 255) = .466$, $p = .64$), *preparation* ($t(2, 255) = .686$, $p = .49$) and, *communication* factor ($t(2, 255) = 1.022$, $p = .3$).

Differences in teaching experiences. The second analysis was conducted to determine whether the physical educators' efficacy differed in accordance with their teaching experiences. One-way ANOVAs test results indicated that *preparation* ($F(2, 254) = 5.86$, $p = .003$) factor significantly differed from the teaching experiences while *motivation* ($F(2, 254) = .75$, $p = .47$), *analysis* ($F(2, 254) = 2.02$, $p = .13$) and, *communication* factors ($F(2, 254) = 1.31$, $p = .27$) were not significantly different depending on their teaching experiences. The *preparation* subscale for "late career teachers" was significantly higher than lower experienced teachers ($M = 4.07$ vs. 3.73, respectively).

DISCUSSION

The objective of the study is to validate the Teacher Efficacy in Physical Education Scale (TESPE) in the Turkish context and to discover the effects of gender and teaching experience. The second purpose of this study was to analyze gender and teaching experience differences in TESPE in Turkish physical education teachers.

It was hypothesized that the model of teacher efficacy in physical education developed by Chase and Lirgg (1999) would be a valid model that possibly contains four sources: motivation, analysis of skills, preparation, and communication in Turkish samples. The results suggested that the physical education teachers' efficacy scale is a valid and reliable instrument that could be used in the studies in Turkey. Based on the research conducted by Chase et al. (2003), the study supported Turkish version of the TESPE replication of four factor structure and reliability.

We compared gender differences and it was not found any significant difference in gender ($p > .05$). Further, comparisons of physical educators teaching experience, the teachers in late career had higher the *preparation* factor for their teaching efficacy than lower experienced

teachers ($p < .05$). Also, there was statistically significant correlation with one another in the subscale of the TESPE ($r = .34$ to.47; $p < .05$).

Results of the current study showed that gender does not affect physical educators' teaching efficacy. In a study relating with Teaching Efficacy among College Student Teachers, Syed et al. (2011) found no significant difference in teaching efficacy between male and female student- teachers. The results also suggest an agreement with previous studies by Cakiroglu (2005), Main and Hammond (2008) as well as Tejeda-Delgado (2009).

However, test results showed that the Teacher Efficacy Scale in Physical Education (TESPE) has good validity and reliability in Turkey's conditions. It can be used for measuring Turkish physical education teachers' teaching efficacy. Research on teaching efficacy specific to physical education is conspicuously lacking. Among the recent teaching efficacy research in physical education, Martin et al. (Martin et al., 2001; Martin and Kulinna, 2003) found that teachers with higher efficacy had stronger intentions, more favorable attitudes, and greater feelings of control. Teachers' sense of efficacy appears to affect basic beliefs about students and instruction and choices of instructional methods and also influences their students' beliefs about their capabilities and learning (Humphries et al., 2012).

It also demonstrates the importance of developing measures of teacher efficacy that closely matches with the nature and scope of teachers' perceptions about their professional responsibility, which may vary in different contexts (Ho and Hau, 2004). Thus, the availability of a teaching efficacy instrument specific to physical education area can be a significant contribution.

In summary, these findings suggest that teaching efficacy of physical educators differed with teaching experience, but there was no significant difference between genders.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study is limited in several areas. One limitation of the present study is that the sample comprised only limited samples of Turkish physical education teachers. Thus,

generalizing the findings beyond the sample should be done with caution. However, more research needs to examine teaching efficacy of physical educators. Follow-up research should be completed in order to determine whether this study's results could be generalized to a more diverse teachers' body.

Conclusion

Based on the current findings, it would be confident to say that the TESPE can produce reliable and valid scores when used to assess physical education teachers' teaching efficacy in Turkey. Teachers who were efficacious in their ability to teach active lessons with limited space were also confident that they could motivate students who did not enjoy PE. Future research should continue in examining other forms of psychometric properties of the TESPE with larger and more diverse samples. In addition, research on Physical education teachers' teaching efficacy can make great contributions to the literature.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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