

23 March, 2019 ISSN: 1990-3839 DOI: 10.5897/ERR www.academicjournals.org



# About ERR

Educational Research and Reviews (ISSN 1990-3839) is published bi-monthly (one volume per year) by Academic Journals.

Educational Research and Reviews (ERR) is an open access journal that publishes high-quality solicited and unsolicited articles, in English, in all areas of education including education policies and management such as Educational experiences and mental health, the effect of land tenure system on resource management, Visualization skills and their incorporation into school curriculum, Gender, education and child labour etc. All articles published in ERR are peer-reviewed.

# **Contact Us**

Editorial Office:	err@academicjournals.org
Help Desk:	helpdesk@academicjournals.org
Website:	http://www.academicjournals.org/journal/ERR
Submit manuscript online	http://ms.academicjournals.me/.

# Editors

**Dr. Peter W. Wong** Southern Cross University Australia.

# **Associate Editors**

# Dr. Melissa Vick

School Of Education James Cook University Townsville, Australia.

#### Dr. Maniam Kaliannan

Faculty of Adminstrative Science & Policy Studies Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Selangor, Malaysia.

# Dr. Tavis D. Jules

Cultural and Educational Policy Studies School of Education Loyola University Chicago Chicago, USA.

# Dr. Adams Onuka

Centre for Peace and conflict Studies (CEPACS) University of Ibadan Nigeria.

# Dr. Yambo John M. Onyango

University of Eastern Africa Kamagambo Adventist College Campus Baraton, Kenya.

# Dr. Tolga Gök

Torbali Vocational School of Higher Education Dokuz Eylul University Izmir, Turkey.

#### Assoc. Prof. Manjula Vithanapathirana

Faculty of Education University of Colombo Colombo, Sri Lanka.

# Prof. Ogunsakin R. Ebenezer

Department of Statistics Ekiti State University Ado Ekiti, Nigeria.

# Dr. A. Kadir Maskan

Dicle University Ziya Gokalp Education Faculty Department of Physics Education Diyarbakir, Turkey.

# Dr. Mohd Akhtar Siddiqui

Institute of Advanced Studies in Education Faculty of Education Jamia Millia Islamia Central University New Delhi, India.

# **Editorial Board**

#### Prof. García Mayo, María del Pilar

Departamento de Filología Inglesa y Alemana y de Traducción e Interpretación Universidad del País Vasco (UPV/EHU) Paseo de la Universidad 5 Vitoria, Spain.

# **Prof. Frank Witlox**

Ghent University Department of Geography Gent, Belgium.

# Prof. Georgios D. Sideridis

University of Crete Department of Psychology Rethimno, Greece.

# **Prof. Andreas Veglis**

Department of Journalism and Mass Media Aristotle University of Thessaloniki Thessaloniki, Greece.

# Prof. Mutendwahothe Walter Lumadi

Curriculum & Instructional Studies College of Education UNISA, South Africa.

# Dr. Miriam McMullan

Faculty of Health and Social Work University of Plymouth Plymouth, UK.

# Prof. Moshe Barak

Graduate Program for Science and Technology Education Ben-Gurion University of the Negve, Beer Sheva, Israel.

**Dr. Hiam Zein** *Psychology and Education Lebanese American University Chouran-Beirut, Lebanon.* 

# Dr. Joel O. Eriba

Faculty of Education Benue State University Makurdi, Nigeria.

# Prof. Bingjun Yang

School of Foreign Languages Southwest University Chongqing, China.

# Dr. Ernest W. Brewer

The University of Tennessee Educational Administration and Supervision Tennessee, USA.

# Prof. Gail Derrick

Regent University School of Education Virginia Beach, USA.

# Dr. Evridiki Zachopoulou

Department of Early Childhood Care and Education Thessaloniki, Greece.

# **Dr. Francesco Pastore**

Seconda Università di Napoli Italy,

# Dr. Syed Iftikhar Hussain Shah

Technical Education and Vocation TEVTA Secretariat Lahore, Pakistan.

# Dr. Ravi Kant

College of Teacher Education Maulana Azad National Urdu University Darbhanga, India.

# **Editorial Board**

# Dr. Dibakar Sarangi

Directorate of Teacher Education and State Council for Educational Research and Training (DTE & SCERT) Odisha, India.

# Dr. Elisa Backer

Faculty of Business Federation University Australia Australia.

# Dr. Ahmad Alkhawaldeh

Department of Curriculum and instruction University of Jordan Jordan.

# Dr. Mehmet Akif Sözer

Department of Primary Education Gazi Faculty of Education Gazi University Turkey.

# Table of Content

The use of social networks among university students Can Meşe and Gökçe Sancak Aydın

Equitable access to education and development in a knowledgeable society as advocated by UNESCO Chemulwo Monicah Jemeli and Ali Muhammed Fakandu

Turkish Background Families Live In Germany and Education: In Term of Families, Students, Teachers Menekşe Eskici

One-hand clapping: Gender equality and its challenges in pastoralist secondary education in Afar region: A quality concern Bekalu Tadesse Moges

The effect of daily sight reading studies of the guitar students on sight reading and guitar performance Ajda Aylin CAN

Vol. 14(6), pp. 190-199, 23 March, 2019 DOI: 10.5897/ERR2018.3654 Article Number: EFE448060395 ISSN: 1990-3839 Copyright ©2019 Author(s) retain the copyright of this article http://www.academicjournals.org/ERR



Full Length Research Paper

# The use of social networks among university students

# Can Meşe<sup>1\*</sup> and Gökçe Sancak Aydın<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Primary Education, Faculty of Education, Bozok University, Turkey. <sup>2</sup>Department of Primary Education, Faculty of Education, Yozgat Bozok University, Turkey.

Received 9 November, 2018; Accepted 3 January, 2019

The changes that are experienced in technology are influencing various fields as well as educational environments. From this point of view, it is seen that the tools used in educational environments as well as those used by students are diversified depending on the change in technology. Based on the characteristics of learners in the twenty-first century, it is observed that current technology takes part in students' daily lives. As one of these technologies which use the possibilities of Web 2.0, social networks have been widely used by young generations in various forms in recent years. In general, these environments can be said to be a matter of preference as it offers opportunities such as sharing content, having fun, communicating, creating community, and learning. It is important to understand students' social networking usage purposes and the reasons that may affect them. It is thought that this study will contribute to the educators in terms of learning environments by determining the usage purposes of social networking. In this research, it is aimed to understand the variables that determine the purpose of using social network in undergraduate students' using social network. The crosssectional survey design which is among the quantitative research methods has been employed. According to this pattern, data were collected according to the appropriate sampling method. In this process, 549 undergraduate students from various faculties of a public university were identified as study groups. In this study, it is aimed to examine the variables that determine the purpose of using social networking networks of undergraduate students who use social networks. For this purpose, data were collected by means of the personal information form created by the researchers and by the Social Awareness Networks Usage Objectives Scale developed. The results of the research show that there is a difference in favor of women in initiating communication in favor of men and that those who use social networks for a long time share more content and WhatsApp and Instagram are the most widely used social networks. Based on these findings, discussions and recommendations were presented.

Key words: Social networks, purpose of social network usage, university students.

# INTRODUCTION

The changes in technology affect educational, environments as well as various fields such as social,

economic, and social. Today, it is seen that the tools used in educational environments and the tools used by

\*Corresponding author. E-mail: canmese@gmail.com. Tel: +90 354 242 10 25 / 7801.

Author(s) agree that this article remain permanently open access under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution</u> <u>License 4.0 International License</u> students gain diversity depending on the change in technology. Based on the twenty-first century learner characteristics, it can be said that current technologies have an important place in students' daily life and depending on their life. In this respect, in the period of Web 1.0, users were reviewing static content in passive position; with Web 2.0, they moved from this passive structure to an active state. After this period, users have had an active role in creating content on web content, commenting, chatting, uploading, sharing, recommending, and linking (Musser, 2007). Therefore, it can be said that the content is started to be created by users in the web environment. This situation has enabled users to reflect their ego, like opinion, thought and feeling, to web environments. Various applications such as micro blogs, blogs, social networks have emerged for this. Social networks, which are among these applications, are an environment created to meet the interaction needs of people. This environment allows individuals to interact with other individuals without time and space limits (Greenhow et al., 2009). Social networks such as Facebook and Twitter are widely used by people (Alwagait et al., 2015). For example, a social network, such as Facebook, has approximately 2.27 billion active users worldwide as of September, 2018, according to reports of Facebook (Facebook, 2018). Therefore, the reason for bringing together so many people has attracted different scholars to explore this topic. Social networks can be defined as systems that allow individuals to create a public or semi-publicly accessible profile within a limited system, clearly showing the list of links that other users share, and which can display their own contact lists and what is done by others in the system (Boyd and Ellison, 2008). In a study done by Cheung et al. (2011), it was found that one of the reasons why participants opted for Facebook in social networks is social folly. Also, it has been seen to be used for instant communication and connection with other people. According to the study conducted by Pempek et al. (2009) with 92 undergraduate students, social interaction is reported as one of leading reasons. Therefore, individuals tend to use current technologies such as social networks for various reasons (Mason, 2006).

Social sharing environments offer users the opportunity to communicate with instant messaging, sharing content based on visual and audio contents (Tonta, 2009). In addition, online social networks have a positive impact on students' learning outcomes, social acceptance and adaptation to university culture (Yu et al., 2010). Furthermore, considering the educational environments, student-student, student-teacher and student-content interaction can be provided through social networks. In other words, it can be used to provide the types of interaction specified by Moore (1989).

In spite of such superior characteristics of social networks, in some respects, it affects the lives of

individuals in various ways depending on the use of social networks. For instance, the use of social networks such as Facebook, appears to have an impact on the psychological well-being (autonomy, purpose in life etc.) of individuals (Kross et al., 2013; Valkenburg et al., 2006; Verduyn et al., 2015). When the negative effects of social networks on learning environment in learning-teaching processes are examined; social networks can be effective in terms of the distraction of the learner (Hettiarachchi, 2014) or the display of cyberloafing behaviors (Hassan et al., 2015). In particular, academic success decreases due to the fact that learners using online learning environments cannot devote enough time to learning in such situations. Therefore, learners may postpone the academic work in online and spend more time in social networks for various purposes such as entertainment and communication (Hettiarachchi, 2014).

Social networks, which have the characteristics that enable individuals active in both social and personal areas, are used extensively by the generation Y. The reason for the use of social networks among university students is a matter of curiosity. Researches indicate that social networking networks are being used by various age groups, but one of the most used groups is university students (Miller and Melton, 2015). For this reason, it is considered as important to explore the purpose of using social networking and the reasons that may affect these goals. In the extant literature, the use of social networking networks of individuals has diversified as research, collaboration, communication initiation, communication, maintaining communication, content sharing, and entertainment (Lenhart et al., 2007).

According to a report published by a digital marketing agency "Digital in 2017 Global Overview", more than half of the world use at least one smartphone, and Turkey is reported to have 48 million social network users (We Are Social Hootsuite, 2017). With respect to this report, the most widely used social networks in Turkey are YouTube, Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter. According to Miller and Melton (2015), university students use social networks, Facebook and Twitter environments more than once every day. Such widespread use of social networks has brought to mind the importance of the use of these environments in educational platforms. Social sharing networks may provide contributions to the education environment such as improving communication, providing an opportunity to meet such environments, and eliminating communication problems related to the contributions of activities carried out on the social networking site (Özmen and Atici, 2014). However, it is seen that such social networks are perceived and used more for social purposes rather than educational purposes (Roblyer et al., 2010). Therefore, it is important to determine which social networks and social network usage purposes are used by students to make educational content interesting. Although the studies in

the various context on the use of social networks have been conducted (Diker and Uçar, 2016; Gülcan et al., 2015; Hamid et al., 2013; Lin and Lu, 2011; Ünalan et al., 2017), there is a need to examine the different context in terms of different region, current time, sample diversity, and data collection tools for a particular case.

According to the study conducted by Alkan and Bardakci (2017) with secondary school students, the students' use of online social networks for learning purposes are gathered under the categories of social interaction, following the shares, interacting with materials, collaboration, doing homework, and getting support. Depending on this situation, it is necessary to increase the researches for the purpose of using the social networks of the participants by taking into consideration various age, areas of learning, time, and area of living. Therefore, within the scope of the research, the aim of current study is to examine the use of social networks of the participants in terms of gender, social networking experience and social network environment.

The research findings are expected to contribute to the application of online education environments to the undergraduate students by using social networks. Thus, educational measures can be taken, or arrangements can be made considering the purpose of using social networks in online education environments. In addition, it is thought that it will contribute to the educators by determining the intended use of social networks in learning environments. Besides this, the study may guide instructional designers by providing information on the social network preferences and usage purposes of users. Social network promotes attractive functions to students of self-presentation in terms and enhancing communication. For this reason, some educators have highlighted the positive capacity of social networking considering the easy networking options with students. For instance, social networking sites can be used with the intent of taking feedback of peers or providing collaborative learning setting in social networking platforms (Selwyn, 2009).

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

In this study, cross-sectional scanning model which is one of the quantitative research methods is used. This model is considered as a method that allows the collection of data in a given period to explain a situation from the sample group (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

#### Working group

The undergraduate students of various faculties of a state university were identified as study group. Considering the time and cost, appropriate sampling method was used in this study. 549 undergraduate students participated in the study. 35.3% of the participants (n = 194) were pre-school education, 22% (n = 121), of theology, 17.3% (n = 95), of classroom education, 16% (n = 88), of

science education and% 9.3 (n = 51), studying mathematics education. 79.4% of the participants were females (n = 436) and 20.4% were males (n = 113).

#### Measurement tools

In this study, the aims of using social networks of university students were examined. For this purpose, the personal information form developed by the researchers and the Social Sharing Networks Usage Questionnaire, a 26-item scale, developed by Usluel et al. (2014) were used. The personal information form consists of 12 items with 3 open ended and 9 closed ends. It includes demographic information such as age, gender, and social network usage such as how many accounts they have, which social media platform they prefer to use.

The Social Sharing Network Usage Objectives Scale was developed to measure the purposes of using social networking networks as the name suggests. The items in the scale are 7-point Likert type and the answers can be varied between "Strongly Agree" (7) and "Strongly disagree" (1). The maximum score obtained from this scale is 182, while the minimum score is 26. The scale has seven subdimensions such as research, collaboration, initiate communication, communicating, maintaining communication, content sharing, and entertainment. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was reported as 0.92 (Usluel et al., 2014). The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of the sub-dimensions of the scale is between 0.67 and 0.87 (Usluel et al., 2014).

#### Data collection process and data analyses

In order to avoid missing data, the data were collected by an electronic form created by Google Forms. The link of form was shared with students who were studying in various departments and volunteers to participate in the study were asked to fill in this form. The distribution of the obtained data and extreme values were examined. For this reason, 6 data, which are an extreme value, have been removed from the data set. Histogram, Q Q Plot, Boxplot and Normal Probability Plot graphs and skewness (in the range of -1, +2), kurtosis (in the -1, +1 range) and z score (in the -3, +3 range) values were examined. In accordance with these assumptions, descriptive analysis, t-test, One-Way Variance Analysis (ANOVA) were used in the analysis of the data.

In order to determine the effect size of the findings that are significant from the comparison tests, Cohen d coefficient for t test and eta square ( $\eta$ 2) for ANOVA were used. Cohen d coefficient was reported as 0.2 to 0.5 small, 0.5 to 0.8 medium and 0.8 and above large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The coefficient  $\eta$ 2 has been interpreted as 0.01 to 0.06 small, 0.06 - 0.14 medium and 0.14 or more large effect size (Cohen, 1988; Richardson, 2011).

# FINDINGS

In this section, the data obtained with the data collection tool were analyzed and the findings were included. The descriptive findings of the data obtained in the study are presented in Table 1. When Table 1 is examined, it is seen that the lowest (1) and the highest (7) for each subfactor of the measuring instrument are taken. When the average scores of the sub-scales of The Usage Purposes Scale of Social Networks are examined, it is observed

Variable	n	Min	Max	$\overline{X}$	SS	Skewness	Kurtosis
F1- Research	549	1.00	7.00	4.93	1.41	-0.34	-0.58
F2- collaboration	549	1.00	7.00	4.47	1.38	-0.05	-0.76
F3- initiate communication	549	1.00	7.00	2.92	1.50	0.68	-0.26
F4- communicating	549	1.00	7.00	5.52	1.57	-1.05	0.38
F5- maintaining communication	549	1.00	7.00	4.71	1.49	-0.32	-0.55
F6- Sharing content	549	1.00	7.00	3.81	1.50	0.28	-0.70
F7- Entertainment	549	1.00	7.00	4.32	1.59	-0.10	-0.73

 Table 1. Descriptive findings on the sub-factors of the purpose of use of social networks.

Table 2. The independent sample t-test findings of the sub-factors of the purpose of use of social networks by gender.

Variable	Gender	n	$\overline{X}$	SS	t	sd	р	Cohen's d
F1 Desserb	Female	436	4.95	1.39	0.81	547	0.416	-
FI-Research	Male	113	4.83	1.52				
F2- Collaboration	Female	436	4.48	1.35	0.12	547	0.906	-
	Male	113	4.46	1.48				
	Female	436	2 82	1 49	-2 97	547	0.003	0.25
F3- Initiate communication	Male	113	3 20	1.10	2.07	011	0.000	0.20
	INIAIC	115	5.29	1.55				
F4 Communication	Female	436	5.59	1.54	2.04	547	0.041	0.46
F4- Communicating	Male	113	5.26	1.65				
	<b>_</b> .	10.0	4 = 0					
F5- Maintaining communication	Female	436	4.76	1.50	1.65	547	0.100	-
3	Male	113	4.50	1.42				
	Female	436	3 82	1 50	0 22	547	0 825	-
F6- Sharing content	Male	113	3 78	1 51	0.22	011	0.020	
	Mare	115	5.70	1.51				
E7 Entertainment	Female	436	4.32	1.62	-0.07	547	0.946	-
	Male	113	4.33	1.47				

that the participants use social networks to communicate with the most intense and at least to initiate communication. Within the framework of the general purpose of the study, the purpose of using social networks was examined in terms of gender. In Table 2, the t test findings of the sub-factors of the Purpose of Use of Social Networks Scale for independent groups in terms of gender are included.

When Table 1 is examined, it is seen that the lowest 1 and the highest 7 for each sub-factor of the measuring instrument are taken. When the average scores of the sub-scales of The Usage Purposes Scale of Social Networks are examined, it is observed that the participants use social networks to communicate with the most intense and at least to initiate communication. Within the framework of the general purpose of the study, the purpose of using social networks was examined in terms of gender. In Table 2, the t test findings of the subfactors of the Purpose of Use of Social Networks Scale for independent groups in terms of gender are included. When Table 2 is examined, there is no significant difference between men and women in research (F1), collaboration (F2), maintaining communication (F5), content sharing (F6), and entertainment (F7). However, there is a significant gender difference in terms of initiating communication (F3) and communicating (F4) (*p* 

Table 3. Social networking environment most commonly used by participants.

Variable	f	%
Facebook	13	2.4
Twitter	22	4.0
Instagram	233	42.4
WhatsApp	247	45.0
YouTube	27	4.9
Diğer	7	1.3
Toplam	549	100.0

Table 4. Descriptive findings of the social network environment most commonly used by the participants.

Variable	F1- Research			Coop	F2- peration	F cor	-3- initia nmunica	ite ation	com	F4- munic	ating	
	п	$\overline{X}$	sd	n	$\overline{X}$	sd	n	$\overline{X}$	sd	n	$\overline{X}$	sd
Facebook	13	4.49	1.70	13	4.41	1.65	13	2.92	1.38	13	3.81	1.96
Twitter	22	5.33	1.31	22	4.72	1.44	22	3.17	1.44	22	5.48	1.29
Instagram	233	4.89	1.30	233	4.48	1.35	233	3.04	1.47	233	5.57	1.59
WhatsApp	247	4.97	1.49	247	4.50	1.38	247	2.79	1.48	247	5.70	1.45
YouTube	27	4.81	1.51	27	3.99	1.42	27	2.70	1.82	27	4.44	1.65
Diğer	7	4.71	1.84	7	4.48	1.20	7	3.48	2.57	7	5.21	1.35
Toplam	549	4.93	1.41	549	4.47	1.38	549	2.92	1.50	549	5.52	1.57
Verieble	F5- maintai	ining communic	ation	F6-	Sharing	g content	F7-E	Intertair	nment			
variable	п	$\overline{X}$	sd	n	$\overline{X}$	sd	n	$\overline{X}$	sd			
Facebook	13	4.35	1.68	13	3.35	1.10	13	3.00	1.58			
Twitter	22	5.07	1.38	22	3.92	1.41	22	5.14	1.59			
Instagram	233	4.82	1.44	233	4.06	1.42	233	4.69	1.47			
WhatsApp	247	4.67	1.49	247	3.60	1.55	247	4.05	1.56			
YouTube	27	3.94	1.55	27	3.64	1.68	27	3.89	1.76			
Diğer	7	4.96	1.92	7	4.20	2.09	7	3.33	1.85			
Toplam	549	4.71	1.49	549	3.81	1.50	549	4.32	1.59			

<.05). It is seen that males use social networks more for initiating communication whereas women do not use social networks for this reason significantly. In both cases, this difference seems to have a low effect level according to Cohen's d effect size. In addition, Table 3 presents the most commonly used social networking platforms. When Table 2 is examined, there is no significant difference between men and women in research (F1), collaboration (F2), maintaining communication (F5), content sharing (F6), and entertainment (F7). However, there is a significant gender difference in terms of initiating communication (F3) and communicating (F4) (p <.05). It is seen that males use social networks more for initiating communication whereas women do not use social networks for this reason significantly. In both cases, this difference seems to have a low effect level according to Cohen's d effect size. In addition, Table 3 presents the most commonly used social networking platforms.

When Table 3 is examined, it is seen that the participants have widely used WhatsApp and Instagram. One-Way ANOVA (One-Way ANOVA) was used to determine whether these used accounts affect the social networks usage purposes. The descriptive findings of this analysis are presented in Table 4. When the descriptive findings of the sub-factors of social networking purposes are examined in Table 4, it can be seen that the subfactors differ according to the different account types. This difference was examined by One Way Analysis of Variance (One-Way ANOVA) and the findings are presented in Table 5.

When Table 5 is examined, it was found that there was

Variable	Sources of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	р	η2	The direction of difference
	Between Groups	7,757	5	1.551	0.775	0.568		
F1- Research	Within Groups	1087,203	543	2.002				
	Total	1094,960	548					
	Between Groups	7,979	5	1.596	0.838	0.523		
F2- Collaboration	Within Groups	1033,980	543	1.904				
	Total	1041,959	548					
	Between Groups	12,242	5	2.448	1.082	0.369		
F3- Initiate	Within Groups	1228,840	543	2.263				
communication	Total	1241,082	548					
	Between Groups	78,725	5	15.745	6.734	<.001	.058	Instagram > Facebook
F4- Communicating	Within Groups	1269,693	543	2.338				WhatsApp > Facebook
	Total	1348,418	548					Instagram > YouTube
	Between Groups	24,215	5	4.843	2.220	0.051		
F5- Maintaining	Within Groups	1184,613	543	2.182				
communication	Total	1208,828	548					
	Between Groups	29,485	5	5.897	2.648	0.022	.024	
F6- Sharing content	Within Groups	1209,276	543	2.227				Instagram > WhatsApp
-	Total	1238,761	548					
	Between Groups	99,896	5	19.979	8.426	<.001	.072	Instagram > Facebook
F7- Entertainment	Within Groups	1287,502	543	2.371				Twitter > Facebook
	Total	1387,399	548					Instagram > WhatsApp

Table 5. One-Way ANOVA Findings of the Sub-Factors of Social Network Use Purpose Scale According to the Social Network Environment Used.

no significant difference between research (F1), collaboration (F2), initiate communication (F3) and maintaining communication (F5) in terms of social network platforms. However, there is a significant difference in terms of communication (F4), content sharing (F6), and entertainment (F7). According to the Post-Hoc test, the Scheffe test showed that participants preferred Instagram and WhatsApp environments significantly more than Facebook. Besides, it is seen that Instagram environment is used more for communication purposes than YouTube environment. According to the Post-Hoc test, the Scheffe test shows that in terms of content sharing, the Instagram environment is more preferred than WhatsApp. The level of difference in terms of this situation is examined by eta square and it can be said that there is a low effect size. When the social networks used for entertainment purposes are examined, it is seen that Instagram and Twitter are used more for

entertainment than Facebook. Besides, it is seen that the Instagram environment is used more for entertainment than WhatsApp. The significant difference between the two groups was examined with eta square value and a moderate effect size was found. In addition to these findings, the purpose of the study was examined in terms of the experience (usage period) of using social networks. Table 6 presents descriptive findings of the use of social networks in terms of the experiences of the participants in the social network environment. When Table 6 is examined, the differences between the participants' experience of using social networks in terms of usage purposes were examined with One-Way ANOVA. The findings of this test are presented in Table 7. When Table 7 is examined, among the use of social networks, only the content-sharing (F6) sub-factor showed significant differences in terms of experience in social networks. According to the Tukey test, it is seen

Variable	F1-	Resear	ch		F2- Collaboration				F3- Initiate Communication			F4- Communicating		
	n	$\overline{X}$	sd	n	$\overline{X}$	sd	n	$\overline{X}$	sd	n	$\overline{X}$	sd		
Since 6 months	46	5.04	1.37	46	4.39	1.44	46	2.62	1.51	46	5.35	1.71		
Since 1 year	42	4.93	1.55	42	4.38	1.30	42	2.51	1.34	42	5.52	1.69		
Since 2 years	129	4.87	1.41	129	4.47	1.29	129	2.89	1.39	129	5.53	1.34		
Since 3 years	101	4.73	1.45	101	4.36	1.36	101	2.88	1.55	101	5.30	1.64		
5 years and more	231	5.03	1.38	231	4.56	1.44	231	3.09	1.56	231	5.66	1.60		
Total	549	4.93	1.41	549	4.47	1.38	549	2.92	1.50	549	5.52	1.57		
	F5-	Maintair	ning		E6 Sharing of	ntont		F7-						
Variable	Com	munica	tion		Fo- Sharing co	Smem	Ent	ertainr	nent					
	n	$\overline{X}$	sd	n	$\overline{X}$	sd	n	$\overline{X}$	sd					
Since 6 months	46	4.68	1.49	46	3.30	1.38	46	4.32	1.71					
Since 1 year	42	4.57	1.51	42	3.45	1.43	42	4.26	1.62					
Since 2 years	129	4.79	1.37	129	3.64	1.50	129	4.34	1.55					
Since 3 years	101	4.59	1.64	101	3.88	1.55	101	3.98	1.52					
5 years and more	231	4.75	1.48	231	4.05	1.48	231	4.47	1.61					
Total	549	4.71	1.49	549	3.81	1.50	549	4.32	1.59					

Table 6. Descriptive findings of the use of social networks in terms of the experiences of the participants in social networking environments.

Table 7. One-way ANOVA analysis of the sub-factors of social network usage purpose scale by social network environment.

Variable	Sources of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	р	η2	The direction of difference
	Between Groups	7.583	4	1.90	0.95	0.436		
F1- Research	Within Groups	1087.376	544	2.00				
	Total	1094.960	548					
	Between Groups	3.602	4	0.90	0.47	0.756		
F2- Collaboration	Within Groups	1038.357	544	1.91				
	Total	1041.959	548					
	Between Groups	18.409	4	4.60	2.05	0.086		
F3- Initiate	Within Groups	1222.674	544	2.25				
Communication	Total	1241.082	548					
<b>F</b> 4	Between Groups	10.780	4	2.70	1.10	0.358		
F4- Communicating	Within Groups	1337.638	544	2.46				
Communicating	Total	1348.418	548					
EE Maintaining	Between Groups	3.447	4	0.86	0.39	0.817		
Communication	Within Groups	1205.380	544	2.22				
Communication	Total	1208.828	548					
F6- Sharing	Between Groups	34.511	4	8.63	3.90	0.004	0.028	5 years and more> Since 6 months
content	Within Groups	1204.249	544	2.21				
	Total	1238.761	548					
	Between Groups	17.173	4	4.29	1.70	0.148		
F7- Entertainment	Within Groups	1370.226	544	2.52				
	Total	1387.399	548					

that those who have 5 years and more experience among the participants have significantly used social networks to share more content than those who have been using it for 6 months. In order to determine the effect size related to this situation, the eta square value was examined and observed that a low-level effect size.

# DISCUSSION

The aim of this study is to examine the purposes of using social networks in terms of various variables. In this section, the findings of the study were discussed in light of the literature. It has been found that men prefer more than women to social networks in order to initiate communication. On the other hand, it was observed that women prefer social networking networks more than men for communication. Consistent with the findings about gender difference in social networking usage purposes, Mazman and Usluel (2011) point out that women use social networks to maintain their existing friendship, while men use it to build new relationships. Gender variable should not be ignored in studies to be done for social networks. It can also be suggested that gender can be a control variable in further research on social sharing networks.

It can be said that participants who use social networks for a longer period tend to use it for sharing content. Consistent with this finding, Tsai et al. (2017) found that users with a high level of experience are more likely to share more photos and comment as well as having more friends on Facebook. Similarly, in the study conducted by Moore and McElroy (2012), the Facebook experience was associated with spending time, using frequency, sharing contents and photos with true friends. Therefore, it can be said that participants with more experience in social networks are mostly used to share content. In future studies it may be suggested that using experience should be considered as a control variable.

In this study, participants reported they use mostly WhatsApp and Instagram (88% of respondents). This finding is consistent with the findings of Yesil and Fidan (2017). According to Yesil and Fidan (2017), individuals in the generation Y prefer more WhatsApp environment than individuals in generation X. However, according to the study of Sendurur et al. (2015), the most widely used social networking sites are Facebook and Google+. Therefore, it can be thought that the social network environment used among undergraduate students may differ in different environments at different times, because Facebook is a widely used social network (Lenhart et al., 2010). The studies on social networks generally focused on Facebook (Bicen and Cavus, 2011; Ellison et al., 2007; Mazman and Usluel, 2011; Sternberg et al., 2018). However, in this study, it was seen that the participants mostly used Instagram and WhatsApp environments.

From this point of view, it is thought that it will be beneficial to conduct future studies on Instagram and WhatsApp environments preferred by the participants. It can be said that these environments are a matter of preference among participants due to reasons such as providing instant communication and interaction, creating a more intimate environment. Based on this finding, social networks can be used to provide the learnerlearning and teaching-learning communication and interaction (Moore, 1989). Similarly, in a study by Alkan and Bardakci (2017), it was stated that students contributed to social learning through social interaction with other students and teachers in social networks. Therefore, Instagram and WhatsApp environments can be preferred for this interaction in educational environments.

In a study conducted by Hu et al. (2014), it was seen that individuals share their visions about their friends, food and drinks, small technology tools, written visuals, pets, activities, their selfies and fashion in Instagram environment. In other words, it is possible to say that the content shared in Instagram environment has more visual density, so users prefer visual elements when sharing content. The potential of Instagram should not be ignored while developing systems such as Edooware, Spectrum (Balakrishnan et al., 2015), Moodle and Sakai. Based on the findings obtained in this study, it can be suggested to use Instagram or similar visual content intensive platforms within the framework of Social Media Acceptance Model in studies to be made for content sharing. The findings of the current study can help to provide some functional arrangements in educational settings. For instance, the peer interaction can be provided on Instagram in educational settings. Also, the findings of this study showed that for both gender, communication is a usage purpose/ for social networking. Considering this, in in-class and extracurricular activities, for social interaction and peer feedback, social networking can be utilized.

# LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This research has many strengths and some limitations. Within the framework of these limitations, some suggestions are presented for future research. Since the data obtained in this study are conducted with undergraduate students studying in different departments of a public university in Central Anatolia, it may be suggested to reach larger sample sizes in the future as well as samples from different regions and provinces.

The research was carried out according to the crosssectional survey model among the quantitative research designs. However, it would be useful to provide a comprehensive framework on the subject by conducting research on different quantitative data collection tools and qualitative data collection methods. In this study, it is investigated why different social networking not environments are used. In the study, psychological factors such as personality types of the participants were not investigated because it is out of the scope of the study. In future studies, it is thought that the relationship between social networks and psychological variables such as personality types, self-confidence, loneliness and shyness should be discussed comprehensively. Considering the findings of the current study, it can be suggested that for collaborative learning, social networking sites especially Instagram and WhattsApp can be a good option to support communication.

# **CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

**Footnote:** This study has been presented as an oral presentation in 6<sup>th</sup> International Instructional Technologies and Teacher Education Symposium, Edirne, Turkey.

#### REFERENCES

- Alkan MF, Bardakci S (2017). High School Students' Learning Activities Through Social Networks: A Qualitative Inquiry, Kastamonu Education Journal 25(3):1221-1238.
- Alwagait E, Shahzad B, Alim S (2015). Impact of social media usage on students academic performance in Saudi Arabia. Computers in Human Behavior 51:1092-1097. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2014.09.028
- Balakrishnan V, Liew TK, Pourgholaminejad S (2015). Fun learning with Edooware - A social media enabled tool. Computers and Education 80:39-47. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2014.08.008.
- Bicen H, Cavus N (2011). Social network sites usage habits of undergraduate students: Case study of Facebook. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences 28:943-947.
- Boyd DM, Ellison NB (2008). Social network sites: Definition, history, and scholarship. Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication 13(1):210-230. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2007.00393.x
- Cheung CMK, Chiu P-Y, Lee MKO (2011). Online social networks: Why do students use Facebook? Computers in Human Behavior 27(4):1337-1343. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2010.07.028
- Cohen J (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York: Academic Press.
- Diker Z, Uçar M (2016). A study on the reasons of social network use by the university students: the case of the Safranbolu Vocational School. Journal of Research in Education and Teaching 1(5):376-386.
- Ellison NB, Steinfield C, Lampe C (2007). The benefits of Facebook "friends:" Social capital and college students' use of online social network sites. Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication 12(4):1143-1168.
- Facebook (2018). Stats. Retrieved from https://newsroom.fb.com/company-info/ on 12 December 2018.
- Farkas MG (2007). Social software in libraries: building collaboration, communication, and community online. Information Today, Inc: Medford, New Jersey.
- Fraenkel JR, Wallen NE, Hyun HH (2012). How to design and evaluate research in education. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Gülcan Z, Vurgun S, Gurdin B, Akpinar GM (2015). Vocational high school students and social networks: comparison of Nazilli, Atça and Kuyucak vocational high schools. Electronic Journal of Vocational Colleges. 4. UMYOS Special Issue pp. 164-172.

- Greenhow C, Robelia B, Hughes JE (2009). Learning, Teaching, and Scholarship in a Digital Age: Web 2.0 and Classroom Research: What Path Should We Take Now? Educational Researcher 38(4):246-259. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X09336671.
- Hamid NA, Ishak MS, Ismail SA, Yazam SSNM (2013). Social media usage among university students in Malaysia. In Social Media and the New Academic Environment: Pedagogical Challenges pp. 244-255. IGI Global.
- Hassan HM, Reza DM, Farkhad MA-A (2015). An Experimental Study of Influential Elements on Cyberloafing from General Deterrence Theory Perspective Case Study: Tehran Subway Organization. International Business Research 8(3):1-98. https://doi.org/10.5539/ibr.v8n3p91
- Hettiarachchi HAH (2014). Impact of Social Networking on Academic Engagement and Performance : A Literature Review, (July).
- Hu Y, Manikonda L, Kambhampati S (2014). What we Instagram : a first analysis of Instagram photo content and user types. Proceedings of the Eight International AAAI Conference on Weblogs and Social Media pp. 595-598.
- Kross E, Verduyn P, Demiralp E, Park J, Lee DS, Lin N, Ybarra O (2013). Facebook Use Predicts Declines in Subjective Well-Being in Young Adults. PLoS ONE 8(8):1-6. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0069841
- Lenhart A, Madden M, Macgill AR, Manager P (2007). Teens and Social Media. Most 19:1-44. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10995-010-0701-9
- Lenhart A, Purcell K, Smith A, Zickuhr K (2010). Social Media & Mobile Internet Use among Teens and Young Adults. Millennials. Pew internet & American life project.
- Lin KY, Lu HP (2011). Why people use social networking sites: An empirical study integrating network externalities and motivation theory. Computers in human behavior, 27(3):1152-1161.
- Mason R (2006). Learning technologies for adult continuing education. Studies in Continuing Education, 28(2):121-133. https://doi.org/10.1080/01580370600751039
- Mazman SG, Usluel YK (2011). Gender differences in using social networks. Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology-TOJET 10(2):133-139.
- Miller R, Melton J (2015). College students and risk-taking behaviour on Twitter versus Facebook. Behaviour and Information Technology 34(7):678-684.
- Moore K, McElroy JC (2012). The influence of personality on Facebook usage, wall postings, and regret. Computers in Human Behavior 28(1):267-274. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2011.09.009
- Moore MG (1989). Editorial: Three Types of Interaction. American Journal of Distance Education 3(2):1-7. https://doi.org/10.1080/08923648909526659.
- Musser J, O'Reilly T, The O'Reilly Radar Team (2006). Web 2.0 principles and best practices. Sebastopol, CA: O'Reilly. http://radar.oreilly.com/2006/11/web-20-principles-and-best-pra.html
- Özmen B, Atici B (2014). Learners' views regarding the use of social networking sites in distance learning. International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning 15(4):21-42.
- Pempek TA, Yermolayeva YA, Calvert SL (2009). College students' social networking experiences on Facebook. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology 30(3):227-238. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appdev.2008.12.010
- Richardson JTE (2011). Eta squared and partial eta squared as measures of effect size in educational research. Educational Research Review 6(2):135-147. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2010.12.001
- Roblyer MD, McDaniel M, Webb M, Herman J, Vince WJ, (2010). Findings on Facebook in higher education: A comparison of college faculty and student uses and perceptions of social networking sites. Internet and Higher Education 13(3):134-140.
- Selwyn N (2009). Faceworking: exploring students' education-related use of Facebook. Learning, Media and Technology 34(2):157-174
- Sendurur P, Sendurur E, Yilmaz R (2015). Examination of the social network sites usage patterns of pre-service teachers. Computers in Human Behavior 51(PA):188-194. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2015.04.052

- Sternberg N, Luria R, Sheppes G (2018). For whom is social-network usage associated with anxiety? The moderating role of neural working-memory filtering of Facebook information. Cognitive, Affective and Behavioral Neuroscience pp. 1-14.
- Tonta Y (2009). Dijital Yerliler, Sosyal Ağlar ve Kütüphanelerin Geleceği \* Digital Natives, Social Networks and the Future of Libraries. Türk Kütüphaneciliği 23(4):742-768.
- Tsai TH, Chang HT, Chang YC, Chang YS (2017). Personality disclosure on social network sites: An empirical examination of differences in Facebook usage behavior, profile contents and privacy settings. Computers in Human Behavior 76(2017):469-482. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2017.08.003.
- Usluel YK, Demir Ö, Cinar M (2014). Sosyal Ağların Kullanım Amaçları Ölçeği. Eğitim Teknolojileri Araştırma Dergisi 5(2):1-18.
- Ünalan D, Baştürk M, İkinci SS, Aydın A (2017). Meslek Yüksekokulu Öğrencilerinin Sosyal Ağ Sitesi Kullanım Alışkanlıklarının Kişilik Özellikleri İle İlişkisi. Ankara Sağlık Hizmetleri Dergisi 16(2):21-32.
- Valkenburg PM, Peter J, Schouten AP (2006). Friend Networking Sites Nd Their Relationship To Adolesnts Well Being Nd Social Self Esteem. CyberPsychology and Behavior 9(5):584-590.

- Verduyn P, Lee DS, Park J, Shablack H, Orvell A, Bayer J, Kross E (2015). Passive facebook usage undermines affective well-being: Experimental and longitudinal evidence. Journal of Experimental Psychology: General 144(2):480-488. https://doi.org/10.1037/xge0000057.
- Yeşil Y, Fidan F (2017). Türkiye'de Y Kuşağının E-İletişim Kullanımı: Üniversite Öğrencileri Üzerinde Bir Araştırma. Balkan ve Yakın Doğu Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi 3(01):100-109.
- Yu AY, Tian SW, Vogel D, Chi-Wai KR (2010). Can learning be virtually boosted? An investigation of online social networking impacts. Computers and Education 55(4):1494-1503. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2010.06.015.

Vol. 14(6), pp. 200-205, 23 March, 2019 DOI: 10.5897/ERR2018.3647 Article Number: 47DE4FD60397 ISSN: 1990-3839 Copyright ©2019 Author(s) retain the copyright of this article http://www.academicjournals.org/ERR



Full Length Research Paper

# Equitable access to education and development in a knowledgeable society as advocated by UNESCO

Chemulwo Monicah Jemeli<sup>1</sup>\* and Ali Muhammed Fakandu<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Information Science, Faculty of Education, Paul's University, Kenya. <sup>2</sup>Abdullahi Fodiyo Library, Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto, Nigeria.

Received 29 October, 2018; Accepted 28 January, 2019

Any vision of knowledge societies must affirm the core aspirations for peaceful and sustainable knowledge societies in a way that acknowledges the interests of all stakeholders. It is essential to recall that knowledge societies are concerned with human development, not only with technological innovation and its impacts. This report focuses the role equitable access to education play in achieving equitable knowledge society. UNESCO's vision of equitable knowledge societies builds on equitable access to education is a major driver of economic competitiveness in an increasingly knowledge-driven global economy has made high-quality equitable access to education more important than ever before. The imperative for countries is to raise higher-level employment skills, to sustain a globally competitive research base and to improve knowledge dissemination to the benefit of society.

Key words: Education, equitable access, knowledge society.

# INTRODUCTION

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2014), as a specialized agency of United Nation (UN), was established in 1945 with the aim of promoting security, peace and international cooperation. One of the fundamental objectives is to provide citizens with the opportunity to access free information and knowledge, as well as exercise their ideas and interest freely. Its equally ensures sustainable intercultural dialogue and development based on the framework of human right as established in 1948 by Universal Declaration. The five main programme objectives of the UNESCO include natural science, education, culture, social and human sciences, as well as information and communication. All the activities in the programme aimed at promoting two priorities in the world. These are the establishment of equality as fundamental human right, development of Africa as a continent, building blocks for social justice as well as economic necessity.

Developed countries today have undergone social and economic transformation that individuals and organisations knowledge become visible the vital agent of effective development of societies or organisations. Information and knowledge society has become a

Corresponding author. E-mail: monicakiprotich@gmail.com.

Author(s) agree that this article remain permanently open access under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution</u> <u>License 4.0 International License</u> prerequisite as a result of the fast advancement in information and communication technology (ICT) and also the growth of global competition. According to Vandermoote and Delmonica (2000), the social and economic restructuring skills and experienced in information and knowledge society provides the based for the implementation of social contract creating very high level of equality, welfare and equality among its people.

UNESCO main priority is to ensure equal access to education for all and to protect the fundamental human right which is a key in sustainable development and maintain peace within and among nations. This goal is aimed to be achieved in Dakar at the Millennium Development Summit which requires the commitment on equity, access and standard education at both primary and secondary level, that is, to close the gap of digital divide between the have and have not. Another priority is to ensure constant justice in the equal share of education particularly cultural, linguistic and economic needs and the global one, in light of the reality of growing interdependence between nations.

UNESCO believes that the coming of universal knowledge societies is important for human and economic development. Through universal knowledge societies, UNESCO promotes an environment where individuals have the abilities and not only getting information and transform it into information and knowledge. This knowledge enables people to improve their lives and contribute to both economic and social growth of their societies. The issue of developed nations enhances the role of UNESCO's contribution to world Summit on information society by sensitizing other nations about the need for human development. Internet technologies should be seen as devices that can be used to enhance productivity and improve economic development, work creation, employment and enhancing life quality of all in the population. They further improve communication among individuals, countries and lifelong learning.

The emergence of universal knowledge societies needs national authorities and other major stakeholders to develop and build learning institutions for better economic and social development. Nations with citizens who have high levels of competencies, experience and the ability to embrace and utilize information to improve new products and services, are most likely to be successful in a world of rapid technological complexities. Information and knowledge societies are well equipped to enhance the universal social and economic development and sustainable environment. These are the main goals of sustainable economic development and which also ensures the respect of human rights. Knowledge is key ingredient for the sciences, social and cultural life by enriching people with experience and contributes to intercultural communication and international cohesion. In 2007, UNESCO documented an influential world report which gears towards having universal information and knowledge society. This knowledge society will transform nations and especially developing nations and create opportunities for better communication and development.

Universal knowledge society will reduce the challenges resulting from social inequalities and non-inclusivity. The report emphasizes human aspects of development for example as literacy, education, access to information and freedom of expression. Reducing the digital divide will enhance the development of knowledge societies which will improve access of useful and relevant knowledge. The goal of knowledge society is a critical and original contributor of the discussions and outcomes of the World Summit on the Information Society. Since 2007, UNESCO has collaborated with many governments and other stakeholders in its 192 Member States and ten Associate Members to build on vision of reaching beyond the recommendations outlined in the World Summit on the Information Society documents. UNESCO sought the lasting and sustainable development geared towards social and economic growth through universal information and knowledge societies.

# Mandatory and equitable access to education in knowledge society

UNESCO's major role in its vision is education and the organization endeavour to enhance education system all over the world both child and adult education. Education is one of the core mandate areas in UNESCO's work. This education system promotion involves technical training, vocational training and informal education and literacy. Equity in education has been an important role for UNESCO's mandate. Many children in developing countries are being sidelined against their right to education and the opportunity for them to enhance and develop their talents and skills. UNESCO collaborates with governments nationally and other development mind partners to provide free education cutting across the gender.

This means that UNESCO is committed at providing universal education for all irrespective of their background, disability, culture, race, gender and colour. In one of the UNESCO's sponsored world education forum, it was noted that more than 170 governments agreed to support the six goals of universal education by 2016. These governments reinforced their commitment to primary education and equality in gender as indicated in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). MDG goals strive to ensure that children all over the world are provided with free and high quality primary education in order to eradicate gender inequalities prevalent in both primary and secondary education. Also its goal is to promote the achievement of important life skills which entails numeracy and literacy skills by adults and

# children.

General Director of UNESCO few years ago chaired the "Working Group on Education of the Broadband Commission for Digital Development" which published an impactful report on how technology can be employed to promote universal access to education by the year 2013. The report emphasized on the need to address the association between policy obstacles and educational needs concerning Information Communication affordability Technologies, its and the internet connectivity. Particularly, the report insisted on the need of enhancing Information Communication Technologies and internet connectivity; imparting ICT skills to students and teachers; enhancing resources for open education and mobile learning, promoting local content development and local languages content; including ICTs during job training and lifelong learning. The report emphasized the need for systematic enhancing access to education and involvement of the same as well as promoting high quality universal access of education.

UNESCO promotes the use of ICTs in learning through a comprehensive and holistic method; deal with challenges of education for all; ensure provision of quality professional education and teaching; promote enhancement and very efficient learning management, administration and leadership. The UNESCO Institute for Statistics has initiated a list of critical indicators on how to incorporate ICTS in learning, which is a part of a multiagency network on assessing ICT for development's task to initiate a measurable evidence base for World Summit on the Information Society results. In its activities, UNESCO has realized that the association between ICTs and literacy is more complicated, noting three major cycles in its development which it manifests as electronic readiness, electronic intensity and electronic impact.

The greatest mandate of UNESCO's two fundamental priority areas of action includes equality in gender. During World Summit on the Information Society, UNESCO documented a report dealing with gender problems in the technological world of information explosion. All through its task on World Summit on the Information Society follow-up up to now, it has created the need for promoting gender equality in information access and ICT resource which ensures universal access to information. In developing countries, women are more disadvantaged in accessing internet technologies as compared to men, due to the fact that most women earn less income, have education qualification and experience little and inaccessibility of ICT resources due to their location leading to difficulty in easy access. UNESCO partners with other likeminded UN networks and partners to find and solve certain focused obstacles hindering women from accessing and utilizing internet technologies to enhance their quality of livelihoods and living standards and in documenting and access of certain content of value to women. Gender equality and sensitivity performs

a critical role in most of the UNESCO functions, tasks, initiatives and activities described in the documented report, including capacity building, policy development and open educational resources.

Mobile Phone Literacy project empowers girls and women through project documentations, provides them with effective practices of promoting the importance of mobile technologies for economic and cultural development as well as promoting literacy education among girls and women. Various case studies across five regions have been developed to analyze the strategies for successful mobile technology literacy projects for girls and women. Key lessons noted and policy recommendations made for future developmental activities have been derived and disseminated through the regional consultative workshops for Africa. Asia. Pacific, Latin, North America and the Caribbean. The sensitive indicators of gender for Media were documented in 2014 and they are now being acted upon by agencies such as the international federation of journalists and the national broadcast associations.

# Disabled persons

Men and women with disabilities frequently have many communities. limitations within Information Communication Technologies can have a positive effect on their capability to access information services, social and monetary opportunities, as well as to engage fully in public lifestyles. But IT itself, services and content should be available and accessible to the disabled if these benefits are to be realized. UNESCO has collaborated with the International Telecommunication Union and other enterprises to provide a way in which the disabled to access data and information. World file developed creative ways for empowering the disabled and was posted in 2013, and built on five local researches to utilize an important assessment of current regulations and strategies of information, also as the ability and demanding circumstances for the disabled to employ information technologies obtain the right of access right to information services and statistical data. These obstacles include all ICTs from hardware devices, software programs and the strategies in which statistics are managed, allocated, disseminated and accessed.

# The way forward

Information and knowledge access is at the center of UNESCO's goals to market universal to information societies. The 10 years since World Summit on the Information Society have stressed on competencies and content rather than infrastructural access will persist on. In the next subsequent years, there will be great growth in the amount of individuals having access to information

technologies and thus getting more access than previously it was. The continuous connectivity of broadband networks will further enhance the efficiency in information access especially for enterprises, learning institutions and those privileged to access networked computer resources or devices.

This increase in information access and communication devices should be characterized by great information resources access that individuals, enterprises and societies require so as to change information to knowledge which can promote their livelihoods and living standards. UNESCO and other agencies in this line of action will endeavour to promote the need and necessity of creating and enhancing access to all to, promoting locally created content. Further UNESCO will access to information by all across all cultures, resources and reaching out to those who non-privileged in the society. Open information will be a key area of concern for all stakeholders involved. It will also be great to create more result-oriented measures for inclusivity, cultural diversity and empowerment among the disabled.

All nations. developed and developing have unprivileged persons in their populace who earn very low income levels, lower average life, high poor health conditions, high rates of maternal mortality and who are highly malnourished as compared to other individuals in the population (UNDP, 2010). These are actually the groups of individuals who can use more effort to enhance their education and to gain other competencies, and their children can gain a lot from enrolling in institutions of learning. These groups in society, however, are usually do not benefit from accessing elementary education programmes, even in developed nations where there is improved access to education (UNDP, 2003). Underprivileged people and groups do not only experience less years of learning, but also likely to obtain a lower quality of basic education through having novice or less gualified teachers as well as going to school with poor inferior infrastructure and few learning resources (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2002).

Promoting universal access to basic education is important for the creation of true information based society (Vandermoote and Delmonica, 2000). Recent empirical data indicate out of three hundred million children in the 5-16 age sets, close to fourthly million have not been enrolled in school and nearly 84 million drop-out of school (UNESCO, 2004). Also another challenge is the lack of vocational competencies where National Service Scheme data (2001-2002) shows that those people who are in the labour force aged 14-28, only four percent have obtained formal vocational training and another 6% revealed to have obtained non-formal vocational training (UNESCO, 2011). This six percent is far higher in developed nations with eighty percent in South Korea, seventy percent in Japan, 65% in Germany, 58% in UK and even less developed countries, 18% in

Mexico and twenty percent in Botswana (UNESCO, 2009). Lack of employment arises from lack of cohesion between the competency requirements of the market and the competency base of the job seekers themselves.

Out of the fifty million primary level children not enrolled in school, 65% are girls and about a quarter is from sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia and another 35 million are in war-afflicted nations or developing nations (UNESCO, 2010). Thousands of children drop out of school prior to reaching grade six due to the fact these learning institutions are very crowded, not safe, illequipped, poorly managed and have less trained teachers (WIPO, 2003). If contemporary trends persist, 68 out of the 96 nations that have not attained equal access to literacy will not be able to reach universal knowledge society (Andreotti and Souza 2008). Therefore, it is a requirement to promote universal access to literacy to enhance equal knowledge society (UNESCO, 2014).

# The role of universal access to education towards universal information society

Information societies are about abilities to find, produce, process, remodel, share and utilize information to construct and use expertise for human improvement (Rodes et al., 2003). UNESCO (2005) report explains an information society as one which is supported by its different cultures and its abilities. This is due to the fact that, every society has its own knowledge base and it is important to strive at connecting these knowledge bases that already exists in the society. This may be mixed with the new ways of expertise, dissemination of knowledge retention and acquisition. Literacy is first and fundamentally an essential human right, documented in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), which noted that basic training will be free, mandatory and that higher level of learning can be similarly provided on the idea of benefit (UNESCO Associated Schools Project Network, 2009). This pledge was emphasized in various international global forums in the course of the nineties, and recently within the Dakar blueprint for action (2000), which reaffirmed training as the important thing for sustainable improvement in development and peace and balance within and amongst developed nations. Thus it is an imperative way for effective engagement in the societies and nations of the 21<sup>st</sup> century that can be tormented by high rate of globalization (UNICEF, 2004).

A series of interesting evidence indicates universal access to literacy greatly impacts mortality rates, life expectancy, productivity quality both in rural and town centers self-employment, and average income levels (UNESCO Associated Schools Project Network, 2009). A research study by UNESCO and the OECD examined seventeen developing countries and noted that human capital investment can for many years lead to great economic and social developments (UNESCO, 2011). The research insisted on reaping great dividends from investing in secondary and tertiary literacy alone is not enough. Literacy plays a key role in enhancing the lives of the deprived and can be useful in dealing many injustices if it will be provided and implemented. Obligatory primary schooling will lessen infant labour, for instance (Vandermoote and Delmonica, 2000).

Literacy is key in information and knowledge society, as a source of fundamental skills and pillar for creativity and innovation, as well as the vehicle for social and economic development (Andreotti and Souza, 2008). Literacy is hence a crucial requirement in developing information and knowledge societies that can enhance development, growth in economy and prosperity. It is not only the way by which people become expert participants in community and the economy, but is also an important vehicle for increasing ICT utilization (Watkins, 2010). Effective literacy in a knowledge society assists in enabling dissemination of information, knowledge and technology related resources (WIPO, 2003).

Literacy, development and adaptation of information, expertise, competencies and values are critical issues for universal information and knowledge society (UNESCO, 2009). This is as a result of a need for inclusive nations whereby all population has universal opportunities to access high guality and relevant education in their lifetime provided through many formal, non-formal and informal ways (Rodes et al., 2003). Therefore, literacy is important to peoples' development and development of their family members, both locally and internationally. As a critical human right ratified in many international frameworks, treaties and built into most national constitutions and legislation, the right to literacy is to be regarded as a right for the achievement of other technological, social, cultural and economic rights, as well as an agent for positive change in the society, social justice, tranquility posterity and peace (Watkins, 2010).

Apart from social and economic function, universal access to literacy also has a critical socialization role by enhancing both individual and group identities, the creation of responsible society and the enhancement of important social engagement based on critical respect human dignity, life and diverse cultural practices (Andreotti and Souza, 2008). Enhancing respect for cultural diversity of different communities can help and promote intercultural dialogue and assist prevention of conflicts and promote the rights of the unprivileged persons in the society, hence developing optimum conditions for meeting development goals in developing societies (UNDP, 2003).

Universal access to literacy will enable women and girls to develop their abilities, because the economic and personal development that literacy creates enable them to make sound decisions for their lives and their dependents. Importance of girls' and women's literacy involves not only reduction in the effects of HIV/AIDS, but eradication of poverty, promotion of health, reduction of early marriages, reduction of female circumcision and improvement of self-esteem and making powerful decisions, hence leading to universal information and knowledge society (UNICEF, 2004). A girl in a developing nation, every year of access to literacy beyond primary level will lead to 30% higher income and a 20% decrease in the risk of her own children dying of diseases that could be prevented (UNDP, 2003).

Increasing universal access to literacy for the nation is one of the critical and powerful strategies of fighting poverty hence leading to universal information and knowledge society. Benefits from equal access to literacy result in great differences in eradicating malnutrition and increasing food surplus (Department of Economic and Social Affairs Secretariat, 2005). A study of 73 nations revealed that great and productive farming arises from access to information through literacy and which accounts for 33% of the reduction in malnutrition realized between 1980 and 1990 (OECD, 2005). Crop production in Kenya and other developing nations can rise up to 25% if farmers have the same equity access to literacy and resources like farm inputs and technology just like those farmers in developed nations (Human Development Report, 1999).

Research indicates that learned individuals are strong and healthy individuals and the cases of HIV/AIDS spread are reduced by half in nations that support universal access to education and information (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2002). For instance, if both girls and boys access equal education, at least ten million new infections of HIV/AIDS can be reduced for many years. A study done in Uganda revealed that those people in rural possessing secondary education have a 85% lower rate of HIV/AIDS infection as compared to those with no education at all (Department of Economic and Social Affairs Secretariat, 2005). The capability of girls to eradicate HIV/AIDS infection is much correlated with their attendance in school, which in education sector, is called a social vaccine against HIV/AIDS (UNESCO, 2004). A study carried out in Botswana found that HIV/AIDS infections can be spread five times faster among illiterate as well as the educated girls (Watkins, 2010). Universal access to literacy enables reduction in poverty and promotes economic development thus equal access to literacy is critical for short and long-term economic development (UNESCO, 2011).

There is no nation that has reached continuous and fast economic development without 50% of its population literacy. Inability to provide equal education chance to girls like boys can lead to many emerging nations not reaching universal information and knowledge society (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2002). Furthermore, lack of universal access to literacy by both boys and girls will cost emerging nations millions of dollars every year (Human Development Report, 1999). An individual's income increment by fifteen percent every year of education received equates to a three percent increment annually in GDP if high quality literacy is provided to whole population (OECD, 2005). Universal access to literacy is a key framework for the economic growth of a universal information and knowledge society, including democratic nation and universal security (UNESCO, 2011). Universal access to literacy promotes peace all over the world and continuous schooling reduces a male's chance of being involved in violent activities by thirty percent (UNICEF, 2004).

# Conclusion

The subject of equal data societies will not seize to be at the core of UNESCO's functions to satisfy WSIS objectives. For some time, World Summit on the Information Society has created the importance of reaching the far side of technology to make sure that ICTs meet human development desires. Equal data societies are societies where individuals have prepared access to information, equal access to literacy and communication devices in languages and formats that suit them irrespective of their individual situations, the abilities to interpret and create them, and use opportunities to change information and competencies into balanced livelihoods. Such societies will be highly equipped to deal with the challenges of financial condition wipeout, access to literacy, sustained development and peaceful existence that also affect our world. UNESCO can still follow them smartly through its own programmes and in collaboration with other agencies.

Since it promotes knowledge and competencies and emphasizes on new ethical values and enhances personal and group empowerment, equity in education access is at the core of economic, technological and social as well as attainment of universal knowledge society. The relationships between literacy levels and characteristics such as income levels, health conditions, and long life are well published in all emerging and developed economies. Lately, the focus has increased in the critical function of universal access to education in attaining universal knowledge society and peoples' efforts to improve livelihoods and enhance quality of life. The strategy in which literacy supports equity in knowledge society is important for taking into account the great impacts of literacy on human development.

#### REFERENCES

- Andreotti V, Souza LM (2008). Global learning in the knowledge society. Four tools for discussion. ZEP: Zeitschrift fÃ\$1/4\$r Internationale Bildungsforschung Und Entwicklungspä Dagogik 31(1):9-14.
- Department of Economic and Social Affairs Secretariat (2005). Understanding knowledge societies in twenty questions and answers with the Index of Knowledge Societies. http://www.unpan.org/cdrom-

dpadm/DPADM/Understanding%20Knowledge

Education for All Global Monitoring Report (2002). Education for all: Is the world on track? Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Human Development Report (1999). Globalization with a human face.

- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2005). International development statistics. http://www.oecd.org/dae/stats/idsonlinc.
- Rodes JM, Piejut G, Plas E, Chantrey C (2003). Memory of the information society. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2003). Millennium development goals: A compact among nations to end human poverty. New York/Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2010). What will it take to achieve the millennium development goals? An International Assessment. New York.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2014). Building inclusive knowledge societies: A review of UNESCO's action in implementing the World Summit on the Information Society outcomes. France: place de Fontenoy.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2004). Policy guidelines for the development and promotion of governmental Public domain information. http://portal.unesco.org/ci/en/ev.php.html.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2009). Education for All global monitoring report 2009: Overcoming inequality-why governance matters. Paris.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2010). Education for All global onitoring report. Reaching the marginalized. Paris.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2011). Aid brief: Recent trends in aid to education. Education for All global monitoring report www.efareport.wordpress.com. Paris.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2005). Education For All Global Monitoring Report: Literacy for life. UNESCO, Paris
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Associated Schools Project Network (UNESCO) (2009). Education for sustainable development. Paris.
- United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) (2004). Girls, HIV/AIDS and education. New York.
- Vandermoote J, Delmonica E (2000). Education 'vaccine' against HIV/AIDS. Current Issues in Comparative Education 3(1):56-61.
- Watkins K (2010). When learning saves lives: Education and child mortality. World Education blog. Education for All Global Monitoring Report www.efareport.wordpress.com Paris.
- World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)(2003). Intellectual property: A power tool for economic growth. Geneva.

# CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

<sup>%20</sup>Societies%20(2005).pdf.

Vol. 14(6), pp. 206-216, 23 March, 2019 DOI: 10.5897/ERR2019.3703 Article Number: 142FEF460405 ISSN: 1990-3839 Copyright ©2019 Author(s) retain the copyright of this article http://www.academicjournals.org/ERR



Full Length Research Paper

# Turkish Background Families Live In Germany and Education: In Term of Families, Students, Teachers

# Menekşe Eskici

Educational Science Department, Faculty of Art and Science, Kırklareli University, Kırklareli, Turkey.

#### Received 5 February, 2019; Accepted 26 February, 2019

The aim of this research is to determine the problems, supports and suggestions for families of Turkish background living in Germany about their children's education. It is also intended to determine opinions of Turkish background students living in Germany and Turkish background teachers working in Germany about Turkish background families' parents' role. Phenomenology, which is one of the qualitative research methods, was used in this research. This research was carried out on 23 parents, 12 students and 6 teachers living in Germany with Turkish background to reveal the participants' thinking about the research subject interviewed with participants. The data were obtained using semi-structured interview forms were prepared by researcher. A content analysis technique was used for the resolve of the data. In the light of the results language problems, cultural differences and conflicts, assimilations, prejudices of teachers towards Turkish students are mainly problems in education. Participants specified some suggestions such as, school parents' cooperation should be developed, mother tongue teaching should be considered, and inclusion should be used instead of assimilation. According to results, it can be said that new generation are more conscious and liable about their children's education than old generation of Turkish background families living in Germany.

Key words: Turkish background families living in Germany, migration, education.

# INTRODUCTION

A person becomes a part of a family once he/she is born. In the family the individual was born into, individual personality develops, individual cultural values are shaped and behaviors of the individual toward events are developed. The family plays a key role to care for and educate children. Parents are teachers who leave their children's first and lasting traces. From this point of view, parents' effect and guidance on their children is important. To enhance the effect of school education given at any time to an individual at the highest level, it could only be possible through conscious family orientation. At this point, the prominence of cooperation between the family and the school is evident.

The family, as the smallest and most basic element of society, has a great importance since it is the primary environment in which the individual meets his/her

E-mail: menekeskici@hotmail.com.

This paper was presented as abstract at the 9th World Conference on Educational Sciences in Nice, Feb. 1–3, 2017

Author(s) agree that this article remain permanently open access under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution</u> <u>License 4.0 International License</u> physical and emotional needs and earns cultural values. When the definitions related to the concept of family are examined (Agdemir, 1991; Nirun, 1994), the sharing and interaction between the individuals constituting the family can be observed. The family environment is the environment in which the individuals interacting with each other influence the younger members of the family psychologically. This interaction enables the individual to develop self-confidence, personality, social skills, to learn to love, and to achieve collective harmony. Unuvar and Senemoglu (2010) deemed the family as a shelter, where both cultural and ethical values are provided to children through children's environment, and where kindness and trust necessary for personality formation for growingchildren are provided.

The fact that family influence has an important place in personality formation shows the role of parents in the formation of behaviours and habits that will be evident in later ages (Aslanargun, 2007; Ceka and Murati, 2016). As indicated by Bulut (1993), healthy individuals could only become possible where the families they grew up in have proper functioning. In parallel with Bulut's (1993) assertions, Günindi and Giren (2011) supports the idea that parent-child relationship is important for child adaptation to surroundings. An individual who is experiencing social and emotional problems in the childhood may be able to continue these problems in later ages.

Individual education is not just a process that takes place in a school or just in the family. In this process, the family plays the most effective role outside the school in the education of the individual. It is an inevitable situation to work in cooperation with these two institutions (school, family), with common aims in terms of education of the individual (Argon and Kiyici, 2012). Kayisili (2008) emphasizes that parents are not only the first teachers of students but also the teachers' partners. In addition to these, Beydogan (2006) states that although the education offered at schools are deemed as the main reason for students' school success; it is a fact that the responsibility for the education of the individuals is distributed over a wider frame (School-Family-Society). Bower and Griffin (2011) indicates that the family contribution for individual education must be established on a voluntarily basis. The positive effects of family and school collaboration onto academic achievement are revealed by related studies (Akın 2009; Çelenk, 2003; lpek, 2011; Jeynes, 2007; Mautone et al., 2015; Yingqi, 2015). The family contribution has positive effect on not only students' achievement but also on their attitudes towards school (Cripss and Zyromski, 2009; McNeal, 2014). One of the consequences of an active family collaborative effort with the school is that the student is an active student at school (Marshall and Jackman, 2015; Nitecki, 2015). It is also an important fact that the support of the family is inevitable in the process of preparing

the school for the readers (Smith et al., 2011). In such a case, it would not be wrong to say that the participation of the child in the school education process would make the educational process more productive.

On account of the fact that education is a system that requires constant inter action, and the importance of family participation comes into the forefront in the education process. It is a systematic approach to the promotion of families, to the training and education of children, to the enhancement of the experiences of children with the increase and continuity of communication between their homes and educational institutions and the enrichment of their programs with the participation and contributions of the parents (Cömert and Gulec, 2004). It is wrong to think that participating in the education process of the family is only possible when parents are physically present in the school (Quiocho and Daoud, 2006). The family involvement activities that teachers mostly include in their programs are: working with children at home, parents' attending educational activities, and making visits to school (Unuvar, 2010). Family participation is defined by Cagdas and Secer (2004) as teaching the skills of specific subject to parents, providing social and emotional support, providing information between parents and professionals, participating in a group, developing suitable parent-child relationship and helping to reach the social resources. In supporting this concept asserted by Çağdaş and Secer (2004), Cömert and Gulec (2004) emphasizes that family involvement is a process of sharing information and establishing relationships, and that the invisible program is a fundamental institution and that also form a bridge of coherence between children's worlds.

Although positive effects of family participation in the individual's education process are significant, it is possible to say that the participation of the family in the education process has many problems, which reduces the effectiveness of family participation. The students stated that family and school (Baysal, Tanrıkulu and Cimsir, 2019) mostly cause the problems in their lives. Parents limit the educational activities of their children with safety concerns (Ceylan, 2018). In the restriction of the inclusion of low socio-cultural families in the educational process. inadequacies school of administrators and teachers in cooperating with parents, lack of healthy communication between educator-parentstudent, thinking that unnecessary attendance of parents to the education process by teachers, negative attitudes of parents to participation in the education process, not having enough time to participate, the inability of the families to comply with the cultural difference between educators, the number of students, the education level of their families, the inadequacy of family participation of the educators are the main problems that must be handled (Beydogan, 2006; Erdogan and Demirkasimoglu, 2010; Meyer and Mann, 2006; Waanders et al., 2007).

While the importance on the individual's education is at an indisputable scale, the family takes its place in educational problems as a painful picture in which the educational process of the children is negatively affected bv differences in family structures, parental unconsciousness and family problems. In such a case, the role of family living abroad on their children's education is also a subject of debate (Lee and Bowen, 2006). Cultural and linguistic differences are among the main problems immigrant families experience regarding effective participation in the educational process (Garza and Crawford, 2005; Zhang and Slaughter-Defoe, 2009).

However, the educational success of children of minorities living overseas has increased significantly with their participation in the education process (Banerjee et al., 2011). Wang et al. (2014) have found that the participation rate of ethnicity in the educational process of families migrated is low. Chiefly, language differences can be a problem between families and school personnel (Chu and Garcia, 2014; Zhang and Bennett, 2003). Migrant parents have difficulty speaking the language of the country they live in accurately and fluently (Tao and Taft, 2017). Souto-Manning and Swick (2006) indicates that teachers emphasize the role of schoolchildren in the education participation of minority families.

Turks' aim to migrate to the European countries was to save money and return for the Turks in the most economical way. However, over the years, the existence of Turkish workers has turned into an important fact that radically affects social, political, cultural and economic life (Ural, 2012). It comes at the beginning of the countries where the Turks live the most in Europe. According to official records in Germany, there are approximately, according to Federal Foreign Registration Center (AZR), three million Turkish citizens living in such territories. This figure is also an inevitable reality of the reflection of the size of the social structure. Since the children of Turkish descent living in Germany have begun to receive education in school as children of all the families living abroad, they are staying between two different cultures at home and at school. In this situation, it is necessary to make school-family communication much more cautious so that children are not adversely affected.

International labor migration is a reality that brings economic, social, cultural and political problems. These problems can be handled in many dimensions. One of these is the education of children in the immigrant family. Education is a process involving family participation, parent-school collaboration. In this case, the need to play an effective role in the education of a student living in a foreign country, his or her parents, and the difficulties arising from this necessity, constitute a major problem for families living abroad. The current barriers need to be lifted in order to ensure the participation of parents in the education of the school. For this reason, it is envisaged that the necessary conditions for family participation should be established and studies for this field should be made in order to ensure the continuation of these conditions.

# Objectives

The aim of this research is to determine

1. What are the problems of families with Turkish background living in Germany about their children's education?

2. What are the effect of families with Turkish background living in Germany about their children's education?

3. What are the advantages of families with Turkish background living in Germany about their children's education?

4. What are the suggestions of families with Turkish background living in Germany about their children's education?

#### METHODOLOGY

#### **Research Design**

This descriptive model research is a qualitatively designed study. Phenomenology, which is one of the qualitative research methods, was used in this research. As stated by Yıldırım and Simsek (2011) phenomenology provides a good searching condition for the facts, which are not completely known and not completely unknown to people. Phenomenology tries to express individual differences of people by stressing events that can be perfected and commented by people who live in the same culture differently (Morton, 1986).

#### Workgroup/ Sample

This research was carried out with 23 Turkish background parents live in Germany, 12 Turkish background university students at the Germany Westfälische Hochschule University of Applied Sciences and 6 Turkish background teachers working in Ruhr Area, Germany, in 2014. Parents' age varies from 32 to 72. University students' age change varies from 21 to 29. Teachers' age varies from 35 to 64. Among the parents were16 females, 7 males; 7 male students, 5 females; 5 female teachers, 1 male. Snowball sampling method is one of the purposive sample selection methods used. Since it is necessary to identify the individuals (sample) which may be a rich source of information on the problem of the research, snowball-sampling method was preferred. In accordance with the snowball sampling method, families with Turkish background living in Ratingen, one of the cities in Germany, were interviewed. Some questions such as "would you give me any suggestion about interview with anyone who is related to the topic?", "who has information about the topic?" were asked of families with Turkish background living in Germany. As interviews go on, people were determined to collect data. Since they became prominent, growing like a snowball. After a certain period of interviews, individuals that are to be met became obvious and their numbers reduced. In order to get rich data from sample, different age groups and different education levels have been considered.

#### **Data collection**

The data were collected using interview technique. Interviews have been recorded with the permission of participants. Interviews ranged from participant to participant, but lasted approximately 1 h and 15 min. Interviews were conducted face to face with the participants.

#### Data collection instruments

Three semi-structured interview forms (1 semi-structured interview form for parents, 1 semi-structured interview form for students, 1 semi-structured interview form for teachers) were prepared in order to collect data. First related literature was scanned to create a pool of questions for the semi-structured interview forms. The pool of questions were checked by experts (3 faculty members working at educational department and 1 sociology department). The questions on the semi-structured interview forms were determined according to the expert opinion. Qualification of questions in the interview forms are designed to enable comparing views of teachers, parents, and students on the study topic. Before applying the semistructured interview forms, prepared semi-structured interview forms applied to apart from sample group 1 families with Turkish background living in Germany, 1 student with Turkish background living in Germany and 1 teacher with Turkish background living in Germany as a pilot study. After the pilot study, prepared semistructured interview forms in this research have been accepted as applicable.

#### Analysing data

In order to understand terms and relations under these terms, content analysis method has been used. While data are being analysed, the researcher categorizes these by analysing similarities and differences between statements of study examples, using phenomenology method. Every category explains how an individual precepts and comments a content (Akerlind, 2012; Barnard et al., 1999).

This research has four main questions (Problems in education, Parents' effect for education, Advantages of to be educated in a foreign language, Suggestions for a better education). Answers given from three different participant groups (Turkish background families live in Germany, Turkish background students live in Germany, Turkish background teachers live in Germany) were compared. In data analysis, categories have been created according to similarities and differences. Participants' thoughts and answers about topic, which are importantly considered, have been presented directly. Presenting quotes that were taken from participants directly and reaching a result from these quotes are important for validity of the study (Yıldırım and Simsek, 2011).

#### The limitations of the research

This study is limited to the participants in the interview and the interview form.

#### FINDINGS

Analysed data are shown in the tables.

# Problems of families with Turkish background living in Germany about their children's education

Problems of families with Turkish background living in Germany regarding their children education; problems of students with Turkish background living in Germany regarding their education; and problems of teachers of Turkish background living in Germany in education process have been categorized as below.

As seen in Table 1, problems of families, students and teachers with Turkish background living in Germany as relating to education, language problems, cultural differences and conflicts, assimilations, prejudices of teachers towards Turkish students, equivalence of diplomas, unconsciousness of families and financial problems. Families, students and teachers with Turkish background who live in Germany have stated that they had language problems mostly during the education process. This problem is widespread especially among old age groups. It can be concluded that new generation does not have language problems much. Cultural differences and conflicts are accepted as significant problems among Turkish background families and students as well as teachers who live in Germany. In addition, equivalence of diplomas is another problem among students. Related with the subject, reviews that were taken directly from participants are as below:

P2: "We are trying to keep our values but assimilations do happen. I am afraid of growing up with German culture and having conflict between two cultures."

P4: "The more families try to integrate the more they are assimilated. This situation increases the probability of identity conflict for children. We did not teach Turkish to our child purposely but now we regret that. She is 25 years old now and she is trying to learn Turkish now. She accepts the fact that not knowing her mother language is a great incompleteness."

P7: "I am afraid of her forgetting Turkish. She cannot speak properly. Here, families with Turkish origin speak Turkish-German mixed language. They speak and we cannot prevent this. Children who grew up here were affected more due to this situation. Even if their speech is understandable in Turkish, we have much more difficulty in writing."

P18: "We can feel that they separate us and they see us different and this situation can be seen in grades. Teachers are not fair when they grade us."

P23: "We have a serious language problem. Children usually speak German after they have started school and I could not communicate with them because I cannot speak German. As a result, we have fallen apart."

T3: "Since students have language problem they cannot express themselves properly. This situation causes lack of self-confidence and even stammering. German teachers have prejudice to students who have

Dasklama	Pa	arents	Stu	dents	Teachers		
Problems	(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)	
Language problems	14	60.87	8	66.60	4	66.66	
Cultural differences	13	56.52	11	91.66	6	100	
Cultural conflicts	9	39.13	7	58.33	4	66.66	
Assimilations	10	43.47	2	16.66	3	50	
Prejudices of teachers towards Turkish students	8	34.78	3	25	1	16.66	
Equivalence of diplomas	1	4.34	5	41.66	2	33.33	
Financial problems	3	13.04	8	66.60	3	50	

 Table 1. Problems of Turkish background families live in Germany about their children's education.

**Table 2.** Effects of Turkish background families live in Germany about their children's education.

Support	P	arents	St	udents	Teachers		
Support	(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)	
Support	12	52.17	9	75	2	33.33	
Communicate with the school	16	69.56	7	58.33	4	66.66	
İrrelevant	2	8.68	3	25	5	83.33	
Allow time	9	39.13	5	41.66	2	33.33	
Inadequacy of education	8	34.78	6	50	5	83.33	

behavioural disorder due to their families' lack of interest."

T4: "Busy parents come home very tired and they do not pay attention to their children's education process"

T6: "Families who have low income think that spending money for education is unnecessary. Now they realized it was a mistake"

T2: "There is no support for parents who cannot speak German, which is a language based problem. Strict families do not try to adapt due to the fear of assimilation."

S1: "we do not feel ourselves, German or Turkish. We are foreigners to both cultures. When we want to come back we have so many problems. One of them is equivalence of diplomas. Turkey does not accept our diplomas."

S3: "German teachers' point of view towards Turkish students is negative. Generally, they are forwarded to schools that are designed for "special education students."

# Effects of families with Turkish background living in Germany regarding their children's education

Thoughts from the perspective of Turkish background families, parents and students living in Germany, related to assessment of parents' effects on their education have been categorized as below:

When Table 2 was examined, it can be seen that Turkish parents who live in Germany support their children's education. Students also stress the support of their families. However, teachers who have stated family support is 33%, which is low. Parents who have stated that they have contact with school management is 69.56%, for teachers this rate is 66.66% and for students this rate is 58.33%. Teachers have stated that parents are not interested in their children's' education by the rate of 83.33%; parents who accept their low interest is about 8.56%, which is very low. There is also time problem among parents. Teachers have stated this by the rate of 33.33%, students have stated this by the rate of 41.56%, parents have stated this by the rate of 39.13%; teachers have stated that parents who do not participate in educational process is 83.33% and for students' point of view this rate is 50%. It can be understood that those who think that parents are unsatisfactory for their support is 34.78%. Related with the subject, Quotes that were taken directly from participants are as below:

P22: "I was working so I could not support properly but I always did my best for them to have education."

P9: "I primarily paid attention for their mother language because I think if he/she cannot speak his/her mother language properly, he/she would not be able to learn a foreign language well. I always want them to have a job. School helps them so I did not want to intervene"

P3: "My education level is low and my German is not

	P	arents	St	udents	Teachers		
Advantages	(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)	
Language learning	19	82.60	12	100	6	100	
Cultural wealth	7	30.43	9	75	4	66.66	
Social activities	3	13.04	5	41.66	2	33.33	
Practical training	13	56.52	10	83.33	3	50	
Job orientation	8	34.78	3	25	1	16.66	
Sense of duty	2	8.69	4	33.33	1	16.66	
Educational environments	4	17.39	3	25	4	66.66	
Systematic study	4	17.39	2	16.66	1	16.66	

Table 3. Advantages of Turkish background families live in Germany about their children's education.

enough to speak so I could not help him/her. However, when I realize a teacher is not fair by misleading my child I go to school and talk to teachers and manager. "

T3: "New generation is more conscious about education and they are aware of the importance of education. This situation makes things easier for teachers. In the past, there were more problems. New generation is interested in their children's' education needs as their education level is getting better."

T2: "I think Parents' support is the most important factor in their children's' academic achievement. Some parents are not well educated; they cannot speak a foreign language. Education is in the second place for them so they cannot support them so this situation reduces their academic achievement.

T6: "Parents tried to contact with school management and participated meeting because they had to. Participating rate was very low at first but later this rate increased and students became more successful. Earning money is the first priority for parents; education is coming next, which has a negative effect. This point of view reduces their participation"

S7: "Our parents always want us to continue our education but their education level is low and they cannot speak a foreign language so they could just support us mentally."

S5: "My parents' aim was to make some money and to come back to Turkey and they did not have an exact decision for me. They thought that it was just teachers' responsibility to support a student."

S12: "My parents and my teachers cannot communicate; I help them to understand each other. My family could not support me well they did not help my homework."

# Advantages of families with Turkish background living in Germany about their children's education

Comments of families, teachers and students with Turkish background living in Germany, about advantages

of to be educated in a foreign country have been categorized as below: As seen in Table 3, participants of this research remarked on advantages of being educated in a foreign country as language learning, cultural wealth, social activities, practical training, job orientation, sense of duty, educational environments. Direct quotes taken from participants' opinion about the topic like the following:

P1: "Students are bilingual. Immigrant students know one more languages compared to German students. Here, consultancy service is great and they help students to choose the right job."

P12: "They provide good conditions for education in Germany. Teachers always supply what they need. Students get everything they need."

T2: "It is an advantage for students to learn a foreign language. Also, they learn with social activities."

T4: "There are students from different countries in schools. They also learn different cultures, which help them to learn how to respect them."

S7: "We are taking responsibilities when we learn there are so many activities."

S12: "We are learning a new language here and this is a different culture. Our point of view is expanding."

S4: "They are counselling when we decide to choose a job for the future, which reduces our better future anxiety."

# Suggestions families with Turkish background living in Germany about their children's education

Suggestions for a better education for families, teachers and students living in Germany have been categorized as follow:

As seen in Table 4, participants specified some suggestions such as parents should be educated about variety of cultures, school parents' cooperation should be developed, mother tongue teaching should care more,

Suggestions	Pa	arents	St	udents	Teachers		
Suggestions	(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)	
Parents should be educated	1	4.35	8	66.66	6	100	
School parents cooperation should be developed	9	39.13	6	50	6	100	
Mother tongue teaching should be care more	15	65.21	3	25	5	83.33	
Inclusion should be prefer instead of assimilation	2	8.69	0	0	1	16.66	
Financial support	4	17.39	2	16.66	1	16.66	

**Table 4.** Suggestions of Turkish background families live in Germany about their children's education.

and inclusion should be prefered to assimilation. Direct quotes taken from participants' opinion on the topic:

P7: "If parents are supported financially there will be more opportunities especially in higher education."

P23: "Mother tongue education is important. Every school must have a native teacher gotten by Turkish government"

T6: "It is inevitable to solve this problem in a short time. Parents' adaptation affects children's' education. If parents become more conscious the process will continue easily. In order to maintain a good communication, parents should speak a foreign language well."

T5: "In my opinion, parents training is a solution, which are currently insufficient. Parents should realize the importance of education. Also, mother tongue should be respected and should have prestige."

S3: "Parents could be trained to support their children's' education. Knowing a language is also important. Of course Turkish is important too, but in order to be successful knowing German is a must."

# DISCUSSION

The problems encountered by the children of families with Turkish background living in Germany, the effects on their education, advantages of having trained abroad (Germany), and the proposals of the participants for improved education process abroad (Germany) are revealed based on the data collected for the purpose of this study.

Education related problems of families, students and teachers of Turkish background living in Germany are listed as language problems, cultural differences and conflicts, assimilations, prejudices of teachers towards Turkish students, equivalence of diplomas, unconsciousness of families, and financial problems. In a study conducted by Mendez (2010), it was emphasized that the problems encountered by the minority families in education process are language communication, poverty, school climate, teacher apprehension, work related obligations, and lack of understanding of the parents' role

within the academic environment. From the findings of the study revealed in the study conducted by Mendez (2010), it is seen that it has similarities with the findings of this study. In particular, language problems stand out as the main problem for participation of the families living abroad to the education system. Tezcan (2010) that the success rates of the students of Turkish background living in Germany are low because of their failure to learn German fluently emphasizes it. It has been asserted by Yılmaz (2014), as a supporting document of the findings of this research, that one of the biggest problems that families in Germany with Turkish-background face are problems relating to their native language learning. In a study conducted by Sen (2016), it was established that the students of Turkish background living in Belgium had faults in writing their native language due to the effect of the second language. In addition, it is asserted in a study conducted by Kocak (2012) that the citizens of Turkish background living in Germany have some difficulties in speaking Turkish, their mother tongue. The findings of the studies conducted by Sen (2016) and Kocak (2012) are seen as being in parallel with the statements made by the parents of the students of Turkish background, "our children are having difficulties in Turkish written language even if they can speak Turkish smoothly". In a study conducted by Sarıkaya (2014), as support to the finding that cultural difference and language problems are part of the problems encountered during education process, confirms that students with Turkish background in Belgium fail to speak the language they are educated in and their mother tongue fluently, they encounter problems with the culture they live in and are stuck between two cultures. Luchtenberg (2002) states that bilingual education constitutes a major problem in the education. In addition, the study conducted by Lueck (2010) support these findings. According to the study conducted by Lueck (2010), the families living in Texas become more positive after they are educated about English as a second language.

According to the assertions made by Ilgar and Topac (2014), Turkish-background families' major concerns are the possible alienation to the Turkish culture and/or get confused between these different languages and/or the

possible danger of regarding their culture as unnecessary. The study finding is parallel with the finding of this study, that families of Turkish background living in Germany worry that their children will experience cultural confusion by growing up with German culture and be assimilated in such culture. In the research conducted by Ural (2012), it has been revealed that the discrimination perception of Turkish-background families living in the Netherlands are medium to low levels, and it may be stated that it has direct relation to the finding with the opinion of parents who believe students are biased against the students of Turkish background (34.78%).

The parents of Turkish background living in Germany, stated they care about the education of their children in general. However, Turkish background teachers live in Germany asserted that there are problems in particular with the parents because of their socio-economic inadequacy. Financial difficulties, attitudes and concerns of teachers against minority students, and families' low level of education are seen as other prominent problems. The finding revealed in the study conducted by Mendez and Westerberg (2012) that realization of cultural adoption of the families living in a foreign country as minority members increases the participation of the families in education process. The finding of Liu (2016) that participation of the minorities in education process is related to the cultural features, overlap with the cultural differences and conflicts shown among the problems encountered in education process revealed in this study. Yagmurlu and Sanson (2009) indicates that even if the cultural integration level of the mothers living in Australia change, their love and respect remained at high level; this is parallel to the findings achieved here, in terms of love and respect level of the participants.

In this study, prejudices of teachers towards Turkish students are considered as a problem. Teachers must be conscious of multiculturalism in education. According to the study conducted by Phillips (2017), teachers should be educated about cultural differences. Pre and post test results showed that teachers' multicultural attitude became higher after education. The finding of the study conducted by Ndebele (2015), that parents of students with higher socioeconomic level have higher homework participation level; this is parallel with the finding of this study that financial insufficiency is to be considered as a problem in education process. In addition to the foregoing, the study conducted by Nam and Park (2014) indicates that the education levels of mother and father affect the participation level of school activities. The study conducted by Sarikava (2014) indicates that one of the main reason for students' failure in terms of educational process are negative attitudes shown by parents and families staying away from school because of culture and language differences. The researches conducted by Nam and Park (2014) as well as Sarikaya (2014) are in parallel with the assertions mentioned here, which indicate that

the key problem encountered during the parent participation level to children education is low socialeconomic level and second problem is that education is deemed as a secondary issue. As a supportive argument for what has been asserted here, Eight Five Year Development Program (2001) had stated that, children could not continue their higher education because of their families' unconsciousness and they tend to continue in vocational institutions.

The participants of this research indicated that the most important advantage of receiving education abroad is to learn different languages. In a review of literature, researches emphasizing the importance of knowing different languages are observed (Büyükikiz and Hasirci, 2013; Çelebi, 2006; Donato and McCormick, 1994; Dörnyei, 1998; Genç, 2012; Iscan, 2011; Korkmaz, 2016; Long, 1985). In addition, the participants stated that receiving education abroad would have the advantage of receiving education together with students and teachers from different countries, and these circumstances would offer cultural diversities and the achievements of such multi-cultural environment would be reflected on students. In a review of the applicable literature sources, it is seen that there are plenty of researches underlying that having education in a multi-cultural environment has its advantages (Castro, 2010; Demir and Basarir, 2013; Eskici, 2016; Garmon, 2004; McAllister and Irvine, 2000; Ríos and Montecinos, 1999; Sleeter, 2001; Yavuz and Anil, 2010).

Furthermore, the participants emphasize existence of more social activities during the education process, directive attitude of the school for profession selection, developing sense of obligation and other educational advantages as the major advantages. It has been emphasized by such participants of the research that education should be provided to the parents of Turkish background living in Germany for better operation of the education process. Such fact is also emphasized in 8th Five Year Development Plan (2001). Improving the collaboration between the parents and schools is another topic suggested by the participants. Babaoglan (2010) states that establishing collaboration between Turkish Government, European governments, and the parents shall increase the productivity of students. The emphasis of the study conducted by Ural (2012) is on the importance of creating social integration without leaving aside the immigrant families and applying discriminative policies; this overlaps with the finding of this thesis.

Another aspects emphasized by the participants is attaching importance on education of the mother tongue. In the review of literature, the studies supporting this claim were seen (Belet 2009; Janssen et al. 2004; Sarikaya 2014; Sen 2016). Another proposal of the participants was to offer financial support for immigrant families. A study conducted by Persembe (2010) also emphasizes that the immigrant families are to be provided with financial support.

# Conclusion

Parents' involvement is important in the education process. Properties of families also have its place in the education system, as a point to pay attention to. Families that had to migrate because of financial problems, experiencing compliance issues with a different country have more problems as regards their children's education process. Families with Turkish background live mostly in Germany. In this manner, Turkish background families live in Germany as a minority have social differences. The effect of this social difference on education of Turkish background students living in Germany is inevitable.

Within the scope of the findings of this research, it can be said that Turkish background families, students, and teachers living in Germany have some problems about their children's education. Language problems, cultural differences and conflicts, assimilations, prejudices of teachers towards Turkish students, equivalence of diplomas, unconsciousness of families and financial problems were determined as problems of Turkish background families, students and teachers living in Germany about education. In addition, Turkish background families, students and teachers live in Germany emphasized that new generation has less problems about education than old generation. According to Turkish background families living in Germany, they always support their children with higher education. However, according to Turkish background students and teachers living in Germany, families do not give adequate support, especially on language, educational perspective and socio-economic level.

In addition, participants remarked that some advantages of education abroad is to learn different languages, cultural wealth, social activities, practical training, job orientation, sense of duty, educational environments etc. Intercalary Turkish background families, students and teachers living in Germany believe there education will be better on the condition that parents support education, school-parents collaborate and there is improved mother tongue education.

# RECOMMENDATIONS

Considering the findings of this research, some recommendations are given as follows:

# **Recommendations for educational environment**

Turkish background families, teachers and students living in Germany should be trained on the culture, language of the country they live in and the importance of education. Mother tongue education should be given more attention.

Turkish background students living in Germany should be pre-trained on German language.

Turkish background families and students living in Germany should be supported economically towards education.

Schools and Turkish background parents living in Germany should cooperate.

Some activities for better adaptation to German culture should be organized.

Educational programmes should be developed in the light of multiculturalism.

Teachers should be conscious of breaking down prejudices against immigrants.

# **Recommendation for educational researchers**

Some projects that will include Turkish background parents living in German should be developed.

Views of migrant parents about better education in foreign country should be investigated.

Researches can be done to understand the social structure in Germany.

# **CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

# REFERENCES

- Agdemir S (1991). Aile ve eğitim. Başbakanlık Aile Araştırma Kurumu Başkanlığı Dergisi 1(1):11-14.
- Akerlind GŠ (2012). Variation and commonality in phenomenographic research methods. Higher Education Research and Development 31(1):115-127.
- Akin A (2009). Algılanan anne-baba tutumlarının öğrencilerin sosyal bilgiler dersindeki akademik başarıları üzerine etkisi. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Sakarya University Institute of Social Sciences, Sakarya.
- Argon T, Kiyici C (2012). İlköğretim kurumlarında ailelerin eğitim sürecine katılımlarına yönelik öğretmen görüşleri. Dicle University, Journal of Ziya Gökalp Faculty of Education 19:80-95.
- Aslanargun E (2007). Okul-aile işbirliği ve öğrenci başarısı üzerine bir tarama çalışma. Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi 18(18):119-135.
- Babaoglan E (2010). Planning to meet the educational needs of Turkish emigres in Europe. Educational Planning 19(1):10-21.
- Banerjee S, Hellier J, Dewey M, Romeo R, Ballard C, Baldwin R, Knapp M (2011). Sertraline or mirtazapine for depression in dementia (HTA-SADD): a randomised, multicentre, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. The Lancet 378(9789):403-411.
- Barnard A, McCosker H, Gerber R (1999). Phenomenography: A qualitative research approach for exploring understanding in health care. Qualitative Health Research 9(2):212-226.
- Baysal ZN, Tanrikulu DD, Cimsir S (2019). Perceived problems of 4th grade primary school students related to their families and schools. Educational Research and Reviews 14(4):121-129.
- Belet SD (2009). Iki dilli Türk öğrencilerin ana dili Türkçe'yi öğrenme durumlarina ilişkin öğrenci, veli ve öğretmen görüşleri (Fjell Ilköğretim

Okulu Örneği, Norveç). Selçuk University Journal of Social Sciences Institute (21):71-85.

- Beydogan OH (2006). Ailelerin eğitim sürecine katilimina yönelik modeller ve yaklaşimlar. Gazi University Journal of Kırşehir Education Faculty 7 (1): 75-90.
- Bower HA, Griffin D (2011). Can the Epstein model of parental involvement work in a high-minority, high-poverty elementary school? A Case Study. Professional School Counseling 15(2):77-87.
- Bulut I (1993). Ruh sağlığının aile işlevlerine etkisi. Ankara: Başbakanlık Kadın ve Sosyal Hizmetler Müsteşarlığı Yayınları.
- Büyükikiz KK, Hasırcı S (2013). Yabanci dil olarak Türkçe'nin öğretiminde sözcük öğretimi üzerine bir değerlendirme. Mustafa Kemal University Journal of Social Sciences Institute 10(21):145-155.

Çağdaş A, Seçer Z (2004). Anne baba eğitimi, Konya: Eğitim Yayıncılık.

- Castro AJ (2010). Themes in the research on preservice teachers' views of cultural diversity implications for researching millennial preservice teachers. Educational Researcher 39(3):198-210.
- Ceka A, Murati R (2016). The role of parents in the education of children. Journal of Education and Practice 7(5):61-64.
- Ceylan, M. (2018). With parental eye, factors that prevent to attend nature activites. Educational Research and Reviews 13(24):769-776.
- Çelebi MD (2006). Türkiye'de anadili eğitimi ve yabanci dil öğretimi. Erciyes University Journal of Social Sciences (21):285-307.
- Çelenk S (2003). Ókul-Aile işbirliği ile okuduğunu anlama arasındaki ilişki. Hacettepe University Journal of Education Faculty (24):3-39.
- Chu SY, Garcia S (2014). Culturally responsive teaching efficacy beliefs of in-service special education teachers. Remedial and Special Education, 35(4):218-232.
- Cömert D, Güleç H (2004). Okulöncesi eğitim kurumlarında aile katılımının önemi: Öğretmen-aile-çocuk ve kurum. Afyon Kocatepe University Journal of Social Sciences 6(1):131-145
- Cripss K, Żyromski B (2009). Adolescents' Well-being and perceived parental involvements: Implications for parental involvement in middle schools. Research in Middle Level Education 33(4):1-13.
- Demir S, Basarir F (2013). An analysis of pre-service teachers' selfefficacy perceptions in accordance with multicultural education. International Journal of Social Science 6(1):609-641.
- Donato R, McCormick D (1994). A sociocultural perspective on language learning strategies: The role of mediation. The Modern Language Journal 78(4):453-464.
- Dörnyei Z (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. Language Teaching 31(3):117-135.
- Erdogan C, Demirkasimoglu N (2010). Ailelerin eğitim sürecine katılımına ilişkin öğretmen ve yönetici görüşleri. Educational Administration: Theory And Practice 16(3):399-431.
- Eskici M (2016). Faculty members' opinions about multiculturalism in higher education. Anthropologist 24(1):252-261.
- Garmon MA (2004). Changing preservice teachers' attitudes/beliefs about diversity: What are the critical factors?. Journal of Teacher Education 55(3):201-213.
- Garza AV, Crawford L (2005). Hegemonic multiculturalism: English immersion, ideology, and subtractive schooling. Bilingual Research Journal 29(3): 599-619.
- Genç A (2012). Türk iş dünyasının yabancı dil talebi. Hacettepe University Journal of Education Faculty 42:175-185.
- Günindi Y, Giren SY (2011). Aile kavramının değişim süreci ve okul öncesi dönemde ailenin önemi. Selçuk University Journal of Ahmet Keleşoğlu Education Faculty 31:349-361.
- Ilgar S, Topac N (2014). An investigation on the anxiety of Turkish mothers living in the USA about their children's future. American Journal of Educational Research 2(9):745-751.
- İpek C (2011). Velilerin okul tutumu ve eğitime katilim düzeyleri ile aileye bağli bazi faktörlerin ilköğretim öğrencilerinin seviye belirleme sınavları (SBS) üzerindeki etkisi. Pegem Eğitim ve Öğretim Dergisi 1(2):69-79
- Iscan A (2011). Türkçenin yabancı dil olarak önemi. International Journal Of Eurasia Social Sciences 4:29-36.
- Janssen MM, Verhulst FC, Bengi-Arslan L, Erol N, Salter CJ, Crijnen AA (2004). Comparison of self-reported emotional and behavioral

problems in Turkish immigrant, Dutch and Turkish adolescents. Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology 39(2):133-140.

- Jeynes WH (2007). The relationship between parental involvement and urban secondary school student academic achievement: A metaanalysis. Urban Education 42(1):82-110.
- Kayisili BK (2008). Akademik başarının arttırılmasında ailenin katılımı. Ankara University Faculty of Educational Sciences Journal of Special Education 9(1):69-83.
- Kocak M (2012). Almanya'da yaşayan Türklerin Türkçe dil becerileri üzerine bir inceleme. Zeitschrift für die Welt der Türken/Journal of World of Turks 4(1):303-313.
- Korkmaz CB (2016). The attainments based on language skills for a1 level in teaching Turkish as a foreign language in the context of common European framework of reference for languages. Turkish Studies -International International Periodical for the Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic-11(3):1587-1614.
- Lee JS, Bowen NK (2006). Parent involvement, cultural capital, and the achievement gap among elementary school children. American Educational Research Journal 43(2):193-218.
- Liu Q (2016). Chinese Sub-culture and parental involvement strategies: An Anthropological case study of a public school in Eastern America. Anthropologist, 25(1,2):1-16.
- Long MH (1985). A role for instruction in second language acquisition: Task-based language teaching. Modelling and Assessing Second Language Acquisition 18:77-99.
- Luchtenberg S (2002). Bilingualism and bilingual education and their relationship to citizenship from a comparative German-Australian perspective. Intercultural Education 13(1):49-61.
- Lueck CE (2010). ELL parents' perceptions matter. Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin 77(1):9-21.
- Marshall IA, Jackman G (2015). Parental involvement, student active engagement and the "secondary slump" phenomenon -evidence from a three-year study in a barbadian secondary school. International Education Studies 8(7):84-96.
- Mautone JA, Marcelle E, Tresco KE, Power TJ (2015). Assessing the quality of parent-teacher relationships for students with ADHD. Psychology in The Schools 52(2): 196-207.
- McAllister G, Irvine JJ (2000). Cross cultural competency and multicultural teacher education. Review of Educational Research 70(1):3-24.
- McNeal RJ (2014). Parent involvement, academic achievement and the role of student attitudes and behaviors as mediators. Universal Journal of Educational Research 2(8):564-576.
- Mendez JL, Westerberg D (2012). Implementation of a culturally adapted treatment to reduce barriers for latino parents. Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology 18(4):363-372.
- Mendez JL (2010). How can parents get involved in preschool? Barriers and engagement in education by ethnic minority parents of children attending head start. Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology 16(1):26-36.
- Meyer JA, Mann MB (2006). Teachers' perceptions of the benefits of home visits for early elementary children. Early Childhood Education Journal 34(1):93-97.
- Morton F (1986). Phenomenograpy- A research approach to investigating different understandings of reality. Journal of Tougth 21(3):28-49.
- Nam BH, Park DB (2014). Parent involvement: Perceptions of recent immigrant parents in a suburban school district, Minnesota. Educational Studies 40(3):310-329.
- Ndebele M (2015). Socio-economic factors affecting parents' involvement in homework: practices and perceptions from eight Johannesburg Public Primary Schools. Perspectives in Education 33(3):72-91.
- Nirun N (1994). Sistematik sosyoloji yönünden aile ve kültür, Ankara: A.K.M. Press.
- Nitecki E (2015). Integrated School-family partnerships in preschool: Building quality involvement through multidimensional relationships. School Community Journal 25(2):195-219.
- Persembe E (2010). F. Almanya'nın Baden-Württemberg Eyaletinde eğitim sistemi ve Türk göçmen çocuklarının eğitim sorunları.

Ondokuz Mayis University Review of the Faculty of Divinity 29(29):55-80.

- Phillips S (2017). Developing teacher capacity with culturally responsive classroom management practices. Graduate Theses and Dissertations. 22. http://pilotscholars.up.edu/etd/22 25.01.20017
- Quiocho AML, Daoud AM (2006). Dispelling myths about Latino parent participation in schools. The Educational Forum 70:255-267.
- Ríos F, Montecinos C (1999). Advocating Social justice and cultural affirmation: ethnically diverse preservice teachers' perspectives on multicultural education. Equity and Excellence 32(3):66-76.
- Sarıkaya HS (2014). Belçika Flaman Bölgesi eğitim sisteminde Türk kökenli çocuklarin yaşadığı temel eğitim sorunlarinin incelenmesi. Journal of Academic Social Science 2(8):246-260.
- Sen U (2016). Belçika'da yaşayan Türk Çocuklarının yazılı anlatım yanlışları üzerine tespitler/detections on erros in written expression of Turkish children living in Belgium. Mustafa Kemal University Journal of the Institute of Social Sciences 13(35):1-18.
- Sleeter CE (2001). Preparing teachers for culturally diverse schools research and the overwhelming presence of whiteness. Journal of Teacher Education 52(2):94-106.
- Smith J, Wohlstetter P, Kuzin C, De Pedro K (2011). Parent involvement in urban charter schools: New strategies for increasing participation. School Community Journal 21(1):71-92.
- Souto-Manning M, Swick KJ (2006). Teachers' beliefs about parent and family involvement: Rethinking our family involvement paradigm. Early Childhood Education Journal 34(2):187-193.
- Tao L, Taft M (2017). Effects of early home language environment on perception and production of speech. bilingualism: Language and Cognition 20(5):1030-1044.
- Unuvar P (2010). Aile katılımı çalışmalarına yönelik ebeveyn ve öğretmen görüşlerinin karşılaştırılması. Kastamonu Journal of Education 18(3):719-730.
- Unuvar P, Senemoğlu N (2010). Babaların 3-6 yaş grubu çocuklarıyla geçirdikleri zamanın niteliğini geliştirme. Pamukkale Üniversity Joural of Educational Faculty 27:55-66.
- Ural A (2012). Türk asıllı göçmenlerin Hollanda'daki temel eğitim uygulamalarina yönelik ayrımcılık algıları. Education and Science Journal 37(165):262-274.

- Waanders C, Mendez JL, Downer J (2007). Parent characteristics, economic stress, and neighborhood context as predictors of parent involvement in preschool children's education. Journal of School Psychology 45:619-636.
- Wang M, Hill NE, Hofkens T (2014). Parental involvement and African American and European American adolescents' academic, behavioral, and emotional development in secondary school. Child Development 85(6):2151-2168.
- Yagmurlu B, Sanson A (2009). Acculturation and parenting among Turkish mothers in Australia. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology 40(3):361-380.
- Yavuz G, Anil D (2010). Attitudes scale towards multicultural education for prospective teachers. Study of reliability and validity. International Conference on New Trends in Education and Their Implicationas. 11-13 November, Antalya pp. 1056-1062.
- Yıldırım A, Şimşek H (2011). Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri. Ankara: Seçkin Yayınları.
- Yilmaz MY (2014). İki dililik olgusu ve Almanya'daki Türklerin iki dilli eğitim sorunu. The Phenomenon of Bılıngualısm and the Problem of Bılıngual Education for Turkish People Living in Germany. Turkish Studies-International Periodical for the Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkis 9(3):1308-2140.
- Yingqi W (2015). A trend study of the influences of parental expectation, parental involvement, and self-efficacy on the english academic achievement of chinese eighth graders. International Education 44(2):45-68.
- Zhang C, Bennett T (2003). Facilitating the meaningful participation of culturally and linguistically diverse families in the IFSP and IEP process. Focus on Autism and Other Developmental Disabilities 18(1):51-59.
- Zhang D, Slaughter-Defoe DT (2009). Language Attitudes and heritage language maintenance among Chinese immigrant families in The USA. Language, Culture and Curriculum 22(2):77-93.

Vol. 14(6), pp. 217-227, 23 March, 2019 DOI: 10.5897/ERR2018.3653 Article Number: CF7B42160407 ISSN: 1990-3839 Copyright ©2019 Author(s) retain the copyright of this article http://www.academicjournals.org/ERR



Full Length Research Paper

# One-hand clapping: Gender equality and its challenges in pastoralist secondary education in Afar region: A quality concern

# Bekalu Tadesse Moges

Department of Professional Education, College of Social Sciences and Humanities, Samara University, Ethiopia.

#### Received 8 November, 2018; Accepted 7 December, 2018

One way of conceptualizing educational quality is that it is a function of effectiveness, efficiency, responsiveness, equality, relevance and sustainability (Barrett et al. 2006). Quality education rejects gender discrimination and social injustice. Gender equality in Ethiopia, as an anchor of guality education, has long been explained numerically. The Annual Abstracts the Ministry of Education published each year do not clearly indicate the regions' Gender Parity Index (GPI). The lack of such kind of data made it difficult to see gender parity beyond numbers. Employing concurrent mixed method design, of about 2,934 student universe, 314 populated the sample using stratified random sampling. The results showed that the gender parity index for the region for 2016 is 0.52 in favor of boys with previous indices not more than 0.6. The gender parity index set in MDGs to be eliminated for 2015 is far from achievement. Inequality to access to education is found to perpetuate further forms of inequalities like differences in the learning process, academic achievement, and post-schooling opportunities all in favor of boys and men. Boys' advantages gained early in access and learning processes transform into disproportionately greater advantages in post-school opportunities subjecting girls and women into greater inequalities. Efforts to achieve equality in life outcomes has been challenged by several factors like lack of creation of gender sensitive schools and policies, societal attitude and awareness towards schooling, child labor, domestic works, weak school laws that did not annul gender biases, and economy of the student or parents. The creation and development of gender sensitive schools with regulations that outlaw gender biases, the development and administration of gender policies, the creation of awareness on society-wide approach are some of the recommendations made.

Key words: Gender, equality, challenges.

# INTRODUCTION

The global community has long been interested in finding ways to improve access to high quality education at all

E-mail: bekalu1151@gmail.com. Tel: +251 910056616.

levels, from pre-primary through tertiary. Education is a fundamental human right – one that all individuals are entitled to enjoy whatever the circumstances in which they live – that also brings important benefits to human

Author(s) agree that this article remain permanently open access under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution</u> <u>License 4.0 International License</u> society as a whole. The level of knowledge and skills that individuals need to function as workers, citizens and fulfilled individuals in the global society is increasing. All countries, whatever their stage of development, view education as a cornerstone for economic development. An educated citizenry is also a key to social and political stability within and between nations (UNESCO, 2012).

From the outset, the global community has recognized that educating girls and women is an imperative, not only as a matter of respecting a basic human right for half the population but as a powerful and necessary first step to achieving the broader goals of education for all in general and gender equality in particular.

The education and training policy articulates that Ethiopia's education system is entangled with complex problems of relevance, quality, accessibility and equity (MoE, 1994). These problems of the education system, being interrelated, have been the focus of series of interventions and improvement for about the last two decades. Equity and equality in education, being used interchangeably in the education system, may denote absence of discrimination on the basis of any ground.

Many sociologists try providing conceptualizations of gender, the most comprehensive one of them could be contributed by Itzin and Newman (1995). By gender they mean that,

.....the socially constructed and culturally determined characteristics associated with women and men, the assumptions made about the skills and abilities of women and men based on these characteristics, the conditions in which women and men live and work, the relations that exist between women and men, and how these are represented, communicated, transmitted and maintained. It includes sexual and social relations, relations based on sexuality, and relations of power and control based on gender (p. 2).

Worldwide, it became a major outcome of the world conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien in1990, and was reconfirmed in a series of summits throughout the following decades. The World Education Forum (2000) agreed on six Education for All (EFA) goals which are considered to be achievable. Among these six goals, Goal 2 and Goal 5 pertain to equality (and quality) of education. Goal 2 states "ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good guality" and Goal 5 "eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality".

According to the Ministry of Education (MoE, 2010), women participation in education is constrained by

economic, socio-cultural, familial, personal and school factors. The economic problems relate to parents' inability to send girl children to school especially if schools are far from home or girls drop out due to lack of finances. The problem is more serious in rural areas, particularly in pastoralist regions. The traditional division of labor in homes constrains girls' success in education. School distance and harassment, feelings of discomfort to participate equally with men are stumbling blocks for female students particularly in pastoralist regions (like Afar).

The Annual Abstract of the ministry does not clearly indicate the GER and NER for the regions. The lack of such kind of data made it difficult to see the gender parity in the region. Thus, this paper will find out the equality of education in secondary schools in Afar Region. To this end, it measures equality of access proxied by gender parity and estimates whether there is equality of participation in the learning process, equality of outcomes and equality of external results.

# Statement of the problem

Based on school effectiveness and improvement model, Barrett et al. (2006) conceptualize educational quality as a function of effectiveness, efficiency, responsiveness, equality, relevance and sustainability. In efforts to analyze equality in education systems worldwide, one prominent sect stands out: gender equality.

Quality education requires gender-sensitive use of human resources, and consideration of gender in the allocation of finances. Quality education entails a concern to include the views of all members of a community – boys and girls, men and women, taking context into account. Gender equality, therefore, is a sine qua non of quality education. A quality education rejects gender discrimination and social injustice. Quality education cannot be achieved without gender equality and equity (Aikman and Unterhalter, 2005).

However, gender equality or sometimes called parity, in Ethiopian education system has long been explained using gender parity index, a numerical concept. Millennium Development Goals stated as "eliminate gender disparity in primary, secondary and tertiary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015" have been measured by this index. The statistics however show that it is not likely that this target will be met. Some countries have actually witnessed a worsening of the situation (Siegel, 2005; Unterhalter, 2005). While there are encouraging moves towards increased parity in some countries, in many others, including Ethiopia, the gap in favor of boys is wide (Unterhalter, 2005). UNICEF estimates that across all developing countries the gender gap is 10 percentage points (UNICEF, 2003).



Figure 1. Modified dynamic framework for gender equality in education.

In fact, meaningful gender equality explanations go beyond numbers to consider socially constructed views of gender in a given natural setting. Full gender equality would imply that girls and boys are offered the same chances to school and that they enjoy teaching methods and curricula free of stereotypes and counseling unaffected by gender bias. It also implies equality of outcomes in terms of length of schooling learning achievement and academic qualifications and more broadly equal job opportunities and earnings for similar qualifications and experience (UNESCO, 2003).

Drawing on UNESCO (2003)'s framework of conceptualizing gender equality, this study would measure gender equality in secondary pastoralist education of Afar region, together with pinpointing challenges in the process of promoting gender equality. The achievement of full gender equality in education would imply (1) equality of opportunities, measured in gender parity index and teachers' attitudes towards equality in schools (2) equality in the learning process, measured by students' participation in learning activities, group work and club leadership, curricula, decision making, and use of school resources; (3) equality of outcomes, measured by academic achievement, length of school careers, academic qualifications and diplomas would not differ by gender; (4) equality of external results, in terms of earnings of men and women with similar qualifications and experience.

Besides, tackling gender disparities in all these

processes in secondary school is not without challenges. Thus, what would these challenges actually be in our context is also central to the study. To this end, the paper examines gender equality and its challenges under the following framework (Figure 1).

# **Research questions**

The study assesses the gender equality of secondary education in Afar region by raising the following research questions:

1. What is the status of gender parity for secondary schools in Afar region?

2. How are gender differences explained in the learning process (treatment), learning outcomes (academic achievement), and external results explained in Afar secondary schools?

3. What are the challenges faced in the efforts to achieving gender equality in Afar region secondary schools?

# Gender equality in education

The lack of a universally accepted definition of gender equality in educational goals makes measuring progress towards its achievement hard if not impossible (Subrahmanian, 2005). Though Aikman and Unterhalter (2005) argue that "its precise meaning in relation to education is often unclear", gender equality, in this context, refers to the right to access and participate in education, as well as to benefit from gender sensitive educational environments, processes and achievements, while obtaining meaningful education outcomes that link education benefits with social and economic life (UNESCO, 2016).

Gender parity, a purely numerical concept, implies that the same proportion of boys and girls – relative to their respective age groups – would enter the education system and participate in its different cycles. It reflects 'formal' equality, in terms of access to education. 'Formal' equality can also be understood as equality that is 'premised on the notion of the 'sameness' of men and women, where the male actor is held to be the norm (Subrahmanian, 2005).

However, this measure is a narrow indicator. One is that the gross enrollment ratio can sometimes be more than 100% if there are large numbers of under-age and over-age pupils in school. Besides, it only gives us a picture of the number of children on the school register. In addition, because in many countries children's births are not registered, net enrollment rate is often based on estimations (Unterhalter et al., 2005). Secondly, gender parity on its own cannot tell us much about gender equality in relation to accessing education, progressing through school, and living in a gender-equitable society after school (UNESCO, 2003). Thirdly, ender parity is inadequate measures of gender equality, because it does not acknowledge context (UNESCO, 2011).

If not closely examined, the indicator might also lead to interpretation problem in reporting progress. A GPI between 0.97 and 1.03 is considered as reflecting gender parity. Movement of GPI towards 1 could reflect rapidly increasing enrollment of girls, thus catching up with boys, whose enrollment rates are either staying the same, increasing slowly or declining. On the other hand, movement of GPI towards 1 could reflect declining enrollments, with boys' enrollment declining much more rapidly than girls' enrollment (Subrahmanian, 2005).

The second measure of gender equality is the genderrelated EFA index (GEI), developed by UNESCO as an attempt to indicate the extent to which boys and girls are equally present at different levels in the education system (primary, secondary, and adult education). It is the arithmetical mean of the Gender Parity Indices for the primary and secondary gross enrollment ratios and the adult literacy rates. However, a country can have a GEI of 1, indicating complete equality between boys and girls, but still have low rates of access, retention, and achievement for girls and boys.

A third indicator, Education Development Index (EDI) is an attempt to bring together information on access, quality, and the gender gap. The index aggregates such indicators as universal primary education (net enrollment ratio), adult literacy (literacy rate of the group aged 15 and over), gender (gender-specific EFA index) and progression (survival rate to grade 5). The index primarily considers gender in relation to access and not achievement (Unterhalter et al., 2005).

However, Reeves and Baden (2000) argue that the focus on what is sometimes called formal equality, does not necessarily demand or ensure equality of outcomes. It assumes that once the barriers to participation are removed, there is a level playing field. It does not recognize that women's reality and experience may be different from men's.

A more broader and contextual view of equality is substantive equality: equality in life outcomes. A move towards substantive gender equality thus requires recognizing that discrimination arises from differential valuation of what it is men and women contribute, giving rise, therefore, to differential investments in rewards, and resources for, women and men (Subrahmanian, 2005). In order to achieve equality of life outcomes, institutional arrangements, strategies, policies and should be designed. These are collectively referred as equity strategies. They range from affirmative action, through the development of gender sensitive policies, strategies and administrative units to deliver implementation outcomes, to organizational arrangements that allow positive discrimination.

Gender equity is, therefore, the means to achieve equality. Equity programs favor treating women and men differently in order to achieve the equal status of women and men. Such programs are based on the premise that if women and men were treated the same way (equally) there would be a risk of reaching unfair outcomes due to original disparities (UNESCO, 1999).

The development and implementation of equity strategies or programs, however, require an analysis of social and cultural relations and the opportunity for dialogue, debate, and the exploration of differences, particularly with regard to the public–private interface. Only in-depth analysis paves the way for the development equity strategies instrumental for the removal of deeply embedded obstacles and structures of power and exclusion, such as discriminatory laws, customs, practices, and institutional processes, all of which undermine opportunities and outcomes in education (Unterhalter, 2005).

In sum, gender equality is not a number game as the disparities start early, legitimized through the social structure, and run deep. Thus, gender equality studies involving quantitative data might show high levels of gender equality in access and progression, but qualitative findings must enhance understanding of gender related variables that hamper or promote the achievement of full gender equality in education. It is insights from qualitative accounts that isolate effectiveness of gender equity strategies (if any), challenges faced in promoting equality in schools together with other society-context realities, requiring natural and holistic approaches to study.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Design of the study

This study employs parallel mixed methods design since it allows explanation of alternative perspectives that would have been missed if either qualitative or quantitative designs were used alone. In this design, the two types of data are collected at the same time and analyzed concurrently (Mertens, 2010; Creswell, 2009, 2014). In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data are collected to see the equality of gender in access to schooling, equality of the learning process, equality of the learning outcomes, and equality of the external results gained from schooling in the context of Afar region secondary schools.

#### Population and sample size

The population for this sample is the universe of government secondary students and teachers in secondary school in Afar region. High schools from seven weredas in the region are selected randomly. These are Awash, Abala, Hadelala, Chifra, Gewanie, Milie and Addaar. Based on report written by the Afar Regional Education Bureau 2009, the number of students is 2,934. The appropriate sample size for this population is 314 (at  $\alpha$  = .05). Thus, students who filled the questionnaire were selected using stratified random sampling. Teachers who participated in FGDs were selected purposively to get rich information.

#### Materials (Instruments of data collection)

In this study, three data gathering methods are used. These are questionnaires, FGDs, and documents analysis. Two sets of questionnaires, one for teachers and principals and the other for students, were developed to explain equality of participation in access to schooling, the learning process, equality of outcomes and equality of external results.

#### Measures

Gender Parity Index (GPI) is a known measure of gender equality of access to schooling. It is the proportion of enrollment of girls to boys. A value of less than one indicates differences in favor of boys, whereas a value near one indicates that parity has been more or less achieved.

With the same train of thought, equality in the learning process, learning outcomes, and in external results is estimated by dividing mean of each variable of girls for boys, following the same way of interpretation as gender parity index.

#### Methods of data analysis

In this study, the data collected are described quantitatively as well as qualitatively using descriptions, categories and themes. More specifically, teachers' qualification is described in percentage to see if it demonstrates gender equality of the school staff composition (UNESCO, 2003). To see if boys and girls, men and women have disparities in the learning process, academic achievement, and external results proxied by salary, ratio of the mean is calculated for an ideal index of one, alike that of enrollment. On the other strand of analysis, the raw data from FGDs, documents and reports are organized using coding, categorizing and building themes.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Gender equality implies that males and females have equal opportunities to realize their full human rights and contribute to and benefit from economic, social, cultural, and political development (USAID, 2008). Full gender equality in education would imply that girls and boys are offered the same chances to go to school and that they enjoy teaching methods and curricula free of stereotypes, and academic orientation and counseling unaffected by gender bias. Most fundamentally, it implies equality of outcomes in terms of length of schooling, learning achievement and academic qualifications and, more broadly, equal job opportunities and earnings for similar qualifications and experience (UNESCO, 2004). This discussion examines gender equality in afar pastoralist secondary schools from access to qualification and earnings.

#### Equality of access to schooling

Among these six Millennium Development Goals, Goals 2 and 5 pertain to equality in quality education: "Goal 2. Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality". The other goal specifies the time frame and area of gender equality: equality of access and achievement (learning outcomes) to quality schooling. Goal 5 aims to "eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality".

Figure 2 shows that that while the enrollment was on a steady rise for both, it evidences widening in the gap in later years. The gender gap between boys and girls seemto grow constantly which indicates the reinforcement of gender disparities in the region than closing the gap.

Figure 3 shows that GPI is decreasing for later years. This is due to steady increase in boys' enrollment which is not accompanied by similar increases in girls' own. The difference is widening because more boys enroll to schools than girls for grades 9-10. Though it is on increasing trend, because of small increases, gender parity is not yet achieved. The year for the achievement of gender parity is long gone, 2005. For an education system a GPI between 0.97 and 1.03 is considered as



Figure 2. Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) for Grades 9-10. Source: Ministry of Education Annual Abstracts (2000-2015).



Figure 3. Gender Parity Index taking GER for Grades 9-10. Source: Ministry of Education Annual Abstracts; 2000-2015).

reflecting gender parity. The region, after 13 years of the year for parity (2005) is still 48% behind for grades 9-10. This implies that almost half of the girls who should have got access to secondary education (grade 9-10) are out of school. Thus, the number of boys almost doubles that of girls.

#### Equality in the learning process

Research has it that male students tended to have more teacher-student interaction opportunities in both elementary and junior high schools. Male students responded to teacher-initiated questions more by being called on or by calling out. There are a few female students who raised their hands for being called on by teachers. Also they did not take the opportunities for responses by calling out before teachers' pointing to them as male students did (Jung and Chung, 2005).

Thus, equality in the learning process can be viewed in terms of learner participation, decision making and distribution of learning resources among boys and girls. It is found that participation shows a gender difference of 0.61 in favor of boys (the ratio of participation score of girls which is 2152 to boys which is 3525). Likewise, decision making in school affairs shows a gender parity of 0.66 in favor of boys (the ratio of decision making score of girls which is 1025 to boys which is 1546).



**Figure 4.** Grade 10 score on national exam. Source: Education Statistics Annual Abstract, MoE (2016).

The equitable distribution of teaching learning material for boys and girls can also be a measure of equality. A similar gender difference appears with 0.65 in favor of boys (the ratio of teaching learning materials score of girls which is 520 to boys which is 789, N=150 males and 150 females).

# Equality of learning outcomes

Studies indicate that one area of gender disparity is academic achievement, in almost all cases in favor of boys. Eddy et al. (2014) compared academic achievement of boys and girls using data from 23 large introductory biology classes. They found that females consistently underperform on exams compared with males with similar overall college grade point averages.

Students' academic score published on Annual Abstracts (MoE, 2016) for grade 10 show a similar disparity among boys and girls. Boys scored a higher mean consistently over the years indicating the gender difference is kept unaltered, with no equity strategies in action. Despite keeping this gender difference, the scores across years show both increases at some time and decreases at other times. By all means, boys appear to score higher than girls (Figure 4).

National Learning Assessments (MoE, 2012) were also considered to determine gender disparity in academic achievement. It shows that Grade 10 girls in most subjects score consistently lower than boys, except physics. On average, girls score three points lower than boys, with the largest difference in math (4.8 points).

However, students' average scores on teacher made tests in sample schools indicate that girls perform better

than boys in all subjects (boys mean = 61.7 (N=260); girls mean 63.4 (N=262). Girls and boys achieve very different outcomes in school, not just in overall performance but also by subject. UNESCO (2016) identifies significant subject-based gender inequalities in learning achievements. Male students have performed better in mathematics (Figure 5) while female students perform better in reading and writing.

In sum, research shows inconsistent results on gendered achievement differences. This could be the problem of aggregating the scores and the dependability of scores as a measure. Nikel and Lowe (2010) argue that students' achievement entails a restricted interpretation. Hanushek and Wubmann (2007) raise threats of validity and reliability of tests arguing that test scores are prone to considerable measurement error because of substantial errors in each test. Thus, as learning is all about behavioral change, which is qualitative, approaches that give more dependable interpretation, shall be researched.

# Equality of external results

Equality of external results is achieved when the status of men and women; their access to goods and resources; and their ability to contribute to, participate in, and benefit from economic, social, cultural, and political activities are equal. This implies that career opportunities, the time needed to secure employment after leaving full-time education, and the earnings of men and women with similar qualifications and experience are equal. While there is no guarantee that outcomes will be the same for those with the same level of education, ideally, equality in



Figure 5. Gender difference in Academic achievement. Grade 10 NLA: Afar region. Source: MoE (2012).

the educational process "unlocks equal opportunities for men and women post-schooling" (UNESCO, 2005)

Gender gaps are evident among farmers, entrepreneurs, and employees alike. Because of genderspecific constraints, female workers tend to have lower output and income. Schooling *per se* does not guarantee equality in the world of work. Gender stereotypes and streaming in education can reinforce occupational segregation; significant educational achievements have not closed significant gender gaps in the workforce.

Researchers have studied participation of female residents in scientific and vocational education and careers, underlying reasons for inequalities. Joseph (1998) found that girls who wished to participate in science, technology, engineering and math activities and careers were actively discouraged by teachers and harassed by male classmates. They also found that most parents felt that gender inequality in science, technology, and engineering and math activities as "inevitable".

In the sampled weredas, it is difficult to collect data for statistical test because of the fewer number of teachers in these schools. Male teachers dominate the schools. Of 63 teachers, only 14 (22%) are females. However, monthly income shows great disparity in the schools: 0.77 in favor of male teachers' salaries. Thus, the fewer number of female teachers reinforces inequitable resources and income within the school system. Thus, schools in these weredas are not girls friendly and maintain a male-dominated culture.

One indicator potentially important for gendered outcomes in schooling is the proportion of primary-school teachers who are females: "Countries, with roughly equal proportions of male and female primary teachers, also tend to have rough equality in primary school intake between boys and girls" (UNESCO, 2003:60). There is evidence that teachers' attitudes and perceptions reveal harmful biases, teachers' expectations are different for boys and girls and teacher-pupil interactions perpetuate differences (UNESCO, 2007). Thus, there is strong suggestive evidence that moves towards equalizing gender balance among teachers will promote gender parity.

In Afar region, 78% of the teachers are men and only 22% are women, showing a gender difference of 50%. Female teachers in such secondary schools in this pastoralist region are about three times lower than male teachers. Besides, 84% of first degree qualifications in these schools are males while 16% are females. Of diploma holders, 61% are male teachers and 30% are females. This tells us that school system shows differences in favor of men both in gualifications and also (female teachers underrepresentation beina represented). The number of female teaching staff still remains under-represented in almost all levels of the education system (MoE, 2010).

# Challenges to achieving gender equality

It is no doubt the realization of gender equality within the education system has multiple, complex and interrelated challenges that are breathtaking. Trying to address all the challenges faced with adequate depth will be beyond the scope of this research. However, as the paper tries to see gender equality in its entirety in the school context, mentioning some of the challenges as viewed by those making the struggle will be proper.

Challenges are many, deep rooted, and interrelated, which call for series of studies. For this paper, one of the most critical challenges is the absence of gendersensitive policy throughout the education system. This has kept the disparity inertia long established to run deeper than being tackled. The Education and training policy only contains the phrase "gender issues" at once. Strategy for gender equity in education and training sector (MoE, 2013) sets equity strategies like targeted and systematic expansion of schools to the rural and disadvantaged, alternative modalities, mobilizing the community, addressing severe socio-economic hindrances, systematizing subsidies and preferential resources for vulnerable and girls from poor households, gender responsive pedagogy, among others.

However, effective strategies capture the voices of the disadvantaged. They must be grounded within social and contextual realities. Besides, it does not address the strategic and practical gender needs. To Moser (2003), practical gender needs are concerns with immediate day-to-day requirements like food, water, and shelter while strategic gender interests are concerns with challenging the deeply entrenched forms of gender discrimination in the legal system, sexual violence in the family, the lack of political representation, and discrimination in the workplace.

Moreover, gender responsive pedagogy is not even part of teacher training programs. "Gender responsive pedagogy will be part of teacher education programs in higher learning institutions and teacher education colleges as part of pre-service and continuous professional development" (MoE, 2013) is not practical yet. Finally, there are no administrative arrangements organized at all levels of the system to manage gendered interests. This has created schools where gender disparities are reinforced rather than creating gender sensitive schools which can be models for other social institutions on gender equality.

The other challenge is the economics of schooling and enrollment. Most girls could not put themselves in school as they have no money to support their lives. Such harsh economic circumstances leave parents unwilling or unable to financially support their daughters' education.

Besides, school location is key to access. Girls in remote areas are left alone because of long school distance, affecting more girls than boys, increasing the probability of dangers like sexual harassment. Location prevented girls from accessing educational opportunities, including: geographic barriers and difficulties of physical access, which influence female students more than males. The absence of gender responsive pedagogy trainings for teachers, lack of effort to establish gender sensitive or girl's friendly schools on the part of the wereda are some of the challenges.

Moreover, cultural beliefs and practices that favor boys and adversely affect the opportunities afforded to girls; child labor, with laborious domestic work with poor feeding and sexual harassment. Besides carrying the burden of domestic activities, girls could also be a breadwinner for their families.

In line with such a belief lies on "son preferencing" – the attitude that parents choose to give birth to sons, and

give their sons, than girls, greater power in decisions at home and also send boys to schools than girls. It is, therefore, essential to take societal and empowerment approaches from home to school to achieve full gender equality in education. "Countries in which there is strong cultural preference for sons also tend to have the greatest gender inequalities" UNESCO, 2003:18).

Long-held negative attitudes about women's intellectual capabilities, poor management of sexual maturation, teenage pregnancy, and traditional division of household labor also are among the deeply embedded challenges that impede achieving gender equality in education.

# Conclusion

Gender Inequality has continued to negatively affect female participation on every dimension of development. Setting and pursuing developmental goals without addressing one of its anchors – gender disparity- is like driving cart with two unequal wheels: one bigger and the other smaller. Would the cart move forward? No. It rotates in a limited circle.

Equality of access between boys and girls to schooling is not yet achieved: the region, after 13 years of the year for parity (2005) in MDGs is still 28% behind for grades 9-10, even if this numeric measure is not a sufficient condition to explain equality. As the GPI for the region is 0.52 in favor of boys, it means that 48% of girls are out of school if we assume that all boys are in schools. It is also known that female teachers are under-represented in schools. This led the school to develop male dominated culture where inequalities are reinforced. The learning process also tends to have been favored for boys than girls in terms of participation, distribution of teaching learning resources, and decision making in the school system. Girls seem to perform as well as or lower than boys but different by subject though national exam score aggregates still reflect disparity in favor of boys. Lastly, post-schooling job earnings for teachers in high school indicate differences implying that most school systems are not girls-friendly, thereby reinforcing an already established deeply engrained gender stereotyping. The challenges faced include economy, location, child labor, domestic work, absence of gender responsive pedagogy trainings, lack of effort to establish gender sensitive or girls friendly schools, son-preferrencing and the social beliefs that have long been established would not allow the effort to narrow the gaps. Thus, gender equality in Afar secondary education is far from closing the gap if not more severe than ever. The advantages gained by boys starting at the level of access, keep momentum in transforming into disproportionately greater advantages in the process and outcomes of schooling, putting girls into greater disadvantages. The education system has ignored the notion of equality beyond parity, the

development and administration of gender policies that halt the existing stereotype. It considers parity as a sufficient measure of equality without looking into the limitations associated with it.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

The ministry of education should establish administrative measures, at all levels, for schools and office administrators including parents to together to attract more girls to the school ensure that at least equality of access to enrollment is achieved. This can be done by creating gender sensitive schools.

Gender strategies pertaining to teacher training programs are loose. Gender related courses are not included in higher education and teacher education colleges as part of the academic qualification. Weak gender responsive pedagogy has heightened the gender inequity (MoE, 2010). Thus, making gender responsive pedagogy part of teacher education programs in higher learning institutions and teacher education colleges as part of pre-service and continuous professional development programs is crucial.

Addressing gender issues should begin with a gender-awareness approach, rather than focusing on simple measurement of equality of access to schooling (GPI), which challenges traditional assumptions about female teachers, their place in the home, society and the teaching profession. Schools could become gender sensitive and the existing power structure shall be altered to better reflect women's practical and strategic needs.

Improving monetary and non-monetary incentives, offering more flexible schedules and accommodations, offering local recruitment and training and other more friendly environments, and codifying rules and regulation that outlaw inequalities to bring more female teachers to schools, to school leadership positions, and facilitate the creation of gender sensitive schools call for stakeholders' attention. Schools shall be created in a way their environment supports the development of every learner.

Future research should focus on ensuring gender equality, not only for learners but also for teachers and education administrators. The research community should design approaches to reveal deeply embedded gender inequalities that go beyond numerical aggregations.

# **CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

#### REFERENCES

Aikman S, Unterhalter E (2005). Introduction. In: Aikman S, & Unterhalter E, eds. Beyond Access: Transforming Policy and Practice for Gender Equality in Education, Oxford: Oxfam GB. pp. 1-12.

- Barrett A, Chawla-Duggan R, Lowe J, Nikel J, Ukpo E (2006). The Concept of quality in education: A review of the 'international' literature on the concept of quality of education. EdQual Working Papers 3. Retrieved on Sept 20, 2011 from: http://www.edqual.org/governmentations/workingpaper/edqualwp3.pd f
- Creswell JW (2014). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed methods approaches. (4<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Eddy S, Brownell S, Wenderoth M (2014). Gender Gaps in Achievement and Participation in Multiple Introductory Biology Classrooms. *CBE*—Life Sciences Education 13:478-492.
- Hanushek EA, Wobmann L (2007). The Role of Education Quality in Economic Growth. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 4122.
- Itzin C, Newman J (1995). Gender, Culture and Organizational Change: Putting Theory into Practice. New York: Taylor and Francis Group.
- Joseph P (1998). Difficulties Faced by Girls in the Study of Science, Mathematics and Technology Subjects: Findings of the Female Education in Mathematics and Science in Africa (FEMSA) project. Connect: UNESCO International Science, Technology & Environmental Education Newsletter 23(3):1–3.
- Jung K, Chung H (2005). Gender Equality in Classroom Instruction: Introducing Gender Training for Teachers in the Republic of Korea. Thailand: UNESCO Publishing.
- Mertens D (2010). Research and Evaluation in Education and Psychology: Integrating Diversity with Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Methods. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). London: SAGE Publication.
- Ministry of Education (MoE) (2010). Education Sector Development Program IV (ESDP IV). Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education (MoE) (2013). Strategy for gender equality in the education and training sector. Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education (MoE) (2016). Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2014/15. Addis Ababa, Ministry of Education, EMIS.
- Ministry of Education (MoE) (2012). Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2011-12. Addis Ababa, Ministry of Education, EMIS.
- Ministry of Education (MoE) (1994). Education and Training Policy. Addis Ababa: St. George Printing Press.
- Moser C (2003). Gender planning and development: Theory, practice and training. New York: Taylor and Francis.
- Nikel J, Lowe J (2010). Talking of a fabric: A multi-dimensional model of quality education. Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education 40(5):589-605. Retrieved on Sept 23, 2011 from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03057920902909477
- Siegel E (2005). The gender gap and growth: Measures, models and the unexplained.
- Subrahmanian R (2005). Gender equality in education: Definitions and measurements. International Journal of Educational Development 25:395-407.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2016). Gender inequality in learning achievement in primary education: What can TERCE tell us? Paris: UNESCO. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000244349
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2005). 'Scaling up' good practices in girls' education. Paris: UNESCO. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000142240
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (1999). Guidelines for Gender neutral language. Paris, UNESCO. UNESCO.

https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000114950

- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2003). EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4: Gender and Education for All –The Leap to Equality. Paris: UNESCO. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000132513
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2004). Education for All: The Quality Imperative. Fontenoy: UNESCO Publishing. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000137333
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2007). Education for All: Strong foundations: Early

childhood care and education. Fontenoy: UNESCO Publishing. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000147794

- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2011). Gender Equality in Education: Looking beyond Parity: An IIEP Evidence-Based Policy Forum UNESCO-IIEP. Paris: UNESCO. https://genderpolicyforum.files.wordpress.com
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2012). World Atlas of Gender Equality in Education. Paris: UNESCO Publishing. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000215522
- Unterhalter E (2005). Fragmented frameworks? Researching women, gender, education, and development. In Aikman S, Unterhalter E, eds. Beyond Access: Transforming Policy and Practice for Gender Equality in Education 1-12. Oxford: Oxfam GB.
- Unterhalter E, Challender C, Rajagopalan R (2005). Measuring gender equality in education. In Aikman S, Unterhalter E, eds. Beyond Access: Transforming Policy and Practice for Gender Equality in Education 1-12. Oxford: Oxfam GB.
- United States Agency for International Development (USAID) (2008). Gender equality framework. Management Systems International. http://www.ungei.org/index\_1925.html

Vol. 14(6), pp. 228-239, 23 March, 2019 DOI: 10.5897/ERR2018.3694 Article Number: F8740E660484 ISSN: 1990-3839 Copyright ©2019 Author(s) retain the copyright of this article http://www.academicjournals.org/ERR



Full Length Research Paper

# The effect of daily sight reading studies of the guitar students on sight reading and guitar performance

# Ajda Aylin CAN

Department of Music Teacher Education/Fine Arts, Atatürk Faculty of Education, Marmara University, Istanbul, Turkey.

#### Received 22 January, 2019; Accepted 18 March, 2019

This study was conducted to analyze the effects of regular sight reading studies of classical guitar students on their sight reading and their performance of classical guitar. In the research, experimental method was used with a pretest-posttest control and experimental group. The application process was carried out with 14 undergraduate students studying Music and Fine Arts Education Department from Marmara University. In the study groups, 7 students from the individual instrument training course made up the experimental group (n=7) and another 7 students from the individual instrument training made up the control group (n=7). Data were collected using "The Guitar Performance Grading Scale" and "The Sight Reading Performance Evaluation Scale". The study included a 10-week experimental process. The process was carried out within 1 week of pretest evaluations by a jury of experts, 8 weeks of individual guitar enstrument training performed by the researcher and 1 week of posttest evaluations by the jury. The data obtained was analyzed after the application and interpreted by statistical techniques. In the application that was done with the groups to analyze the influence of a regular sight reading practice upon sight reading skills, a significant difference was found between the experimental and control group posttest "Sight Reading Performance Evaluation Scale" scores in favor of the experimental group. In the other application done to analyze the influence of a regular sight reading practice upon classical guitar performance, a significant difference was found between experimental and control group in favor of experimental group "Guitar Performance Grading Scale" posttest scores. According to the findings, it has been concluded that the education given to the experimental group in the research positively influenced and improved the sight reading skills and classical guitar performances of the students; thus, various suggestions were given on the subject.

Key words: Instrument training, classical guitar education, sight reading, performance.

# INTRODUCTION

Instrument training, which is the development of musical behaviour, the changing of musical behavior and the

process of musical behaviour, is necessary to achieve their goals and objectives musically (Uçan, 1997).

E-mail: acan@marmara.edu.tr

Author(s) agree that this article remain permanently open access under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution</u> <u>License 4.0 International License</u> "During individual instrument training, the main objectives are to train the students to play the instruments with the correct technique, to adjust the training time in a way to increase efficiency, to comprehend the musical cultures through instruments and to improve their musical skills" (Parasız, 2019: 19). The anticipated studies to acquire musical skills in instrument training often include performance-oriented skills and performance is expressed as a natural process or as a result of the practicing how to play the instrument. Considering that one of the basic tools of performing is the instrument, the instrumentperformance relationship becomes even closer. Ucan (1997) emphasizes that when it comes to playing, music making and playing in this context, the concepts such as playing-singing-managing, voiceover/interpretation, composition, improvisation, are always associated with the connection of instrument and performance.

"Performance is generally a concept that determines the quantitative or qualitative results obtained as a result of a purposeful and planned activity" (Nursoy and Şimşek, 2001: 16). However, this definition may differ according to the characteristics of the disciplines. "Musical performance is an activity that requires high level motor skills and coordination, attention and memory, aesthetics, as well as interpretation skills in various ranges" (Nalbantoğlu, 2007: 68). The cognitive and affective accumulations as well as motor skills of an individual are expressed and reflected in the work to be performed, by combining the necessary technical structure with interpretive features.

However, at this point, the difference between performance and playing actions used in general music activities should not be forgotten. "Performance should be considered as a formal concept that shows expertise compared to 'playing' activity commonly used in general activities. Performance is an action that requires playing in every situation and a person can succeed in playing without a very successful performance" (Godlovitch, 1998: 13).

The performance experience usually comprises situations such as performance-oriented courses, exams, concerts, etc. According to the statements on communication provided by musical performance, "music is likened to a language, whereas performance is likened to a speech" (Godlovitch, 1998: 42). The student learns the rules of playing on stage, controlling the stage fright, sharing the music with others and communicating with the audience musically by presenting the performance which is the product of the individual work in front of the audience (Cimen, 2008).

Ensuring effective and developed performance experiences are closely related to the training process in which performance-oriented skills are transformed into behaviours.

The topics related to giving and developing a successful musical performance bring about a lot of research in this

area, especially the training and teaching strategies (Gabrielsson, 1999; Godlovitch, 1998; Ericsson and Lehmann, 1996; Lehmann and McArthur, 2002). Gabrielsson (1999) states that music performance constitutes a large area of study and he grouped the studies in this area under the headings of performance planning, examining various aspects of performance (sight reading, improvisation, feedback, motor skills, measurement, model and so on), examining factors affecting performance (physical, psychological and social) and performance evaluation.

The basis of a successful performance is the planning phase of the training process of the program to be performed, and this is important. Planned studies are effective in ensuring efficient work and reaching the intended goal as soon as possible (Demirel, 2005). Therefore, a careful and accurate planning formed by determining the purpose of the study without ignoring the situations that may arise from individual differences can be considered as the first step in achieving the goal. It is important to identify the parts that cause distress in the work piece, determine the source of the problems, and study the neccesary pieces until the problem is eliminated; in other words, it is important to use problem solving skills. In his study, Özmentes (2008) states that the learning tactics of the students in instrument training, before the performance, affect the cognitive and cognitive methods of engaging together and the skills pursued with this association provide the effectiveness of reaching a master player.

Gabrielsson (1999) states that after making the necessary plans to assimilate and perform the song to be played, working until reaching a decent level and performance planning becomes related to one another. He divided the last step of the process to mental-physical studies, memorization and repetition. The performance experience provides the opportunity for the performer to evaluate both himself and his environment; thus, evaluating the degree of maturity achieved by the individual in his instrument (Duruer, 2017). According to Krampe and Ericsson (1995), planned study is a highly structured activity to improve some aspects of performance for the identified goal and during the process, it is necessary to observe the deficiencies of the performance carefully; and studies aimed at the development of the identified deficiencies are required.

Another important issue in a successful performance is regular training habits. Özmenteş (2004) stated that insufficient and unconscious studying, irregular studying, long-term but inefficient studying habits are among the problems that students encounter in the process of instrument training; stating that it is imperative to guard these students against such habits, in order to achieve the aims of instrument education. Regular studying habits in order to better evaluate and repeat the process can provide the opportunity to create the necessary behavioural characteristics for the student to use their time efficiently. Detection of the deficiencies observed during the performance or the parts that need to be improved can lead to new planning and guidance on situations that may cause nuisance.

In the experimental study conducted on piano students for the effective use of time, Pirgon (2013), found that students who studied regularly and daily during the piano playing process, which he expressed as a mental and physical activity, was more successful. When it comes to the relation between performance and practice process, effective use of instrument training process is one of the remarkable points. Therefore, daily studying habits as well as the aspects that should be included in the daily studying process are important. The study is based on the improvement of technical and musical expression. considering individual differences, studies on sight feedback, improvisation, reading. motor skills, measurement methods-data collection analyses (time, dynamic, tempo, structure, perceptual effects, targets and similar areas), psychological-social factors, physical characteristics (stress, hearing disorders, mental problems), and similar performance-related issues. In his research, Sarıkaya (2018), splits his study in three sections, including sight reading, practicing and memorizing. He emphasized that the problems that might arise in the working processes that are not carried out accordingly may cause anxiety.

In the daily study process, students are expected to gain skills that will contribute to the improvement of their performance by evaluating themselves and create solution suggestions for the problems they may face. Fenmen (1997), a renowned pianist and piano teacher, states that the excessive time of daily studying causes exhaustion and does not provide enough benefit. He divided daily studying into 4 sections that are working on the technique, working on new works, developing a studied piece, sight reading to recognize music literature, and states that sight reading is important because it helps students improve by advancing their literature knowledge, culture and vision, and points out the importance of not evaluating it as a wasted time.

Described as the reading, playing or singing of a musical writing for the first time, the sight reading instrument is defined as a skill that is required to be included in the studying process, which needs to be developed and that all musicians should have (Çimen, 2001; Fenmen, 1997; Kopiez and Lee, 2006. Wolf (1976) states that two different skills should be included on the basis of sight reading, which he defines as a very complex process, and he explaines the first of these skills as reading skills and the second as mechanical skills. Fenmen (1997) divides sight reading into two, the first of which is to slowly read through notes, and the second one to be close to the original tempo of the work and reading as well as explaining character and expression.

He states that a good note reading should allow the eye to read ahead of the played measure. Sight reading lessons contribute to the development of skills, supporting the performance of the training process. "Sight reading offers rich possibilities such as creating a wider repertoire, getting to know the pieces more closely, as well as technical, style and comment development" (Nart, 2010: 21).

Many studies agree that sight reading is a skill that can be developed through learning. Çimen (2001) states that a systematic and daily study to be carried out within the program would improve the ability to sight read.

The most fundamental principle to be taken into account in sight reading studies is that students should be conscious about not playing songs above their sight reading capacities. The first goal of the student in developing the sight reading skills should definitely not be velocity, it must be correct and smooth playing without mistakes (Deutsch, 1959). In the beginning, it is important to implement the work in more general rules than very rigid and strict rules.

In sight reading studies, student's equipment should be taken into consideration. The correct note, rhythm and tempo playing, musicality, technical behaviors and other features behind sight reading skills should be meticulously placed in a planned and programmed training process. It is important for the student to be able to transfer the harmony, musical structure, musical hearing and writing as well as similar musical equipment to the sight reading process (Özer, 2010). It is necessary to gain cognitive behavior in sight reading studies and gain psychomotor skills by converting these behaviors to performance (Ergin, 2015). In the study, which examined the effects of metacognitive self-regulation on awareness, attitude and performance in guitar education, according to the metacognitive self-regulation, the pre-test and post-test scores of the guitar education student group performed with the guitar education are as follows: it was determined that there was an increase in the general attitude scores, there was a significant difference between the average performance of the sight reading general performance scores, and the awareness of regulation on making pre-sight reading strategies, implementing strategies during sight reading in addition to implementing the practice of post-sight reading.

Considering that performance is the result or product of instrument training, it can be said that the training of sight reading, expressed as one of the preliminary stages of performance education, constitutes an important education area which should be given in instrument education. Sever (2017) states in his study that examines the perceptions of musicians about music performance and sub-skill areas that musicians think that in sight reading, the study-learning skills is the key to a good study. The training of sight reading which requires regular working discipline, as well as in-class practices, extracurricular practices and planning. Considering the changes that may arise from the individual differences of the instruments during planning, a necessary and valuable approach in terms of effective use of time which includes the process of sight reading education may be constituted.

One of the areas where sight reading education becomes important is the classical guitar education. The classical guitar is a musical instrument which first became popular as an accompaniment instrument, and in time, it stared to attract the attention of many composers and musicians, and it later came into prominence as a solo instrument. Today, due to having a rich repertoire, it is being taught in many undergraduate education institutions. Conservatories, fine arts faculties, music teacher training institutions are the institutions where classical guitar education is widely used in instrument education.

Classical guitar is a tool that allows playing a piece in different positions through its features. The notes, sequences, games and chords in a classical guitar piece can be played in many positions. Many music instructors consider the range of the classical guitar sound as an advantage (Halvaşi, 1999; Elmas, 2003). The ability of the instrument to produce different sound types, the possibility to accompany the works and similar aspects provide advantages of use, but can also lead to sight reading difficulties. In terms of basic actions such as right and left hand harmony of classical guitar, accurate and clean play, technical actions such as right-left hand technique and serial position transitions, musicalityinterpretation behaviors such as dynamics and similar features, involves a long, intensive and difficult working process in the acquisition of skills. For this reason, it is very important to plan the sight reading training for classical guitar and the extracurricular studies should not be ignored in this planning. It was observed that classical guitar sight reading studies are carried out as the playing of a work which has not been seen before, and extracurricular activities not included are (Küçükosmanoğlu, 2014; Türkmen, 2008).

Instrumental characteristics and individual differences may require different approaches to sight reading studies, except for some basic principles. One of the main reasons why the factors involved in sight reading skills cannot be generalized for all musicians is attributed to the fact that the instruments provide different technical conditions for musicians (Wolf at al., 2018). It is possible to see the differences of this approach in sources such as sight reading studies for different instruments. Daily sight reading studies prepared specifically for classical guitar can be considered valuable in terms of effective use of time and efficiency at this point. With such planning, students can be approached with an attitude that is suitable for their guitar technique and music levels, that is correcting and improving their deficiencies; relieving towards the difficulties they may encounter throughtout the process. Students may be encouraged to be competent in solving the problems they may face by considering their internal and external motivational interactions.

It is known that students studying in classical guitar various performance education institutions face processes. This process is particularly important for students who study at undergraduate education institutions and who will be experts in their fields when they graduate. Students are faced with performance in various exams, concerts, competitions and similar events during their guitar life. Considering the range of guitar literature, it is thought that the sight reading skill, which enable the recognition of more works, can contribute to the performance level of the students with the help of daily sight reading studies, which can be realized as a result of planning; this serves as the difference of classical guitar. From this point of view, a training consisting of daily sight reading studies to the students who received classical guitar education was planned. The research asks two questions: does daily sight reading studies in classical guitar education have an effect on students' guitar sight reading levels? does daily sight reading studies have an effect on the guitar performance levels of the students?

# **Research objective**

The research aimed to test whether regular sight reading studies have an effect on guitar sight reading skills and guitar performances. The following hypotheses were formed.

The hypotheses were developed in order to test the effect of daily sight reading studies on guitar sight reading skills:

(1) There is no significant difference between the experimental and control group pretest "sight reading performance evaluation scale" (SRPES) scores.

(2) There is no significant difference between the control group pretest and posttest SRPES scores.

(3) There is a significant difference between the experimental group pretest and posttest SRPES scores.

(4) There was a significant difference between the experimental and control group posttest SRPES scores in favor of the experimental group.

The hypotheses were developed in order to test the effect of daily sight reading studies on guitar performance:

(1) There is no significant difference between the experimental and control group pretest "guitar performance grading scale" (GPGS) scores.

(2) There is no significant difference between the control

group pretest and posttest GPGS scores.

(3) There is a significant difference between the pretest and posttest GPGS scores of the experimental group.
(4) There was a significant difference between the experimental and control group posttest GPGS scores in favor of the experimental group.

#### The importance of the research

In the study, it is thought that the application process to determine the effect of daily sight reading pieces that will be given for classical guitar students to study sight reading regularly and the effects of the students on sight reading and guitar performances is considered to be important. There is no special planning for sight reading in instrument training courses. As in many similar institutions, students try to develop their sight reading skills by playing the different parts they have never played or want to play owing to their teachers' or their own initiatives. It is thought that this situation may cause problems and misperceptions when the students play a work that exceeds their levels or is below their levels. Kilic (2016) found that music teacher candidates had difficulty in subjects related to electronic piano lesson. In a similar study, Umuzdaş (2017) examined the sight reading skills of music education students. Umuzdaş stated that students considered rhythm as a pressure in the process of sight reading and emphasized the fact that although sight reading is the key concept in piano education, it is generally ignored. It is important to develop sight reading skills by taking into consideration the characteristics of the student's equipment and instrument. Instrument education has a wide range of literature. Students' sight reading parts should support their performance processes. For this reason, it is important to select pieces in guitar literature that are appropriate to students levels and contribute to their progress in order to develop sight reading skills. In this study, it will be necessary to utilize the special sightreading books created for classical guitar and to study the sight reading works in a systematic way in instrument education. It can be said that this study also may contribute to the field in terms of increasing the number of instructional materials related to sight reading that is not enough in the field.

#### METHODOLOGY

#### **Research design**

Experimental method was used in this research. Experimental and control groups, depending on a pretest-posttest model, formed the research design. Experimental research methods in the field of social sciences are generally used in hypothesis testing and measurement of the effects of different programs and applications (Karakuş and Başıbüyük, 2011: 187). Pre-test posttest control

group model was used in order to test if students' sight reading lessons had an effect on sight reading skills and performances. Accordingly, after the stage of establishing the control and experimental groups in accordance with the pre-test data of the scales used in the research, the researcher explained the scope of the research collectively to the experimental group students and the students were given preliminary information, including how to do sight reading studies. To ensure regular sight reading practices, the students in the experimental group were given a sight reading schedule to be played in 2 weeks. The students were given a weekly sight reading schedule prepared by the researcher in order to check whether the students made them regularly. The students completed the schedule on a daily basis after the sight reading they made each day. After submitting the completed table to the researcher at the beginning of the week, they received new sight reading studies and a new chart. The researcher gave individual instrument training course with the control group and the experimental group students at the beginning of the experimental process. In these courses, only individual instrument courses were made with the students and no training was given to the experimental group. The design of the research was formed in this direction.

#### Study group

The study group was carried out with 14 undergraduate students studying at Fine Arts Education, Department of Music Education of Ataturk, Faculty of Education, Marmara University. The study group comprised classical guitar students of individual instrument training course during the fall semester of 2015-2016 academic years. Before the application process, the works played for the performance evaluation of the students were scored using GPGS and SRPES. Unrelated group t-test was used to determine whether the groups were equal. As a result of the scores obtained, 7 students were assigned to the experiment group (n=7) and 7 students were assigned to the control group (n=7).

Table 1 shows that the avarage SRPES total pre-test scores of the experimental group is =13.80, standard deviation is sd=2.74; the average total pre-test scores of the control group achievement test is =13.44 and standard deviation is sd=3.44. The average GPGS total pre-test scores of the experimental group is =37.21, standard deviation is sd=7.88, average total pre-test scores of the control group achievement test is =37.48, and standard deviation is sd=7.71 dir.

Table 2 shows that there was no significant difference between the sight reading performance pre-test scores of the experiment and control groups students (t:0.215; p:0.834). There was no statistically significant difference between performance pre-test point averages of the experiment and control groups students (t: -0.064; p:0.950).

#### Study and application process

The research included an experimental process that lasted for 10 weeks. The process was carried out within the scope of the pre-test evaluations carried out by the expert jury for 1 week, individual guitar instrument training conducted by the researcher himself for 8 weeks and the final test conducted by the expert jury for 1 week. The students of the experimental group performed a regular sight reading studies of individual instrument classes. The weekly sight reading charts given to the experimental group for the regular processing of these studies were collected by the researcher.

The pre-test and post-test evaluations were carried out by a jury composed of 4 guitar teachers and the researcher who has given

**Table 1.** The groups' sight reading performance evaluation scale and guitar performance grading scale pre-test scores' descriptive values of groups.

Scale	Groups	n	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	Ss
SRPES	Experiment	7	13.80	2.74
	Control	7	13.44	3.44
GPGS	Experiment	7	37.21	7.88
	Control	7	37.48	7.71

Table 2. Unrelated group t-test results of experiment and control group sight reading performance and guitar performance pre-test results.

Measurement	n	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Sd	t value	P value
Sight reading experiment	7	13.80	2.74	10	0.015	0.924
Sight reading control	7	13.44	3.44	12	0.215	0.034
Guitat experiment	7	37.21	7.88	10	0.004	0.050
Guitar control	7	37.48	7.71	12	-0.064	0.950

guitar courses in the music education undergraduate programs. The jury members include three assistant professors and a lecturer. Before starting the application process, one work and one étude were determined, considering the opinions of 6 classical guitar educators who are experts in the field of guitar education in music education undergraduate programs. In the selection of the works, attention was paid to the levels of the students who formed the study group and the fact that the pieces have not been played before. Partial and technical features of the pieces belonging to different periods were featured. In the selection of the students' levels, Esim Can's work titled "Miniatür 5 from Colombia to Sweden" and Francisco Tarrega's etude titled "Estudio de Velocidad" were evaulated as the appropriate pieces for the study process. These parts were not included in the repertoire of the undergraduate guitar program and therefore have not been previously played by the students. In the selection of the resources to be used for the training of the sight reading pieces, which was planned to be given to the experimental group to sight read, the opinion was taken from the same 6 expert guitar teachers, including the researcher who was previously used in the selection of the parts. It was understood that the most suitable sight reading works were included in Robert Benetict's guitar sight reading books and Benedict's two books were chosen as the source. These are prefered because the books in question are presented with a regular and systematic approach to reading the notes, analyzing the positions to be played on the guitar, rhythm, interpretation, dynamic, expression, and many other technical and musical works. The same two sight reading boks for SRPES were used in the selection of the sight reading pieces for the pre-test and post-test applications. Two sight reading parts were determined for the pre-test and posttest evaluation: Robert Benedict's (1985a) "Sight Reading for the Classical Guitar" (Level 1-3) No: 64 and 73 for the pre-test and Robert Benedict's (1985b) "Sight Reading for the Classical Guitar" (Level 4-5) No: 58 and 60 for the post-test were selected.

Before starting the study, 1 etude and 1 work were selected for the performance evaluation and the students were asked to examine the given pieces for 10 days. At the end of the tenth day, the given pieces were played in the first pre-test evaluation with two sight reading pieces for the second pre-test. Preliminary tests and evaluations were made by the evaluation jury consisting of 3 experts and the researcher who is a lecturer in guitar education.

Before the beginning of the sight reading training with the experimental group, a verbal informative meeting was held, explaining the details and contents to the whole study group. In the meeting, starting with the definition of sight reading, a presentation was made about the topics including the basic steps, methods, materials to be used, performance-sight reading relationship and similar explanations. It was aimed to draw attention to the basic points that should be given importance in order to improve the sight reading ability. Statements supported by the studies regarding the literature were on the effects of internal balance of a person, the effects of emotional tensions on the performance of sight reading, and the ability to observe themselves objectively.

In the application process, individual instrument guitar lessons were carried out once a week for 8 weeks with the experimental and control group. In the undergraduate education, one work and one etude were studied considering the opinions of the 6 guitar teachers who gave guitar lessons. In this process, unlike the control group, the experimental group was given sight reading pieces weekly, which are intended to be included in the 8-week process from the sight reading books used as resources in order to perform regular sight reading studies.

The works to be played by the experimental group students in the 8-week application process were ranked among them, from the lowest to the highest. The samples given for daily additional sight reading studies were selected from technical, musical and rhythm studies. Form knowledge, theory, interval studies, rhythm samples, dynamics and similar subjects that will strengthen musical aspects were formed in a way to support the sight reading techniques.

In the last week of the research, the posttest application of the experimental and control groups was done. The pieces that were played in the pretest application of the research were followed by the same expert jury in the posttest application and were scored using the GPGS. Posttest sight reading parts were scored using

Table 3. Independent group t-test results of experimental and control group sight reading performance pretest results.

Measurement	n	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Sd	t value	P value
Sight reading experimental	7	13.80	2.74	10	0.015	0.024
Sight reading control	7	13.44	3.44	12	0.215	0.634

Table 4. Dependent group t-test results of control group sight reading performance pretest-posttest comparison results.

Measurement	n	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Sd	t value	P value
Sight reading pretest	7	13.44	3.44	0	-10.73	0.000
Sight reading posttest	7	17.71	3.19	0		

SRPES.

#### Data collection tools

"Guitar Performance Grading Scale" and "Sight Reading Performance Evaluation Scale" were used to collect data.

#### Guitar performance grading scale

GPGS which was developed by Akçay (2011) was used, in order to evaluate students in the guitar instrument education. The scale for product and process evaluation consisted of a total of 15 items in three sub-dimensions which were "Basic Actions", "Technical Actions" and "Musical Impact and Interpretation". The scope and construct validity of the scale were found to be acceptable. The internal consistency test results to determine the consistency of the scale were in the ranged 0.81 - 0.86. The Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was calculated to be 0.84. The interrater reliability test and the Kendall's W coefficient were determined to be 0. The results indicated might be said to be appropriate for use in the performance evaluation of the scale.

#### Sight reading performance evaluation scale

In this study, SRPES, developed to adapt guitar by Uyan (2012), was used. The scale was adapted from the "Piano Rubrics" to the guitar, which was developed by Kaynak (2011) in order to evaluate the test performance of the piano students more systematically, and was converted to the "Sight Reading Performance Evaluation Scale". Consisting of nine criteria, SRPES is a rubric scale with four likert type scoring. According to the results of the analysis from the reliability test, The Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of the scale, which had sufficient scope and structure validity was calculated to be 0.95. This result indicated that the use of the scale is acceptable.

#### Data analysis

In order to test whether the obtained data showed normal distribution characteristics, a one-sample colomogorov-smirnov test was applied. Since the scales used in the research showed normal distribution characteristics, parametric techniques were used in the analysis of the data. In this study, unrelated group t-test was used

for pretest and control group pre-test and post-test pretest-posttest evaluations were used for pre-test and control groups.

#### FINDINGS

# Test for the effect of daily sight reading studies on the guitar sight reading skills:

From the hypothesis test, "there is no significant difference between the experimental and control group pretest SRPES scores." The results of the independent group t-test performed for the significance of the difference between the pretest mean scores of the experimental and control group sight reading performances are shown in Table 3. As shown in Table 3, there is no significant difference between the sight reading performance pretest scores of the experimental and control group students (t:0.215; p:0.834).

From the hypothesis test, "there is no significant difference between the control group pretest and posttest SRPES scores." The results of the dependent group ttest performed for the significance of the difference between the pretest-posttest mean scores of the control group sight reading performances are shown in Table 4. As shown in Table 4, a statistically significant difference in favor of the posttest was found in the sight reading performance pretest-posttest scores of the students in the control group (t:-10.73; p:0.000).

From the hypothesis test, "there is a significant difference between the experimental group pretest and posttest SRPES scores." The results of the dependent group t-test performed for the significance of the difference between the pretest-posttest mean scores of the experimental group sight reading performances are shown in Table 5. As shown in Table 5, a statistically significant difference in favor of the posttest was found in the sight reading performance pretest-posttest scores of the students in the experimental group (t:-23.20; p:0.000).

From the hypothesis test, "there is a significant

Table 5. Dependent group t-test results of experimental group sight reading performance pretest-posttest comparison results.

Measurement	n	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Sd	t value	P value
Sight reading pretest	7	13.80	2.74	c	22.20	0.000
Sight reading posttest	7	31.21	3.26	0	-23.20	

Table 6. Independent group t-test results of experimental and control group sight reading performance posttest results.

Measurement	n	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Sd	t value	P value
Sight reading experimental	7	31.21	3.26	40	7.04	0.000
Sight reading control	7	17.71	3.19	12	7.81	0.000

Table 7. Independent group t-test results of experimental and control group guitar performance pretest results.

Measurement	n	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Sd	t value	P value
Guitar experimental	7	37.21	7.88	12	-0.064	0.950
Guitar control	7	37.48	7.71			

Table 8. Dependent group t-test results of control group guitar performance pretest-posttest comparison results.

Measurement	n	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Sd	t value	P value
Guitar pretest	7	37.48	7.71	6	-9.26	0000
Guitar posttest	7	64.51	4.76	0		

difference between the experimental and control group posttest SRPES scores." The results of the independent group t-test performed for the significance of the difference between the posttest mean scores of the experimental and control group sight reading performances are shown in Table 6. As shown in Table 6, a statistically significant difference in favor of the experimental group was found in the sight reading performance pretest-posttest scores of the students in the experimental and control groups.

# Test for the effect of daily sight reading studies on the guitar performance scores

From the hypothesis test, "there is no significant difference between the experimental and control group pretest GPGS scores." The results of the independent group t-test performed for the significance of the difference between the pretest mean scores of experimental and control group guitar performance are shown in Table 7. As shown in Table 7, there is no significant difference between the sight reading performance pretest scores of the experimental and control group students (t: -0.064; p:0.950).

From the hypothesis test, "there is no significant difference between the control group pretest and posttest GPGS scores." The results of the independent group t-test performed for the significance of the difference between the pretest-posttest mean scores of control group guitar performance are shown in Table 8. As shown in Table 8, a statistically significant difference in favor of the posttest was found in the guitar performance pretest-posttest scores of the students in the control group (t:-9.26; p:0.000).

From the hypothesis test, "there is a significant difference between the pretest and posttest GPGS scores of the experimental group." The results of the dependent group t-test performed for the significance of the difference between the pretest-posttest mean scores of the experimental group guitar performances are shown in Table 9. As shown in Table 9, a statistically significant difference in favor of the posttest was found in the guitar performance pretest-posttest scores of the students in the experimental group (t:-19.22; p:0.000).

From the hypothesis test, "there is a significant

 Table 9. Dependent group t-test results of experimental group guitar performance pretest-posttest comparison results.

Measurement	n	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Sd	t value	P value
Guitar pretest	7	37.21	7.88	e	10.22	0.000
Guitar posttest	7	82.48	2.64	0	-19.22	0.000

Table 10. Independent group t-test results of experimental and control group guitar performance posttest results.

Measurement	n	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Sd	t value	P value
Guitar experimental	7	82.48	2.64	40	8.71	0.000
Guitar control	7	64.51	4.76	12		0.000

difference between the experimental and control group posttest GPGS scores." The results of the independent group t-test performed for the significance of the difference between the posttest mean scores of the experimental and control group guitar performances are shown in Table 10. As shown in Table 10, a statistically significant difference in favor of the experimental group was found in the guitar performance pretest-posttest scores of the students in the experimental and control groups (t:8.71; p:0.000).

# DISCUSSION

It was established that there was no significant difference between the SRPES pretest scores of the groups. This situation shows that both groups were the same in terms of sight reading skill levels at the initial stage of application. "the researchers wanted everything between the experimental group and the control group to be equal" (Altunışık et al., 2010). Therefore, it is important that the values between the groups do not make a significant difference in the creation of the working groups required to test the effect of regular sight reading studies on the perfection of guitar sight reading. Thus, it may be possible to determine the effect of regular sight reading studies on the guitar performance scores. This situation can also be considered as one of the necessary stages in terms of objectivity of the application process.

A significant difference was found between the control group pretest and post test SRPES scores in favor of the control group in the present study. Although there is no definitive judgment about how this difference occurs, it is a known fact that the measurements made at different times in instrument performance differ from each other. In this respect, it can be said that the performance of the instrument can change momentarily depending on some difficulties. In this study, due to the nature of performance, it is thought that the reasons arising from the instant measurement may affect this result. In addition, the opinion of the researcher and the evaluating raters is that the control group does not observe a visible and sustained change in the sight reading skills. The main point to be taken into consideration in the present hypothesis is the difference between the final test deciphering skills of the experimental and control groups. When the results of the research are examined, it is considered important that the difference between the sight reading skills of the groups is in favor of the experimental group in terms of meaningfulness.

In the research, a significant difference was found between experimental group pretest and posttest SRPES scores. According to this result, it can be said that regular sight reading studies given to the guitar students in the individual instrument education course which formed the experimental group positively affected and improved the students' sight reading skills. In the experimental study by Küpana (2011), on the effectiveness of the piano sight reading program for music-teacher candidates, a significant increase in the level of piano skills among the experimental group teacher candidates who had sight reading training was discovered. The contribution of sight reading lessons to sight reading performance makes it important to consider them as a part of instrument training courses. In the study by Türkmen (2008), which was related to sight reading levels of the music teacher candidates, it was stated that the music teacher candidates could include the activities outside the course. In a similar study by Kücükosmanoğlu (2014), in which the opinions of the guitar students studying in the music teaching undergraduate program were taken. It was determined that sight reading lessons were included in the individual instrument training class, but these lessons were conducted partially. The development of the sight reading level is ensured by regular trainings. It is important to note that regular sight reading lessons have a positive impact on sight reading performance.

In the study, a significant difference was found between the experimental and control group posttest SRPES scores in favor of the experimental group. It is thought that this progress in the sight reading performance of the experimental group was significant for the study to be meaningful. In the experimental study by Dalkıran (2011), to determine the mistakes of violin students when sight reading a work and to reveal whether sight reading education develop sight reading skill, it was concluded that the sight reading can be developed in favor of the experiment group with a systematical and continuous study. In a study by Kurtuldu (2015), on the association of learning styles and sight reading skills, it was found that there was a linear relationship between the success of the piano course students and their sight reading skills. Individual instrument training course is one of the basic courses related to the sight reading education. This situation suggests that during the research process, the difference in the control group with ongoing guitar courses should not be ignored; also, the result can be evaluated as a reflection of the accumulation obtained during the application period, which lasts 1 school term. In the experimental study by Özer (2010) on sight reading skill achievements in piano education, it was determined that the education which was conducted with specifically developed regular sight reading lessons for piano sight reading by the experimental group improved their sight reading skills. The results of the study are thought to be similar to the results of this study. It is important for the sources used in the sight reading education to be instrument specific, in order to gain the skills of the instrument. In a study by Öztutgan (2018) on the method to develop guitar sight reading, it was determined that guitar sight reading methods were not used in sight reading education, and was expressed as a skill that can be developed by a great majority of educators. Sight reading methods developed for the classical guitar should be considered as resources that allows both curricular and extracurricular planned and systematical daily sight reading practices regarding the ways that can make up students' deficiencies with numerous daily sight reading pieces and study stages about technical and musical subjects. It is thought to be an example that supports this idea in terms of the use of the daily guitar sight reading books in the application process of the study, in which a favourable progress is obtained. Students often try to sight read the works above their levels. Beginning and advancing step-by-step with sight reading lessons below students' levels is a point to be taken into consideration in an accurate and rigorous study process.

Babacan (2014) analyzed music teacher candidates in the study of piano educatiom. Babacan reached the conclusion that music teacher candidates practiced the studying principles before and through the sight reading process in a weak way. At this point, it can be said that regular sight reading studies contain an important application area in the adaptation of the principles that make up the sight reading phase. In his study, where he presented the basic points of sight reading and its rough aspects, Richman (1986) states that when studying a work, the need to think and analyse comes up and therefore the sight reading piece is played better.

In this study, it was determined that there was no significant difference between the experimental and control group pretest GPGS scores. This situation shows that the groups are equal to each other. It is another required reason to start practicing that the guitar performances of the groups which have similar values before they start to practice in terms of sight reading skill levels are the same. Thus, it may be possible to determine the effect of regular sight reading studies on guitar performance.

In this study, a significant difference was found between the control group pretest and posttest GPGS. According to this result, it can be said that within the process, the maintenance of the education given to the guitar students in the individual instrument education course for the control group positively affected and improved the students' guitar performance. The study included a total of 10 weeks, divided into two weeks of pre-test and post-test evaluations. Considering the fact that a semester in the institution where the application is carried out includes 14 and 4 weeks of this process consist of students' class registiration, midterm and final exams weeks, end-of-term concerts and similar activities, it can be considered that the remaining 10 weeks constitute a process that can be considered as half a semester. Therefore, it may be possible for the guitar students in the control group to show differences between the performance pre-test and post-test evaluations of the individual instrument training course during the application. Since the same works were given to the experimental and control groups during the application process, it is thought that the control group differs. Education, in the simplest terms, is expressed as a process of creating a change in behavior to achieve the goal set for a certain purpose (Ertürk, 1972). Individual instrument training courses, just like every other course, consist of educational situations that serve to realize the goals that are considered appropriate for the students gain. The new information obtained during the individual instrument course process can provide additional equipment to students in this aspect of the sight reading studies, which are carried out in the form of revision and revision of the information that is needed. In the study by Odabas (2018), it was found that there was a positive relationship between the skills of sight reading and harmony and piano successes. In the part in which the effects of regular sight reading studies on sight reading performance are tested, results that might be caused by similar reasons are encountered.

In the study, it was observed that there was a significant difference between the experimental group pretest and posttest GPGS. In this case, it is seen that guitar training has a positive effect on students' performance. In the present study, a significant difference was found between the experimental and control group posttest GPGS scores in favor of the experimental group. According to this result, guitar performance posttest score average of the guitar students during individual instrument training course who comprised the experimental group is higher than those from the control group. This means the experimental group students were positively influenced; thus, their improved their sight reading skills improved. This result can be interpreted as a positive relationship between instrument training and sight reading skills.

In the experimental study by Can (2016), conducted on undergraduate guitar students to analyse the effect of daily work program in classical guitar education, daily work programs were created for students and students were asked to apply for the program and to observe themselves. From the study, it was seen that sight reading and performance levels of the students who applied the daily work program developed in a positive way. The contributions of sight reading studies to the sight reading performance of guitar can enable students reflect on their behavior positively on the areas connected to their musical equipment. In the study on sight reading skills of music students by Önder (2014), it was determined that self-efficacy perceptions and attitudes of sight reading skills were higher in vocational music students who took time to develop their sight reading skills in their extracurricular personal trainings. The sight reading skills developed by regular sight reading lessons provide experience in converting behaviors into performance. It is thought that this study, which is carried out with regular sight reading studies during the implementation process, can provide experience for performing. In the study by Üstün (2018) conducted on individual instrument flute students, it was determined that sight reading education performed with curricular and extracurricular lessons in terms of performance, has a positive effect on students' motivation for exams and course success, and on the motivation of the students. This study, which indicates that the sight reading education has a positive effect on the students' performance, is similar to the results of the study. In studies examined, the sight reading skill is expressed by many educators and musicians as an important area to be included in the process of study (Fenmen, 1997; Richman, 1986). A conscious study and evaluation process is important at the core of successful performance. For this reason, pre-performance and postperformance processes are also important for performance. Pre-performance process is important in terms of creating environments to provide performance experience; whereas evaluating the performance moment is important in terms of determining the points that are considered necessary after performance, and planning the process. In the experimental study by Yokuş (2010),

which was conducted on guitar students, it was found that the metacognitive awareness level had a positive effect on the performance success of the students in guitar education. It has been thought that the sight reading process should be well planned since it is a neccesity and is an important part of pre-performance process. In a study, Zhujov (2014) underlined that sight reading education is one of the principles in undergraduate music institutions and examined the strategies that advanced pianists make when sight reading. The findings of the study showed that the institutions providing undergraduate education emphasize the need for new approaches in the development of sight reading cirriculums.

# SUGGESTIONS

To generalize this result, others are encouraged to carry out new researches on sight reading, with this research as a start point. This study, which was done on undergraduate guitar students, can be of value in different levels with different working groups. At this point, it is advisable to include regular sight reading lessons in instrument training and to apply such lessons, using specific resources developed for sight reading and to write books for sight reading. Since sight reading is usually done on the initiative of the student and the teacher, it may be advisable to include sight reading training in the instrument training course programs.

# **CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

#### REFERENCES

- Akçay ŞÖ (2011). A study of developing performance scale in guitar education. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Atatürk University, Educational Sciences Institute, Erzurum.
- Altunışık R, Coşkun R, Bayraktaroğlu S, Yıldırım E (2010). Research methods in social sciences. (6th ed.). İstanbul: Sakarya Publishing.
- Babacan E (2014). Evaluation of individual study methods of music teacher candidtes in piano education process. Journal of Art Education 2(1):1-16.
- Benedict R (1985a). Sight reading for the classical guitar levels 1 to 3. Van Nuys: Alfred Publishing.
- Benedict R (1985b). Sight reading for the classical guitar levels 4 and 5. Van Nuys: Alfred Publishing.
- Can ÜK (2016). Effects of daily studying schedule on the instrument studying behavior guitar deciphering and performance of students in classic guitar education. Education and science 41(185):235-250.
- Çimen G (2001). Approaches towards sight reading education for piano. Gazi University Institute of Science and Technology Journal 14(2):445-452.
- Çimen G (2008). Preparation process to play in a concert. Kastamonu University, Kastamonu Education Journal 16(1):297-302.
- Dalkıran EH (2011). Sight reading skills in violin training. Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversity Journal of Social Sciences Institute 3(4):54-63.

- Demirel Ö (2005). The art of teaching (8th ed.). Ankara: Pegem Publishing.
- Deutsch L (1959). Piano: guided sight-reading. Chicago: Nelson-Hall Company Publisher.
- Duruer GA (2017). The function of performance experience in instrumental training. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Dokuz Eylül University, Educational Sciences Institute, İzmir.
- Elmas Y (2003). Guitar by questions, (2nd ed.). İstanbul: Pan Publishing.
- Ergin E (2015). The effect of guitar instruction with reference to metacognitive self phases on sight playing performance awareness and attitude. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Abant İzzet Baysal University Educational Sciences Institute. Bolu.
- Ericsson KA, Lehmann, AC (1996). Expert and axceptional performance: Evidence of Maximal Adaptation to Task Constraints, Annal review of psychology 47:273-305.
- Ertürk S (1972). Curriculum development in education, Ankara: Hacettepe Üniversity Publishing House.
- Fenmen M (1997). Musician's handbook, Ankara: Müzik Ansiklopedisi Publishing.
- Gabrielsson A (1999). The performance of music. In D Deutsch, (Eds), The psychology of music (2nd ed.). San Diego: Academic Press. pp. 501-602.
- Godlovitch S (1998). Musical Performance: a philosophical study. (1.th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Halvaşi AA (1999). Classical guitar in the musical education of our country. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Marmara University Institute of Science and Technology, İstanbul.
- Karakuş Ö, Başıbüyük Ö (2011). Experimental and non-experimental research methods. In K Böke, (Eds.), Research Methods in Social Sciences, 3rd. Edition (pp.186-230). İstanbul: Alfa Publishing.
- Kaynak T (2011). Assess with rubric of the student's performance in the mid-term piano exams. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Gazi University Educational Sciences Institute, Ankara.
- Kılıç DBÇ (2016). Opinions of pre-service music teachers' towards electronic keyboard education. Journal of Research in Education and Teaching 5(3):354-359.
- Kopiez R, Lee JI (2006). Towards a dynamic model of skills involved in sight reading music. Music Education Research 8(1):97-120. doi.org/10.1080/14613800600570785
- Krampe RT, Ericsson KA (1995). Deliberate practice and elite musical performance. In J Rink, (Eds), The Practice of Studies in Musical Interpretation. (pp. 84-102). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Kurtuldu MK (2015). A comparison of learning styles and sight-reading abilities of piano students, Mersin University Journal of the Faculty of Education 11(3):593-602. doi: 10. 10.17860/efd.64924
- Küçükosmanoğlu HO (2014). The views of n.e.ü. a.k.e.f. music education departments classical guitar students about individual instrument (classical guitar) education. Journal of Research in Education and teaching 3(1):133-140.
- Küpana MN (2011). Testing the effectiveness of teaching piano sight reading program developed for music teacher candidates. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Marmara University Educational Sciences Institute, İstanbul.
- Lehmann AC, McArthur V (2002). Sight-Reading. In R Parncutt, GE McPherson, (Eds.), The science and psychology of music performance: Creative strategies for teaching and learning, (pp,135-150). NewYork: Oxford University Press.
- Nalbantoğlu E (2007). A Study of some factors effecting strings students performance and of measurement and evaluation methods. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Marmara University Educational Sciences Institute, İstanbul.
- Nart SD (2010). An Experimental leaching method for sight singing education. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Gazi University Educational Sciences Institute, Ankara.
- Nursoy M, Şimşek M, (2001). Performance evaluation in total quality management. Standard: Economic and Technical Journal 40(473):16-21.

- Odabaş E (2018). The correlation between piano and harmony lesson grades and the effect of harmony lesson success on sight reading ability of music education graduates. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Karadeniz Technical University Educational Sciences Institute, Trabzon.
- Önder Y (2014). Attitudes and self-sufficiency perceptions of the university students of professional music education about sight reading abilities. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Marmara University Educational Sciences Institute, İstanbul.
- Özer B (2010). Acquisition of sight reading in teaching piano. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Selçuk Üniversity Educational Sciences Institute, Konya.
- Özmenteş S (2004). The problems faced by the Anatolian Fine Arts High School Music Department students in the process of practicing their instruments and suggestions. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Dokuz Eylül Üniversity Educational Sciences Institute, İzmir.
- Özmenteş S (2008). Self-regulated learning strategies in instrument education. İnönü Üniversity Journal of the Faculty of Education 9(16):157-175.
- Öztutgan K Varış YA (2018). Opinions of guitar teachers and studentsr related to sight reading. The Journal of Academic Social Science 6(78):412-435.
- Parasız G (2009). A study towards determining contemporary Turkish music works which are used in educational music centered violin teaching. Atatürk Üniversity Journal of Fine Arts 0(15):19-24.
- Pirgon Y (2013). The Effect of daily works on student succes in piano education. Journal of Research in Education and Teaching 2(3):41-49.
- Richman H (1986). Super sight-reading secrets. (3rd ed.). California: Sound Feelings Publishing.
- Sarıkaya M (2018). Prediction of musical performance anxiety according to music student teachers' beliefs on perfectionism and self-efficacy. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Necmettin Erbakan University Educational Sciences Institute, Konya.
- Sever G (2017). The perceptions of musicians on sub-skills of musical performance. Turkish Studies Educational Science 12(17):371-396. doi: 10.7827/TurkishStudies.11847
- Türkmen N (2008). A Study based on the levels of sight reading in piano of music teacher candidates. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Gazi University Educational Sciences Institute, Ankara.
- Uçan A (1997). Music Education. (2nd.ed.). Ankara: Müzik Ansiklopedisi Publishing.
- Umuzdaş MS (2017). Sight-singing skills of music education students at the electronic organ class. International Congress of Eurasian Social Sciences 8(28):CCXLIV-CCLIII. http://www.ijoess.com/Makaleler/1360608126\_17-%20CCXLIV-CCLIII%20-%20M.%20Serkan%20Umuzda%C5%9F.pdf
- Uyan MO (2012). The effect of prelistening on the sight reading
- performance of undergraduate guitar students. Gazi University Educational Sciences Institute, Ankara.
- Üstün E (2018). The effect of sight reading on flute course auccess anxiety and internal motivation. Turkish Studies Educational Science13(19):1883-1806.
- Wolf T (1976). A cognitive model of musical sightr reading. Journal of Psycholinguistic Research 5(2):143-171.
- Wolfs ZG, Boshuizen HPA, Van Strien JLH (2018). The role of positional knowledge and tonal approaches in cellists' sight- reading. Musica Scientiae the Journal of the European Society for the Cognitive Sciences of Music 13(1):1-18.
- Yokuş T (2010). Impact of metacognition on guitar performance achievement. Marmara University Journal of Educational Sciences 31(31):161-175.
- Zhujov K (2014). Exploring advanced piano students' approackes to sight- reading. International Journal of Music Education 32(4):487-498.

# **Related Journals:**



www.academicjournals.org