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Full Length Research Paper

Policy initiatives for improving the contributions of university agricultural education and extension institutions to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture

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This study determined policy initiatives for improving the contributions of university agricultural education and extension institutions to environmental and sustainable development (ESD) in agriculture. The study was carried out in Cross River State. Survey research design was adopted for the study. The population for the study of 534, comprising 195 registered farmers who have continuously participated in ADP farmer field school training from the State; 70 graduate extension personnel; 167 final year agriculture students and 102 lecturers. Agricultural education programme in the Universities in Cross River State was used for the study. The study adopted a triangulation technique involving mixed methods of data collection. Both instruments were face validated by three experts in the field of agriculture with a reliability coefficient of 0.83 obtained through Cronbach alpha reliability method. Data collected were analyzed using mean, standard deviation and independent t-test statistic. The study identified (17) policy initiatives that could improve the contributions of agricultural education and extension institutions to ESD in agriculture in Cross River State. It was recommended among others that the identified policy initiatives should be integrated into university agricultural education and extension institutions and properly implemented.

Key words: Policy, initiatives, improvement, agricultural education, environmental and sustainable development.

INTRODUCTION

Agricultural education and training program provides ideal environment for the impartation of quality knowledge and skills in various fields of agriculture. Agricultural education, according to Osinem (2005), is a process of imparting agricultural knowledge, skills and attitudes to learners for the purpose of expanding agricultural activities. The author explains that the discipline involves imparting various skills in agriculture to
learners in primary, secondary, colleges of agriculture and universities. In the opinion of Olaitan (2017), agricultural education is a programme of study developed for providing the learner with pedagogical and technical skills to enable the individual teach relevant aspects of agriculture to learners in a specific level of education such as primary, secondary or tertiary levels. The author explained that the programme is organized in such a way that the technical skills acquired through this programme can help the individual become self-employed in relevant areas of production agriculture. In the context of this study, agricultural education refers to a programme of study developed for providing teaching and technical skills to students and farmers to become responsive to wise use of natural resources sustainably.

Tertiary level agricultural education as the highest level in the organization of agricultural education and training is suitable and capable of influencing policy decisions and development at State and national levels. Alawa (2015) posits that agricultural education and training at the university level provides the human resources base that sustains the operations of other levels of agricultural education. Similarly, Maguire (2000) states that higher education in agriculture and natural resource management plays a particularly significant role in national development. The author explained that agricultural education at this level has sound scientific and professional credibility and plays major roles in sensitizing the public, students, professionals, field workers, farmers and consumers to environmental problems, including policy and decision makers. Agricultural education at tertiary level can guarantee environmental and sustainable development in agriculture.

Environmental sustainability entails prudent use of natural resources at present with a conscious concern for the future. This involves the inclusion of content areas into the curriculum of agricultural education and training in universities and extension outreach programmes. Environmental and Sustainable Development (ESD) contents, according to Alawa (2016), are themes that are ecologically non-degrading, socially acceptable and economically viable in agricultural education and extension programmes for the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes consistent with sustainable use of natural resources for improved agricultural production. The author explains that ESD content areas must be ecologically non-degrading, socially acceptable and economically viable which are included into university agricultural education and training programmes for the learner to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes consistent with sustainable use of natural resources for improved agricultural production.

University agricultural education and agricultural extension institutions in Nigeria have mandates to include such contents into their programmes in the various specializing fields of agriculture such as crop science, animal science, extension and rural sociology, forestry, fisheries and wildlife, farm mechanization, soil science among others. This explains why the National Policy of Education re-emphasized the need for all tertiary institution in Nigeria to integrate technical knowledge and skills necessary for sustainable agricultural, industrial and economic development (Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN), 2013). In recognition of this policy provision, Olaitan (2017) commends government efforts at ensuring that agricultural education is offered at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education in Nigeria. In confirmation of the integration of environmental and sustainable development themes in tertiary level agricultural education and extension programmes, Alawa (2015) reports research evidence of the inclusion of these content areas in the curriculum of university agricultural education and extension outreach programmes in Nigerian. However, the inclusion of these contents into university agricultural education and extension outreach programs without adequate policy initiatives to monitor the implementation may jeopardize such government educational concern and threaten sustainable development in agriculture in Nigeria.

The basic idea in an environmental policy is to secure the environment and its biodiversity. Gordon (2012) states that environmental policy necessarily provides the framework for environmental thinking towards reshaping the surrounding variables on environmental resource use and management. Sustainable environmental development requires meeting the pressing needs of all people and extending opportunity to satisfy their aspirations for a better life and ensures a developed world with secured and healthy environment for all; human beings, animals and plants alike (Ndubuisi-Okolo et al., 2016). In realizing the importance of environmental sustainability and the need to protect and preserve the environment, Nigerian government has formulated some environmental policies such as National Policy on Erosion and Flood Control, The Prevention of Pollution of Sea and Land 1954 (Amended 1962), Petroleum Regulation 1967, Oil in Navigable Waters Decree No 34 1968 among others. Other sustainable development policies since the 1980s are Structural Adjustment Program (SAP), Poverty Reduction Program, the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS), National Directorate of Employment (NDE) among others. Regrettably, it appears the more these environmental policies are formulated, the more the Nigerian environment is degraded, particularly in the Niger Delta region where Cross River State is an integral component. In Cross River State in particular, successive governments have made concerted efforts through the formulation of policies on natural resource use and environmental management such as Operation Green, Anti-deforestation, Anti-debushing, Anti-mining among others. University agricultural education and extension
outreach programs in the State have also integrated this policy focus into their curriculum in response to the needs of the society for students and farmers to be taught. Despite all these efforts, the contribution of university agricultural education and extension institutions in Cross River State to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture is still a big challenge as cases of nutrient depletion, deforestation, bush burning, erosion and flooding and others are persistent hence, the need to identify policy actions that could enhance the contributions of these institutions to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture.

The potency of environmental policies is heavily reliant of key actors on the implementation paradigm. Borak and Peak (2013) contend that the right of the principle of equity and justice rest upon fair treatment of all people irrespective of differential variables such as biological, physical, economic and social characteristics with respect to environmental policy and practice. To the authors, the safety of the environment is a principal responsibility of mankind so all humanity is a custodian to its stewardship. Arokoyu and Ibani (2004) argue that major actors of governance in Nigeria demonstrate elite formation which is related to its colonial history in which the indigenous elite was excluded from the commanding heights of the economy, the process of decolonization and independence, whereby economically weak but politically powerful elites pursue economic and selfish ends. In the submission of Onakuse and Eamon (2007), the major causes of the failure of these programs and reforms hinge on corruption, political divide, lack of continuity, a weak private sector, dearth or absence of due process, and ethnicity. Other pitfalls that usually confront government policies include absence of consistent enabling framework on finance, funding and infrastructure on small and medium enterprises, inadequate transportation networks and power supply that support development effort and delivers multiplier effects on other sector within the country (Ogujiuba et al., 2013). Amidst these issues, the bottom line remains that environmental resources are to be used on a sustainable basis hence, the need for renewed policy actions on national resource use.

Makinde (2005) observes that policy makers must demonstrate in the first place a strong grip of the social, economic, political and cultural variables in which any policy is to operate if such a policy is to succeed otherwise it will suffer from implementation gap syndrome. The author explains that ignorance of the policy formulators has bedevilled the operators of it with a serious administrative deficiency syndrome otherwise known as implementation gap. On their part, Ubleble and Gbenemene (2017) argued for a policy review on the national policy on environment. They suggest that intended review should endeavour to adhere to the United States environmental policy particularly where environmental responsibilities are distributed among the executive, legislative and judicial arms of government. They further explain that incorporation of the Senate and House of Representatives Committees into discharging environmental responsibilities can break the bottle necks that create implementation gaps which is a major hindrance in the case of Nigeria.

The incentives to innovate and adopt better technologies as well as to invest in agriculture depend on the overall policy on environment. Anderson (2000) observes that agriculture is a sector where government intervention is pervasive but the objectives, instruments and resulting support vary from country to country. The author explained that high-income countries have provided relatively high support to their agricultural sector while low income countries globally taxed their agricultural sector. This trend the author concluded has contributed more to a decline of net taxation of agriculture than specific support policies. World Bank (2012) posits that a successful strategy for sustainable agricultural productivity growth requires significant improvement in macroeconomic, structural and agricultural policies and institutions to provide the necessary incentives to farmers and the private sector to increase investment and build the necessary capital. The organization explained that the required investments to achieve sustainable agricultural productivity growth encompass knowledge, human and physical capital and both on-farm investments in agriculture and off-farm investments for agriculture. The organization further advised policy makers in developing countries to move beyond a plethora of interventions and policies towards a coherent policy framework that facilitates and stimulates all actors, including smallholder and other private investors to invest and foster the accumulation of productive human and natural capital.

McNeely and Scherr (2001) identified key areas for policy actions as the characteristics of the natural resource base and farming systems of the poor; farmers’ awareness and assessment of the importance of environmental degradation; availability of sustainable production technologies and their suitability for the poor; farmers’ capacity to mobilize investment resources through their own assets and networks and economic incentives for conservation management and investment. Others the authors contended are security of tenure and rights of access to resources by the poor; the level of institutional capacity within communities to support adaptive responses by the poor and degree of political inclusion of the rural poor in decisions affecting resource policies. Similarly, Pretty (2002) states that to promote sustainable agricultural production, consideration should be made for key policy as investment in public research and extension systems for adapting and transferring technologies; provision of technical assistance and capacity-building for ministries of agriculture and natural resource management; investment in both dry land and wetland water management system to increase water
productivity; engagement in debate with recipient countries over appropriate land reforms, as poor people cannot be expected to invest in asset building especially of natural capital if they have no guarantee over long term access to their land; promotion of support for agricultural development programmes that build rural social capacity particularly for women to access credit and microfinance; development of new approaches for supporting small-scale agribusinesses in rural areas so that food commodities can be value-added before leaving the local economy such as loan guarantees, underwriting debt, providing equity funds and grants for social infrastructure and community projects; mobilization of support for urban agriculture and working with farmers' and rural people’s organizations to develop better methods for accessing market information. Others are adoption of a regional approach and emphasize structural reforms and support within specified regions to maximize synergies between different sectors of policy making departments; ensuring that policy making is evidence-based by developing good monitoring and lesson learning systems; integration of the concept of agricultural sustainability into poverty reduction policies in particular and measurement of all agricultural and rural development strategies against the primary target of mass pro-poor farm based progress; provision of long-term support as there is no simple step for agricultural development; increasing support for research which in some disciplines is increasingly being privatized and driven to specialize in the farming systems of the rich, rather than addressing the need for sustainable intensification of farming for the employment-intensive poor. United Nations (1992) reports that major adjustments are needed in agricultural, environmental and microeconomic policies at both national and international levels in developed as well as developing countries to create the conditions for sustainable agriculture and rural development through educational initiatives, utilization of economic incentives and the development of appropriate and new technology that guarantee stable supplies by vulnerable groups and production for markets, employment and income generation to alleviate poverty and natural resource management and protection. Food and Agricultural Organizations (2011) maintains that sustainable land management practices such as reduced tillage, maintenance of a protective organic soil cover, crop rotation to enhance nutrient levels, pests’ management, integrated nutrients and water management techniques which are associated with both environmental and productivity benefits are necessary inputs for sustainable development in agriculture. Furthermore, Wonah (2017) suggests the formulation and implementation of public policies, particularly environmental policies that have direct positive bearing on the lives of the people. The author explains that States can achieve this feat when they are fully democratized where people must participate in the formulation and implementation of environmental policy and their interests and welfare taken into consideration. To reposition agricultural education and training for diversification of the economy sustainably, Olaitan (2017) suggests for the establishment of occupational agricultural colleges to reflect agricultural practices in the forest zone, recruitment of pedagogically trained lecturers and review of the land use decree to enable graduates acquire land for agricultural occupation without discrimination and political threats. It is therefore against this backdrop that informs the researcher’s interest to identify policy initiatives for improving the contributions of university agricultural education and extension programmes to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study adopted the systems theory as its theoretical backdrop. Systems theory was developed by Ludwig Von Bertanffy in 1968 to provide an analytical framework which facilitates the understanding of dynamics of inter-groups relationships. The theory states that every system consists of elements and processes that interact among themselves for the attainment of organizational goals/objectives. The elements otherwise known as objects, events, patterns and structures are measurable things that can be linked together while the processes or activities/relationships change the elements from one form to another. In a system, the elements or processes are grouped into sub-systems in order to reduce the complexity of the system. A dysfunction in any of the system elements could affect the attainment of organizational goals/objectives. Systems theory thus, defines the boundaries of the system under consideration and the hierarchy of aggregation levels.

Since systems theory stresses the working together of system elements for improvement and attainment of system objectives, it is therefore relevant to this study. Environmental and sustainable development in agriculture has three different but interrelated components, that is, ecological, economic and social dimensions with different contents and policy provisions. If these content areas are fully integrated without good policy provisions, the entire agricultural education and extension system may not achieve set goals. The identification of policy initiatives as intended in the present study is a core sub-system of the entire sustainability of agriculture unraveled through agricultural education and extension outreach system.

Objective of the study

The study specifically seeks to determine policy initiatives that could improve the contributions of agricultural education and extension institutions to environmental and
sustainable development in agriculture in Cross River State.

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted descriptive survey research design. Descriptive survey research design, according to Ali in Alawa and Udida (2015), is a design in which group of people or items are studied by collecting and analyzing data from a few people or items considered to be representative of the entire group. The study was carried out in Cross River State. The population for the study was 534, comprising 195 registered farmers who have continuously participated in ADP farmer field school training from the agricultural zones of the State; 70 graduate extension personnel; 167 final year agriculture students and 102 lecturers of agricultural education programmes in the Universities in Cross River State. The entire population was used in the study because it was manageable by the researchers and provides better grounds for proper generalization of findings. The study adopted a triangulation technique involving mixed methods of data collection, that is, quantitative and qualitative methods. A 17-item questionnaire developed by the researchers and tagged Policy Initiatives for improving the Contribution of Agricultural Education and Extension Institution Environmental and Sustainable Development in Agriculture Questionnaire (PICAAEIESDAQ) was the instrument for collection of quantitative data. The instrument had two sections; A and B. Section A solicited demographic data of the respondents while section B sought information on policy initiatives using a four point scale of strongly agree; agree, disagree and strongly disagree. The highest level in the scale had 4 points and the least received 1 point. The qualitative data were collected through FGDs on respondents. Two types of validity, that is, face and content validity were done on the instrument by three experts. One of the experts each was from Crop Science; Agricultural Economics and Extension Departments in the Faculty of Agriculture and one from Agricultural Education unit of the Department of Vocational Education of University of Calabar. A content validity index of 0.81 obtained was appropriate (Davis, 1992). Cronbach alpha reliability method was used to determine the internal consistence of the questionnaire and a coefficient of 0.83 was obtained. Five hundred and thirty four (534) copies of the questionnaire were administered on the respondents with the help of four trained research assistants. Five hundred and nineteen (519) copies of the (PICAAEIESDAQ) were retrieved and analyzed using mean, standard deviation and independent t-test from SPSS version 20 to answer the research question and test the null hypothesis at p>0.05.

For the research question, the real limits of numbers were used to interpret the mean values of items. Thus, any item with a mean score of 3.50 to 4.0 was regarded as strongly agree; while items with mean scores of 2.50 to 3.49 were regarded as agree. Similarly, any item with a mean score of 1.50 to 2.49 was regarded as disagree, and items with means scores of 1 to 1.49 were regarded as strongly disagree. The standard deviation was used to determine the closeness or otherwise of the opinions of the respondents from the mean and from one another. Any item with a standard deviation of 1.96 or below indicated that the respondents were close and therefore, the item was valid while any item with a standard deviation above 1.96 indicated that the respondents were not close to the mean and therefore, the item was not valid.

The qualitative data were collected through Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with respondents from both institutions, that is university agricultural education and Agricultural extension outreach programmes. The FGD was guided by the objective of the study and involved key informants in university agricultural education (senior lecturers and above) and agricultural development programme (senior extension personnel from levels 13 to 16). The justification for involving these categories of stakeholders as participants was based on working experience. The FGDs were held once with staff in universities in the State while one meeting each was held with key informants in ADP across the three agricultural zones of the State. The trustworthiness of qualitative data was established through prolonged engagements with participants, triangulation, peer debriefing and data collection was logical, traceable and documented (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The FGD data generated were analyzed through the development of codes (themes), patterns, and establishment of relationships based on the patterns.

RESULTS

The results of this study were obtained from the research question answered and hypothesis tested using data collected and analyzed.

Research question

What are the policy initiatives that could improve the contributions of agricultural education and extension institutions to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture in Cross River State?

Hypothesis

There is no significant difference between the mean ratings of the agricultural education programmes of Universities (AEPU) respondents and Agricultural development programme (ADP) respondents on policy initiatives that could improve the contribution of agricultural education and extension institutions to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture. Data for answering the research question and testing of hypothesis are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 presented the mean ratings of respondents on policy initiatives that could improve the contributions of agricultural education and extension institutions to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture. The data indicated that the 17 policy initiatives had their mean values ranging from 2.87 to 3.36. This implies that respondents agreed that in order to improve the contribution of agricultural education and training institutions to ESD in agriculture in Cross River State, environment policy document should address efficient resource use and management; promote long term report for agricultural development; integrate agricultural sustainability into poverty reduction programmes; increase support for research and development in agriculture; support urban agriculture; promote support for agricultural development programmes that build rural social capacity particularly for women to access credit and microfinance and obtain inputs from farmers and rural peoples’ organization to develop better
methods for accessing market information. Others are correction of negative externalities like climate change; desertification and emission of greenhouse gases; recognition of gender issues; repositioning of land tenure rites to enable farmers to embark on long term conservation plan; promote economic incentives for conservation and management of resources; consider population issues in natural resource use; involve the rural poor farmers in decision making and encourage non-agricultural alternatives to reduce the pressure on ecological resources.

The standard deviations of the 17 policy actions that could improve the contributions of agricultural education and extension institutions to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture (column 4) ranged from 0.41 to 0.76 and were less than 1.96 (95% confidence limit). This indicated that the respondents were not far from the mean and from one another in their responses thus, adding value to the reliability of the mean.

Result from the FGDs showed many key informants expressed desire for the review of the existing policy on

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**Table 1.** Mean ratings and t-test analysis of the responses of UAEP respondents and ADP respondents on policy initiatives that could improve the contribution of agricultural education and extension institutions to ESD in agriculture in Cross River State (N=519).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SN</th>
<th>Policy actions for the improvement of ESD in agriculture</th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th>AEPU respondents</th>
<th></th>
<th>ADP respondents</th>
<th></th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Environmental Education and Sustainable development policies in agriculture should:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ensure efficient resource use and management</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.73**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Promote long-term support for agricultural development.</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.74**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ensure the integration of agricultural sustainability into poverty reduction programmes.</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.72**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Increase support for research and development in agriculture</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.83**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ensure evidence-based monitoring and lesson learning systems</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.82**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ensure adequate support for urban agriculture</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.79**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Promote support for agricultural development programme that build rural social capacity particularly for women to access credit and microfinance</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.75**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Obtain input from farmers and rural peoples’ organization to develop better methods for accessing market information</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.73***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Strengthen public and private extension and advisory services</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.72**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Make agricultural education and training more attractive and relevant through the development of individual capabilities and human capital</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.78**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Correct negative environmental externalities like climate change, desertification and emission of greenhouse gases by farmers</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.81**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Recognize gender issues in agricultural production</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.80*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Reposition land tenure rite to enable farmers embark on long term conservation plan</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.73**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Promote economic incentives for conservation and management of resources by farmers and other stakeholders</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.74**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Consider population issues in natural resource use and management</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.72**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Involve the rural poor farmers in decision making on matters affecting natural resource utilization and conservation</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.71**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Encourage non-agricultural alternatives to reduce the pressure on ecological resources.</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.83**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grand Value</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.77**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N₁=269; N₂=250. \( \bar{X}_1 \) = Mean of group one, \( \bar{X}_2 \) = Mean of group two, SD₁ = Standard Deviation of group one, SD₂ = Standard Deviation of group two; p \( \alpha .05, df = 517; ** = Not significant; A=Agree. \)
the environment with the inclusion of inputs such as gender issues in agriculture; population explosion and natural resource use; farm insurance, adequate funding/budgetary provisions for agricultural education and training and ADP extension system; funding of research and utilization of research finding; poverty and resource utilization and subsidization of farm inputs. Others according to the participants include involvement of NGOs in the funding of agricultural education and extension programmes; enhancement of welfare packages, provision of post-harvest storage facilities; removal of bureaucracies on land acquisition for agriculture; entrenchment of stringent laws on natural resource use and management and the involvement of inputs from land users. A participant from University agricultural education institution had this to say:

"...the policy on environment is just presented to us as a document without inputs from users and enabling conditions for implementation. Whether you like it or not university agricultural education and training has the capacity to impart quality knowledge and skills on natural resource use and management. When we teach our students, they fall back home to educate their parents who are the land users. Educating the youths on sustainable management of environmental resources is the best thing we are doing in agricultural education programs because the future of Nigerian agricultural development belongs to them. A review of the existing policy on environment with the integration of these suggested inputs and provision of enabling facilities for teaching would be a right step"

Similarly, a participant from the Cross River agricultural extension institution said:

"...we work with farmers who are directly involved in natural resource use and we can influence their attitude positively to reduce degradation of the environment. The only problem we have is the fact that our institution is not positioned adequately to facilitate this role. We are not involved in policy formulation process and as such the interest of farmers is not always reflected in the document. A review is therefore eminent with the inclusion of inputs from extension personnel and farmers to ensure prudent use of environmental resources"

It can be seen from the results obtained that both methods of data collection (quantitative and qualitative) are complementary and justify the involvement and experience of respondents used for the study in the phenomena investigated.

The result of the test of hypothesis (columns 6 to 8) revealed that the 17 ESD policy improvement initiatives had p-values that ranged from 0.71 to 0.83 and were greater than 0.05. With this result, the null hypothesis was upheld. This implies that there was no significant difference in the responses of the two groups of respondents on the 17 ESD policy initiatives that could improve the contribution of agricultural education and extension institutions to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture in Cross River State. The implication of this result is that respondents are in agreement and did not differ in their responses on policy initiatives that could improve the contributions of agricultural education and training and extension institutions to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture in the State. The indifference exhibited by students and lecturers in the agricultural education programmes of universities and farmers and extension personnel in ADP extension system of Cross River State is a pointer to the fact that they considered ESD themes very imperative and desired policy provisions that could empower their institutions to contribute to sustainable agricultural production. They could not allow their natural differences such as institutional background/work environment, educational level, location and experience to influence their responses to avoid a possible disconnect from the global dream of sustainability in agricultural production.

**DISCUSSION**

The finding of the study showed that the seventeen policy initiatives identified could improve the contributions of university agricultural education and extension institutions to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture in Cross River State. The policy initiatives include efficient resource use and management; promotion of long term report for agricultural development; integration of agricultural sustainability into poverty reduction programmes; increased support for research and development in agriculture; support for urban agriculture; promotion of support for agricultural development programmes that build rural social capacity particularly for women to access credit and microfinance and obtain inputs from farmers and rural peoples’ organization to develop better methods for accessing market information. Others are correction of negative externalities like climate change; desertification and emission of greenhouse gases; recognition of gender issues; repositioning of land tenure rites to enable farmers to embark on long term conservation plan; promote economic incentives for conservation and management of resources; consider population issues in natural resource use; involve the rural poor farmers in decision making and encourage non-agricultural alternatives to reduce the pressure on ecological resources. The finding agrees with World Bank (2012), Pretty (2002) and McNeely and Scherr (2001), that advocate for sustainable agricultural productivity growth anchored on repositioning of the agricultural policies and institutions to provide the necessary incentives to farmers and the private sector to increase investment and build...
the necessary capital. The authors submit that to promote sustainable agricultural production, provision should be made for key policy issues as investment in public research and extension systems for adapting and transferring technologies, engagement in debate over appropriate land reforms, security of tenure and rights of access to resources by the poor; promotion of support for agricultural development programmes that build rural social capacity particularly for women to access credit and microfinance; development of new approaches for supporting small-scale agribusinesses in rural areas with a strong advice on policy makers in developing countries to move beyond a plethora of interventions and policies towards a coherent policy framework that facilitates and stimulates all actors, including smallholder and other private investors to invest and foster the accumulation of productive human and natural capital. The findings further support Food and Agricultural Organizations (2011) that suggested inputs for sustainable development in agriculture to include sustainable land management practices such as reduced tillage, maintenance of a protective organic soil cover, crop rotation to enhance nutrient levels, pests' management, integrated nutrients and water management techniques.

The finding partly agrees with Olaitan (2017) who recommended for the establishment of occupational agricultural colleges to reflect agricultural practices in the forest zone, recruitment of pedagogically trained lecturers and review of the land use decree to enable graduates acquire land for agricultural occupation without discrimination and political threats in order to reposition agricultural education and training for diversification of the economy sustainably. The identification of policy initiatives objectively by respondents support Wonah (2017)'s submission that the formulation and implementation of public policies, particularly environmental policies that have direct positive bearing on the lives of the people have to be achieved through democratic principles where people must participate in the formulation and implementation of environmental policy and their interests and welfare taken into consideration. Furthermore, The identification of policy initiatives that are ecologically non-degrading, socially acceptable and economically viable in content agrees with Alawa (2016) who states that ESD content areas must be ecologically non-degrading, socially acceptable and economically viable that are included into university agricultural education and training programmes for the learner to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes consistent with sustainable use of natural resources for improved agricultural production. The finding further justifies Maguire (2000)'s submission that higher education in agriculture and natural resource management plays a particularly significant role in national development. The author explained that agricultural education at this level has sound scientific sensitizing the public, students, professionals, field workers, farmers and consumers to environmental problems, including policy and decision makers.

From the finding, it shows clearly that the policy sub-system of environmental and sustainable development in agriculture has challenges and is responsible for the low contribution of agricultural education and extension institutions to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture. This tends to agree with the theoretical backdrop of the study (Systems theory) which is anchored on effective functioning of system components. The finding thus, has implications for government of Nigeria and Cross River State in particular to urgently consider a review of the policy on environment with the inclusion of these initiatives identified by stakeholders in agricultural education and extension institutions that are duty bound to impart quality knowledge and skills to land resource users.

Conclusion

The entire policy architecture of an institution provides a framework that guides the operationalization of such organizations. With particular reference to agricultural education and extension institutions, government through relevant regulatory agencies has made concerted efforts at providing such frameworks but neglect the fact that policies are time bound, subject to proper implementation and periodic review. Issues of sustainable development in agricultural production are naturally revolutionary hence, the need to revisit them periodically. The study determined policy initiatives for improving the contributions of university agricultural education and extension institutions to environmental and sustainable development in agriculture. It is a known fact for sure that what guarantees the future of agricultural production in Nigeria generally and Cross River State in particular is the adoption of sustainable cultures in agricultural operations by land resource users. It is therefore the hope of the researcher that if these policy initiatives are integrated into University agricultural education and extension outreach institutions, sustainable development in agricultural production could be improved through their training functions on their respective target audiences.

RECOMMENDATIONS

It is therefore recommended based on the findings and conclusion reached in this study that the identified policy initiatives should be integrated into university agricultural education and extension institutions and properly implemented to ensure compliance and development of sustainable cultures in agricultural production in Cross River State.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.
REFERENCES


Using films to teach Turkish as a foreign language: A study of classroom practice

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In recent years, developing communication skills is the main goal of foreign language learning, so the most effective way of developing this skill is to expose the learners to real life situations. Movies provide exposures to real language, used in authentic settings and in the cultural context. Movies are the most effective audiovisual materials both in teaching basic language skills and reflecting the language and culture used in real life. Movies are frequently used in the teaching of foreign languages (English, German, French, etc.) that are widely taught. However, studies on the use of films in teaching Turkish as a foreign language are limited. In this study, authentic B1 level activities are developed by using Happiness Muhtuluk movie to teach four basic language skills, and to develop intercultural competencies. Fifteen activities are developed according to the achievements regarding to the intercultural competency and communication skills developed by the Maarif Foundation. These activities can develop Turkish language learners’ four language skills, vocabulary knowledge, pronunciation, critical understanding and encouraging them to use language in a creative way. Also, these activities can increase language learners’ intercultural understanding, as well as helping them to become aware of the similarities and differences between cultures.

Key words: Cultural transmission, movies, teaching Turkish as a foreign language.

INTRODUCTION

Foreign language teaching is not only to find and express the meaning of the concepts in the mother tongue, but also to know in which environments and when to use those words. This is only possible due to the films. In recent years, the use of films in foreign language teaching is very common. Films are the most effective materials, both in acquiring basic language skills and reflecting the language and culture used in real life. Movies are frequently used in teaching foreign languages that are widely taught. However, studies on the use of films in teaching Turkish as a foreign language are limited. Increasing international student mobility, political and economic developments in recent years have increased the interest in learning Turkish. The developments regarding the teaching of Turkish as a foreign language have made this study mandatory in this field.

Learning a language means communicating in that language by gaining the communicative abilities of that language. In other words, acquiring communicative...
competence, understanding the communicative skills of that language, namely productive skills such as speaking and writing, and receptive skills such as listening and reading, as well as the culture, lifestyles of the target language culture (Aktas, 2005). Today, goals and achievements have been determined in line with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) developed by Council of Europe and Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language Program developed by Maarif Foundation. Both programs focus on the communicative aspect of Language teaching, to develop the communicative competencies of language learners. These programs are based on language use and communicative competence theories to describe what a language user needs to know and do in order to communicate effectively and what language learners are expected to do at different proficiency levels. In this study, authentic listening/watching activities on B1 level are developed to improve the communication skills of Turkish as a foreign language learner.

Most language students are very happy watching films in class, but most of the teachers and students ignore the teaching goals. Students tend to enjoy films in class without any activities to do. Some Turkish languages teachers just play them leave the students to watch them by themselves. Students think it is a good chance to relax themselves; thus, they miss the academic goal of learning. Before watching the film, teachers should prepare different tasks and activities and provide necessary guidance to achieve the best results of Turkish language learning. Before showing the film in class, the teachers should give some tasks and homework related to the movie before class to help the students understand the movie better. Teachers should bring all the materials about the film such as poster and pictures. All the activities should be ready before watching such as guessing, introduction of the topic, cultural background, key words of the film, and discussion. In this way, teachers may activate students’ background knowledge on the topic, introduce the main characters, and teach necessary new vocabulary.

While watching films, learners are exposed to real language considered as a valuable source of input. The comprehensible input hypothesis, developed by Krashen (1985), states that language is acquired by receiving comprehensible input; films in this respect are necessary materials in language acquisition because they provide learners meaningful comprehensible input. Thus, the activities developed in this study are valuable comprehensible input materials for good language learning. When the literature is examined, it is possible to come across many studies on the use of films in teaching foreign and Turkish language (Arslan and Adem, 2010; Aytan and Tuncel, 2015; Iscan, 2016, 2017; Ismaili, 2013; Ying and Hai-Feng, 2012). Based on these studies, the benefits of using films in teaching Turkish as a foreign language is listed as follows:

(i) Films are very effective means of language teaching and have a positive role in developing foreign languages;
(ii) It increases students’ interest in the lesson and improves the teaching process;
(iii) It keeps the element of curiosity alive during the learning process and encourages listening / watching by guessing;
(iv) It makes learning permanent because it addresses more than one sense organ;
(v) It opens the door to autonomous learning and takes the learning process out of class;
(vi) It provides students the opportunity to activate their passive vocabulary;
(vii) It helps students to realize non-verbal linguistic elements appropriate to the context;
(viii) It can be used effectively in the development of four basic language skills;
(ix) It is good for conducting classroom activity, practicing students’ speaking, and listening abilities;
(x) It helps to develop learners’ intercultural competencies;
(xi) It is a tool for valued education;
(xii) It contains concrete examples of theoretical information about language use;
(xiii) It provides examples of using the target language in social life;
(xiv) It allows students to develop their communicative skills in the target language.

As seen, it is thought that the use of films in teaching Turkish as a foreign language contributes in many points from motivation to skill development, from body language to culture transfer. Although there are many studies on using films in English and Turkish classes, but very few studies are done on developing authentic activities developed according to the goals of Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language Program prepared by the Maarif Foundation. Therefore, this is an original study due to exemplary activities on developing Turkish language, using Mutluluk film.

**Language and culture**

Culture is important in terms of learning a new language with the aim of increasing learners’ communicative competence. Language competence and culture are closely related. If the major purpose of teaching communicative language is to provide students with meaningful interactions in real-life situations with native speakers of the target language, it is necessary to provide learners with new information about the new culture as well, so that students can know how to deal with their communicative challenges (Canale and Swain, 1980).

The first thing that comes to mind when talking about foreign language teaching is undoubtedly the concept of
culture. Therefore, the relationship of language with culture must be considered in determining the materials, methods and techniques to be used in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. Learning a foreign language does not necessarily mean to find and use the equivalent of the concepts and expressions in our mother tongue, that is, only learning the rules and translating the words into that language. Foreign language learning is an effort to understand the perspectives, thinking and value systems of other societies in the world. In order to perceive the various activities that the individuals who make up a society create in daily life; it is necessary to know the basic points of the culture of that society. These competencies are more effective if they are developed through movies. For this reason, films are of great importance in terms of cultural transmission and language development. Demircan (1990), no one can learn foreign languages by abstracting from social and cultural values, referring to how important the relationship between language and culture has in this process. Many scholars have revealed that movies used in foreign language classroom can become an important part of the curriculum. This is because movies provide exposures to “real language,” used in authentic settings and in the cultural context which the foreign language is spoken. They also found that movies catch the learners’ interest and it can positively affect their motivation to learn (Kusumarasdyati, 2004; Luo, 2004).

Movies as an audiovisual tool in foreign language teaching

Due to the increasing importance of visual and media images, films have a great potential in the language classroom, as they bring together a large variety of modes. Films are rich multimodal texts containing linguistic meaning, but they also contain other modes that are sometimes more difficult to illustrate or provide in the standard language lesson, such as the gestural component. Films are perfect vehicles for introducing students to different types of popular culture and engaging them with critical questions about the relationship between information and power, through the critical analysis of sociopolitical issues and intercultural relationships (Chan and Herrero, 2010: 11). The use of movies with the support of structured materials can help students develop all four communicative skills (speaking, reading, writing and listening). Audiovisual material enables them to develop a critical understanding, encouraging them to use language in a creative way. Learning languages through movie can increase language learners’ intercultural understanding, as well as helping them to become aware of the similarities and differences between cultures, such as everyday life, education, traditions, social customs, religious beliefs, and events of national importance (Chan and Herrero, 2010: 13).

Films are important materials for cultural transmission especially in environments where the target language is not used. It is stated that the films are at least as effective as communicating with the people who speak that language, in terms of learning the cultural elements of the target language. Films that give sections from the life where the target language is used increase students’ motivation to learn and communicate with each other and prepare the base for using the language more effectively. At the same time, students also grasp different expressions and intonations that express hesitation and exclamation in verbal, non-verbal, formal and informal expressions used in the target language through films. Scenes that reflect real life in films and videos allow the student to develop critical and creative thinking skills, which makes the student more active in language learning (Boggs, 1996; Stemleski and Tomalin, 1990).

Regarding the use of video in foreign language teaching, students’ interests and levels should be taken into consideration. At the same time, whether videos are too easy or difficult will not motivate students. Videos contain richer content than audio tools because videos will be easier to understand through gestures and gestures of speakers. With videos, it is possible to use listening materials effectively (Harmer, 1998). Along with language, they can learn many things from the personality of film characters, their way of life, and their cultural background. The duration of the movie should also be appropriate. If the movie is watched without the necessary guidance, it turns into a disadvantage. A brief explanation should be given about the film, especially about its historical and cultural background. Students should be enthusiastic to watch the movie by giving explanations about the leading actors. Some words should be given to the students before the movie. What can be the subject before the movie can be discussed? One of the benefits of such preliminary preparations is to determine the language levels of students (Ying and Hai-feng, 2012: 1010-1014). Movies reflect the language and culture of the target society in a realistic way. In addition, the teachers should arrange some tasks and activities related to the movie before class to help the students better understand the movie.

In a video, a student can easily see people in a dialogue; their gender, clothes, relationships, social status, what they do and how they feel. Furthermore, students can observe those people’s gestures, hand movements, intonations, all their behavior, and understand the context much better. That is why videos have recently become one of the most used tools in teaching foreign languages and the video teaching has become one of the most important techniques (Demirel, 1999).

The aim of the study

The purpose of this study is to determine the use of films
in teaching Turkish to foreigners to develop the communicative abilities of students, basic language skills and to increase the learners’ intercultural understanding. This film is chosen to prepare activities because it is rich in formulaic expressions, idioms, proverbs and Turkish cultural elements. The study is important as a concrete example of the use of films at the B1 level in the field of teaching Turkish as a foreign language. Apart from the intercultural competency, by using films in Turkish classes, learners can improve their listening and speaking skills, they can enlarge their vocabulary knowledge and they can even make their pronunciation and intonation better.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, document analysis method, one of the qualitative research methods, is used. Document analysis involves the analysis of materials that contain information about the phenomenon or facts intended to be investigated. The data obtained by document analysis is analyzed by content analysis. The process followed in the content analysis is to gather data like others within the framework of certain themes and to transfer them by interpreting them to the reader (Yildirim and Simsek, 2005). By watching the film in detail, phrases, formulaic expressions, behaviors, gestures, mimics, body language, facial expression and cultural elements related to cultural transfer are listed in writing and authentic activities are developed by the author using these elements.

In this study, the use of films in teaching Turkish as a foreign language was discussed and 15 B1 level authentic pre-listening/watching, while-listening/watching and after-listening/watching activities are developed to improve the communicative abilities of students, communicative language skills and to increase the learners’ intercultural understanding, as well as to help them to become aware of the similarities and differences between cultures. The activities are developed according to the achievements regarding the intercultural competency and communication skills developed by the Maarif Foundation. The learner is expected to develop intercultural skills, followed by teaching Turkish as a foreign language program developed by Maarif Foundation:

1. Linking their own culture with the target culture,
2. To recognize and use different strategies to gain cultural sensitivity and to relate to those from other cultures,
3. Coping with intercultural conflicts and conflict situations by establishing a relationship between their own culture and the target culture,
4. The ability to break and exceed cultural prejudices in multicultural settings.

The program aims to develop intercultural interaction competence based on cultural sensitivity in line with the communicative functions specified in the syllables expressed in basic language skill (Maarif, 2020).

Summary of the film “Mutluluk”

The film was released in 2007 and the director of the film is Abdullah Oğuz. The Film begins with the presence of Meryem in a shabby and unconscious state by a lake at the age of 17. The family, who lives in a village in the east of Turkey, decided to kill due to custom, considering that their daughters are dishonest. The killing task is given to his close relative, Cemal. İrfan Kurudal, a well-known professor of sociology, leaves his life in Istanbul and sails with his sailing boat due to his deep identity crisis. The paths of Meryem and Cemal cross unexpectedly with Professor İrfan Kurudal on their journey of death. Will these three people, who are on their way to freedom, defeat their destiny in this journey?

MUTLULUK FILM ACTIVITIES

Pre-listening/watching activities

Before students watch the movie, Language teachers should make some preparations for the activities. Teachers should bring all the materials about the film such as poster, pictures of the actors and actresses. All the activities should be ready before watching.

Activity 1: Guessing

Teacher brings a movie poster and hangs on the classroom board and tells student to answer the following questions. Students try to guess the movie using their imagination.

1. What comes to your mind with the Movie title “Mutluluk”

2. Where do you think the events take place?

3. What kind of movie is it?

4. What is the meaning of “Namus” discuss it in pairs.

5. Do you like cross cultural movies?

6. What is your favorite movie genre, why?

Activity 2: Vocabulary

Look at the phrases below, write the meaning of the words and look up in a dictionary if you do not know it.

Mir mir konuşmak .......... Kalbi kırmak

Kafaya koymak .......... Talibi çıkmak

Gıcır gıcır ayakkabı .......... İntihar etmek
While-listening/watching activities

While watching film the teachers should prepare the activities and should know where to stop and ask questions.

Activity 3: Pause and play, guessing

Teacher stops the movie in the following scenes and ask students questions, this is a stop and play activity.

1. What do you think Cemal will do after taking his niece Meryem to Istanbul?

Students were placed into four groups to discuss all opinions. Then the teacher will play the movie and analyze their guesses.

2. Meryem’s uncle with a group of villagers was looking for Meryem in Istanbul, will he catch her? Discuss it with your partner.

3. Cemal and Meryem met prof. İrfan and he invites them to live on a boat together. Will Cemal and Meryem accept this invitation and what will be next?

4. Cemal takes Meryem to the bridge to kill her. Do you think will he kill her?

5. Meryem begs her mother to forgive her, by telling she is innocent. What do you think, will her mother forgive her? Discuss it in pairs.

Activity 4: Correct the following sentences

The words in the speeches in a selected part of the movie are changed and distributed to the students. The movie is watched again, and they are asked to find the mistakes and correct them.

1. Sabah Cemal abin ile Ankara'ya gideceksin.

2. Akşam olunca işi bitirirsin.


4. Kurban olayım söyle oğlum hadi inat etme.

5. Durumumuz vahim polis etrafta kol geziyor.

Activity 5: Complete the missing words

Students are expected to remember key words, idiomatic and formulaic expressions.

1. Lütfen dikkat Gebzeye gidecek olan banliyö……………..bırazdan hareket edecektir.

2. Meryem ……………………….kirlettin.

3. Baba sen neden geldin buraya …………………….vereceğim sana.

4. Hadi ………………….. hazırlayalım, abi bu kadın ışıdır bize yakışır mı.

5. Bilyorum……………………….kirdım ve sizi çok üzдум.

Activity 6: Repeat the following phrases while watching

It involves activities to teach nonverbal language such as body language, movements, gestures and facial expressions. It is very important in terms of communication to use body language, hand, face, and arm movements that reflect Turkish culture in the appropriate place and in a proper way. Scenes in which gestures and facial expressions reflect the Turkish language and culture of the students were selected from different parts of the film.

The students will practice the following sentences in the classroom by using the movements, tones, gestures and mimic expression by the actors in the movie. At the same time, the speeches in the film are made of drama by making pairs or groups in the classroom. Students memorize the speeches, gestures and facial expressions in the movie and stage in the classroom.

Bak oğlum beni iyi dinle
Kurban olayım söyle oğlum hadi inat etme
Kafana iyice koy
İyi hoşgeldin kızım
İyi hoşgeldin kızım
Selametle komutanım iyi günler
Allah belanı versin
Hadi geçmiş olsun
Köyü batsın
Alışır alışır, insan her şeye alışır
Maşallah ne kadar büyümüş Elif

Activity 7: Find the idiomatic/formulaic expressions

Students are asked to note the sentences they find most
effective in the movie scene they watched. The sentences that each student finds are written on the board. These formulaic and idiomatic expressions are memorized by the students. The expressions and context they are used in is shown by watching the film again.

1. Tahsin bu işi temizlememiz lazım.
2. Kararını verdiler artık Allah affetsin.
4. Kurban olayım şöyle kızım hadi inat etme.
5. Allah belani versin, hangi devirde yaşadıram.

Activity 8: False/True

Listen to the following sentences and put D for true and Y for false.

1. Teknede telefonun bozulmayacak bir de moralin bozulmayacak.
2. Siz hocaymışsınız üniversitede.
4. Sen hiç kuzu eti yemedin mi, gıcır gıcır.
5. Oğlum çok dikkatli ol vallahi çok tehlikeli.

Activity 9: Who said the following sentences (Cemal/Meryem'in Annesi/Meryem/İrfan)

1. Aha su temiz………………. al.
2. Cemal seninle biraz……………. konuşmamız lazırm.
3. Bana bak trenden inene kadar kimseye konuşmayacaksın,………. önünden ayrılsın.
4. Abi atamadım………………. Allah belani versin, hangi devirde yaşadıram.
5. Ben hiç günah yapmadım, onu…………….. hiçbir şey yapmadım.

Activity 11: Complete the sentences

1. Aha su temiz………………. al.
2. Cemal seninle biraz……………. konuşmamız lazırm.
3. Bana bak trenden inene kadar kimseye konuşmayacaksın,………. önünden ayrılsın.
4. Abi atamadım………………. Allah belani versin, hangi devirde yaşadıram.
5. Ben hiç günah yapmadım, onu…………….. hiçbir şey yapmadım.

Activity 12: Choose the correct one

1. Burası İstanbul baba burada (töre môre/mutluluk/namus) işlemez.
2. Türkiye ayakta duruyorsa (ailem/Mehmetçik/akrabalar) var diye duruyor.
3. Bir de su lütfen, zahmet oldu. (inşallah/estağfurullah/maşallah)
5. Cemal askerden gelene kadar sıkacağınız (dişimizi/burnumuza/kulağımımızı).

Activity 13: Rewrite the sentences

Some of the speeches selected from the movie are given

Meryem: Bibi.
Meryem Babaannesı: Söyle kızım.
Meryem: Horozlar niye ötmüyor.
Meryem Babaannesı: Ne kızım.
Meryem: Horozlar ötmüyor artıık.
Meryem Babaannesı: Horozlar hep öter yavrum.
Meryem: Ben artık duymuyorum Bibi.
Meryem Babaannesı: Sen hiç sabah olmasını istemiyorsun da ondan yavrum.

Dialogue 2

Cemal: Günaha belendin meryem namusumuzu kirlettin. Şimdi at kendini aşağıya kanın elime bulaşmasın.

Dialogue 3

A: Baba sen neden geldin.
B: Buraya hesap mı vereceğim sana.
A: Yok vermeyeceksin.
B: Cemal nerede.
A: Burasi İstanbul baba burada töre more işlemez.
B: Göreceğiz bakalım işler işlemez.

Activity 1: Let’s Role Play

Students are asked to act out following dialogues in front of the classroom.

Dialogue 1

Meryem Babaannesı: Kurban olayım söyle kızım, haydi inat etme, bak sen sôylersen, jandarmaya giderim mani olurum.
to the students and asked to make these sentences negative.
1. Biliyorum kalbini kirdim ve sizi çok üzüm.

2. Cemal abim geldi, beni İstanbul’a götürecekmiş.


4. Bu iş evin tek erkeği Cemale düşer.

5. İçim yanıyor Cemal.

Activity 14: Writing

1. Write a short summary on any issue you like in the film.

2. Write about any character you like in the film.

3. Do you have any “bad luck” in your culture.

4. Write a short summary of the film.

5. How would you like to end the film?

Activity 15: Group discussion

Discuss the following scenes.

1. In the scene Prof. İrfan takes Cemal and Meryem to his boat to live together, suppose that you are Irfan, would you invite them to your house? Discuss it in pairs.

2. If you were asked to kill someone, would you do it for someone? Discuss it within pairs.

3. In the film Cemal says “preparing the table for lunch is the duty of females” what do you think? In your culture who prepares the table for meal? Discuss it.

4. Meryem misses his village in the scene. Do you miss your country? What do you miss more?

5. Do you have customs about the male female relations? Discuss it with your friends.

Conclusion

Learning from films is motivating and enjoyable; motivation plays a key role in the success of foreign language learning. Film, as a motivator, also makes the language learning process more entertaining and enjoyable. Using movies as an authentic material helps teachers to provide students with enjoyable and fun lessons and encourage their students to practice their language skills with different types of expressions from movies.

Providing authentic language is another benefit of using films. Using films in the Turkish language classrooms is a great method to improve learners’ language skills, especially listening and speaking skills. Since films are a versatile tool for language teaching, the activities in this study can develop learners’ writing skill, some examples of writing tasks based on this film are, writing a short summary on any issue or character in the film, writing an alternative ending to the film. Using movies or authentic videos is a great way to help language students learn more about target language together with its culture with examples of Turkish in real situations out of the classroom. As the film is being watched, the learners will realize some sayings or daily talks expressed as they have never heard before. So, using a film like that will give the learners opportunity to grasp the right usage of such expressions.

While developing the activities about the film in the classroom, the objective of the course should always be kept in mind. And, teachers should not ignore the importance of planning useful and meaningful tasks for students before, while and after watching the film.

Films give a visual context to the learners, so the visuality makes it an invaluable language teaching material, allowing learners to understand more by interpreting the language in a visual context. Selecting appropriate films for learners is also one of the remarkable factors in terms of accomplishing the expected objectives.

This study brings authentic sample activities for teachers on how to use films to teach Turkish language. The pre-listening/watching activity “guessing” is important in determining the level of students and preparing them for film and lesson before watching. It also provides the opportunity to make comparison, since the questions will be answered after the film. The activity covers making predictions as well. These activities can be used as a warm-up activity before watching the film. Guessing activities are engaging and enables learners think; which is an ideal way to practice key vocabulary.
Guessing activities will arouse the learners’ interest and teachers will learn the readiness level of learners. The second “vocabulary” activity will prepare the students to comprehend the film and activate prior learning. Any pre-watching activity will be associated with developing learners’ comprehension strategies. All the activities are related to the film and they are organized from easy to the difficult. Before students watch the movie, teachers should plan for the activities. Teachers should bring all the materials about the film and all the activities should be ready before watching.

While listening/watching activities should be ready beforehand, teachers should know where to stop and ask questions. In the third activity “Pause and Play, guessing”, the teacher stops the movie and asks them to predict the continuation. In these activity learners watch video to confirm predictions made in pre-watching activities. Learners take note of content to answer comprehension questions (Activities 4-9). Students will develop note taking strategy with these activities. Learners are expected to remember key words, idiomatic and formulaic expressions while watching (Activity 5). The students will practice the sentences (Activity 6) with gestures and facial expressions reflecting the Turkish culture in the classroom by using the movements, tones, gestures and mimics expressed by the actors in the film. It is very important in terms of communication to use body language, hand, face and arm movements that reflect Turkish culture in the appropriate place and in a proper way. Thus, these activities will help learners grasp body language, movements, gestures and facial expressions. These nonverbal signals will improve daily communication. After listening/watching, activities are developed to have a detailed understanding of the film. Watching a film is not the main goal, but to develop the students’ linguistic skills and intercultural competencies. Group discussions, role playing and writing activities are good practice examples (Activities 10, 13, 14, 15). These activities can help students develop a positive perspective towards the target culture and find the opportunity to grasp the similarities and differences between their own culture and the target culture. By using this film, formulaic and idiomatic expressions, gestures and cultural elements of the Turkish language will be learned by the learners. Film activities could help improve learners’ vocabulary acquisition as they provide them with a wealth of information about a variety of vocabulary, phrases, and colloquial expressions (Activity 12).

As a suggestion, the films to be used in the lesson are at the levels determined in foreign language teaching should be appropriate. The speeches in the video chosen for basic students should be slow and understandable and contain fewer cultural elements. At an advanced level, students’ ability to understand and use the sentences they learned in real life is maximized by watching films or documentaries with native subtitles. The selection of suitable films is very important to achieve targeted language development. The teacher should be very careful and meticulous in choosing the movie. First, the content and language of the film should be carefully examined, and the language used in daily life should be preferred. It should be noted that the topics of the selected films include subjects and cultural elements that students can use the language outside of the classroom and may encounter in real life at any time.

**CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Satisfaction, utilitarian performance and learning expectations in compulsory distance education: A test of mediation effect

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People using the distance education system are students as well as consumers who use the services. In this sense, determining satisfaction with the use of this service is vital to the success of the system. The aim of this study is to determine the relationships between perceived utilitarian performance, expectation confirmation and learning satisfaction structures in universities that have been switched from formal education to distance education at a time due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Through online forms, 416 students who have entered the distance education system were reached. The data obtained were analyzed by following the basic principles of SEM and mediation effect steps put forward by Baron and Kenny. As a result of the analyses, it was determined that the level of expectation of distance education had a partial mediation effect on the relationship between perceived utilitarian performance and learning satisfaction. Results are important because they are a pioneer in the field. In addition, the results of the research were put forward by discussing with the developing literature and in this direction provided suggestions for the field professionals. As of March, 2020, the department of physical education and sports, which continues its education in the normal semester and does not have a distance education program, had to switch to distance education due to the COVID-19 pandemic and closed the spring semester in this way. In this context, a total of 416 students studying in various departments of PES and attending distance education courses were reached online. The research form was created through Google forms and delivered to students who took courses via e-mail.

Key words: Education quality, perceived benefit, distance education experience, perceived satisfaction.

INTRODUCTION

Although state institutions tend to ignore their goals, organizations such as universities should produce better effective solutions to this new and competitive context (Lin, 1997). To this end, permanent relationships with students may provide important advantages to higher education institutions. Especially the determination of the
satisfaction levels of students regarding services offered is critical in this way. Established long-term relationships may foster positive WOM behavior towards potential, current, and future students. Satisfaction outputs in higher education contain differences with the results of satisfaction perceived linearly. Public education service includes non-profit specific services. Different studies have been carried out on the basis of public higher education (Webb and Jagun, 1997; Eskildsen et al., 1999). Anderson and Sullivan (1993) stated that the effect of satisfaction in education services is more than expected. Conversely, the dissatisfaction with higher education means unsuccessful educational life for students (Astin, 1993; Wiese, 1994), but it will have significant negative consequences for higher education institutions (Ugolini, 1999).

Curran (2008) defined online distance education as a process in which students and teachers interact with each other regarding course contents through online technologies. In this context, Simonson et al. (2009) stated that if 80% or more of the content is delivered online, the course can be considered an online course. Distance online learning activities are constantly increasing in line with technological developments (Kim et al., 2011). Distance education system users are students as well as consumers who use the services. In general, Oliver (1997) defined satisfaction as an assessment of the degree of consumer satisfaction arising from need. Levels of inadequate or excessive satisfaction of needs have different effects on achieving satisfaction. In this respect, Oliver and De Sarbo (1988) found that positive satisfaction arising from expectation confirmation positively is the most important factor in ensuring satisfaction.

Discussions in the online distance education literature have reported different results in similar situations (Tenenbaum et al., 2001). While various studies conducted in the literature on the subject point to the negative effects of students' performance levels, some studies stated that there is no significant difference (Hislop, 2000). Quality in education is important in the presentation of all courses and programs regardless of physical or distance learning. The most important element in the quality framework for online education is perceived satisfaction. It has been determined in many studies (Kim and Hwang, 2012; Wang, 2017), including in different disciplines, that utilitarian performance is an important indicator of quality. Limited visual and communicative signals in online classrooms can cause perceived poor performance Muirhead (2000). In particular, the lack of face-to-face social interaction has been reported as a major disadvantage of online distance courses. In this respect, Rovai and Wighting (2005) stated that isolation, disconnection and loneliness prevented students from participating in the class activities. This will cause the students' perceived academic interests and motivations to decrease their perceived performance (Russo and Benson, 2005). This indicates that more research needs to be done to make effective conclusions about the performance of the effectiveness of online learning Kim et al. (2011).

There are various opinions related to the motivation of the emergence of online distance education. While Daniel (1999) stated dealing with increasing student numbers and reducing costs, Bischoff et al. (1996) reported that increasing learning outcomes is the main motivation. Apart from all these, it is very important to determine whether online teaching platforms are successful in learning. In this context, Carswell et al. (2000) found that cultural experience in distance education provides more difficult obstacles than technical experience. Althaus (1997) found that students with a higher level of computer experience were more likely to use online discussion groups and perceive them as useful. Readiness and motivation of volunteer participation is the key factor for success in online distance learning.

In light of all this information, this research has been designed to determine the relationships between the utilitarian performance, expectation confirmation and satisfaction levels perceived by the students participating in distance online education and to determine whether the level of expectation confirmation between the perceived utilitarian performance and their satisfaction levels is a mediation effect or not.

Theoretical background for research hypotheses

Hackman and Walker (1990) stated that technology can affect and change learning outcomes. In this context, Williams (1978) stated that face-to-face meetings could be replaced by video conferences in the near future. Early research on audio and video teleconferencing technologies on user expectations has found that they do not show user satisfaction compared to physical communication (Fowler and Wackerbarth, 1980; Williams, 1978). All research conducted to understand the product/service evaluation process in the formation of the satisfaction response is very important in this sense.

Consumer satisfaction is the response resulting from an assessment of how well a product or service consumption meets a need, desire, or goal (Oliver, 1997). Allen et al. (2002) have a linear relationship with quality perceived from the educational process and learning satisfaction. Astin (1993) defines student satisfaction as the perceived value of the student's educational experiences in an educational institution. Mulienburg and Berge (2005) found significant differences in the way students perceive their online experiences during learning. On-going discussions in the literature on the subject are that students' perceptions of learning expectations may affect their satisfaction levels (Carr, 2000). Kim et al. (2011) reported that online learning experience has a close relationship with learning.
satisfaction. Brown (2001) stated that one of the main reasons for this situation is the lack of courage caused by the lack of experience in participating in online distance learning activities.

The expectation disconfirmation theory (EDT) states the importance of explaining consumers' satisfaction with product or service and the nature of its impact on satisfaction. In general terms, failure of expectation confirmation can be expressed as a discrepancy between expectations and perceived performance of products/services. Yi (1990) stated that how positive the performance expectations are met based on the EDT theory will have significant effects on the level of satisfaction. The performance, which is perceived as the opposite of this situation, will stay away from expectations and will create a negative dissatisfaction.

Researches in the literature have examined the product/services with their utilitarian and hedonic dimensions in general (Batra and Ahtola, 1991; Van der Heijden and Sorensen, 2003). Utilitarian consumption performance, which was examined within the scope of the research, is expressed as externally motivated consumption. In this sense, consumption is a tool in reaching results and targets in general. Information technologies developing in parallel with technologies are important in utilitarian consumption. The distance education systems examined within the scope of the research are the tools to be used in reaching the learning objectives. Hassenzahl and Tractinsky (2006) stated utilitarian experience is goal-oriented and emphasizes the functional performance of technology to fulfill the goal/task. This is also in line with the findings of technology acceptance/adopter research. Utilitarian performance can be considered as a strong predictor of technology use intention (Johanna and van der Heijden 2000), and as an important predictor of satisfaction (Venkatesh, 2003).

METHODS

Research questions and hypotheses

Within the scope of all this theoretical information, research hypotheses for these research purposes were created as follows.

H1: Utilitarian performance perceived from online distance learning activities has a positive effect on students’ satisfaction.
H2: Utilitarian performance perceived from online distance learning activities has a positive effect on the distance education expectation confirmation of students.
H3: Expectation confirmation of online distance education activities has a positive effect on students’ educational satisfaction.
H4: Expectation confirmation of students from online distance learning activities has a partial mediation effect on the relationship between perceived utilitarian performance and satisfaction.

Data collection and sampling

As of March 2020, the department of physical education and sports of Siirt University (PES), which continues its education in the normal semester and does not have a distance education program, had to switch to distance education due to the COVID-19 pandemic and closed the spring semester in this way. In this context, a total of 416 students studying in various departments of Siirt University PES and attending distance education courses were reached online. The research form was created through Google forms and delivered to students who took courses via e-mail. Detailed information about the research was given in the form by adding that voluntariness was essential in participating in the research. In order to prevent one person from responding more than once, IP restrictions have been introduced on online forms. It was determined by the researchers that the research participants were similar to the faculty-student profile (department, gender, age, etc.) (Table 1). This provides clues that the research sample is distributed according to the general sampling.

Measurement tools

In order to determine the utilitarian performance perceived by the participants, the utilitarian structure of the Hedonic/Utilitarian (HED/UT) scale developed by Van der Heijden and Sorensen (2003) was used. The statements of the measurement tool developed by Oliver (1980) to determine whether participants' distance education expectations are met, and used by Deng et al. (2010) was revised for the purposes of the research. Finally, to determine the satisfaction levels of students in distance education, the statements of the measurement tools used for similar purposes in the literature (Bolliger and Wasilik, 2009; Deng et al., 2010) were used. All structures created in this context are evaluated in a five-point Likert expression range (5-Strongly Agree; 1-Disagree). In addition, the questionnaire included questions to determine the demographic characteristics of the participants (age, number of weekly workouts, etc.).

Data analysis

Firstly, kurtosis and skewness values were determined through the SPSS program to fulfill the normality assumptions of all structures used in the research. There are many opinions in the literature, which state that it would be appropriate to use SEM methodological principles in the analyses to be made for multivariate structures (Byrne, 1998; Hair et al., 2012). In this case, researchers decided to use the basic methodological principles of SEM in the research, which was structured to determine the relationships between multivariate structures. First of all, CFA was conducted for the structures to be used in the research. After the verification of the relevant structures, a structural model was established in line with the research hypotheses. To demonstrate the mediation effect in the structural model, the steps pointed out by Baron and Kenny (1986) were monitored through the AMOS program.

RESULTS

Confirmatory factor analysis

Structural equations were created by using the AMOS program to analyse the data collected within the scope of the research. In this context, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was applied to determine the validity and reliability levels of the scale items by loading them correctly in their respective structures (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Within the scope of the research, AVE values and factor
**Table 1.** Findings regarding the demographic characteristics of the participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Monitoring device</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td>Mobile phone</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>72.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Department</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17-22</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>PES</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>33.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23-24</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Sports Management</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>42.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 and over</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2.** Validity and reliability analysis of research structures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expectation confirmation of the distance education (AVE: ;77; α: ;92; CR: ;93)</th>
<th>Factor load</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My experience of using the distance education system meets my expectations</td>
<td>0.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The service level of the distance education system meets my expectations</td>
<td>0.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The benefit provided by the distance education system meets my expectation</td>
<td>0.919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The overall performance provided by the distance education system is above my expectations</td>
<td>0.923</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived utilitarian performance (AVE: ;70; α: ;93; CR: ;93)</th>
<th>Factor load</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The distance education system works</td>
<td>0.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distance education system is practical</td>
<td>0.731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distance education system is required</td>
<td>0.800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distance education system is functional</td>
<td>0.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distance education system is useful</td>
<td>0.914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distance education system is useful</td>
<td>0.913</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived quality of education (AVE: ;81; α: ;92; CR: ;93)</th>
<th>Factor load</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I learned useful information from the distance education system</td>
<td>0.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lessons were effective in the distance education system</td>
<td>0.898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The courses I took in the distance education system broadened my knowledge</td>
<td>0.909</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Measurement model goodness of fit values ($X^2 = 256.460$, $p = 0.000$, $X^2/SD = 3.612$, $GFI = 0.919$, $AGFI = 0.879$, $CFI = 0.971$, $TLI = 0.963$, $IFI = 0.971$, $RMSEA = 0.079$).

Loads of all statements were calculated to reveal discriminant and convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). As a result of the analyses, discriminant and convergent validities of the research structures were revealed (Table 2). To determine the reliability levels of the research structures, Cronbach’s alpha and composite reliability (CR) values were calculated and all structures were found to be well above the limits stated in the literature (Table 2). CFA was conducted to analyse the consistency of the measurement model created under the SEM with the data. It has been determined that the measurement model formed in expectation confirmation of distance education, perceived utilitarian performance and perceived quality of education structures sufficiently matches the data ($X^2 = 256.460$, $p = 0.000$, $X^2/SD = 3.612$, $GFI = 0.919$, $AGFI = 0.879$, $CFI = 0.971$, $TLI = 0.963$, $IFI = 0.971$ and $RMSEA = 0.079$).

Pearson correlation analysis was used to determine the correlation coefficients of all structures analysed within the scope of the research. As a result of the analyses, it was revealed that the correlation coefficients of all structures were not statistically significant and not above 0.85 (Table 2). This provides evidence of the external validity of the measurement model (Bagozzi et al., 1991).

After the validity and reliability of the research model, it was determined that the structural model created to determine the causal relationships between the structures used in the research (Perceived utilitarian performance, learning satisfaction and expectation confirmation) was well-matched ($X^2 = 249.507$, $p = 0.000$, $X^2/SD = 3.564$, $GFI = 0.880$, $AGFI = 0.920$, $CFI = 0.972$, $TLI = 0.964$, $IFI = 0.972$, $RMSEA = 0.079$). This provided an empirical opportunity to detect the mediation effect within the scope of the research Figure 1.

After ensuring the validity of the research model, the
research structural model was created to reveal the causal relationships within the hypotheses. It was determined that the goodness of fit values of the model was above the limits expressed in the literature. In this context, in line with the steps proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986), the mediation effect of expectation confirmation between the utilitarian performance and satisfaction structures was examined.

Firstly, a statistically significant relationship was investigated between the dependent variable and the independent variable (Table 4). A statistically significant relationship was found between the dependent variable (learning satisfaction) and the independent variable (Perceived utilitarian performance) of this study ($R^2 = 0.806; p < 0.01$). H$_1$ hypothesis formed in this direction was accepted. The second step was to determine a significant relationship between the independent variable and the intermediary variable. In this study, a statistically significant relationship was found between the independent variable (perceived utilitarian performance) and the intermediate variable (distance education experience) ($R^2 = 0.761; p < 0.01$). This result led to the acceptance of the generated H$_2$ hypothesis. Baron and Kenny (1986) stated that the intermediate variable was determined to have a statistically significant relationship between the dependent variable (when used with the independent variable in the model) as a third step. It was found that there was a significant relationship between the mediating variable (distance education experience) and the dependent variable (perceived quality of education) (when used with the independent variable in the model) ($R^2 = 0.728; p < 0.01$). In this case, the H$_3$ hypothesis was accepted. To talk about the mediation effect, the last step was that the coefficient of the independent variable in the basic model with the dependent variable was greater than the coefficient in the structural model. The results obtained within the scope of the study confirm this step (Table 3). As a result of the analysis of all steps stated by Baron and Kenny (1986), all the assumptions proposed were provided and it was revealed that expectation confirmation partially mediated between the perceived utilitarian performance and learning satisfaction and the H$_4$ hypothesis was accepted (Table 5).

**DISCUSSION**

The main motivation of this research is to determine the relationships between perceived performance, satisfaction and expectations of university students in the compulsory transition to distance education due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The acceptance of the hypotheses created within the scope of the research contributed to the discussions in the related literature, as well as provided important clues to the field scholar about the actions they need to take on a current topic. This research, especially regarding the current situation, reveals the importance of its results as being a pioneer in the literature.

Oliver and De Sarbo (1988) believe that expectation confirmation is the most important determinant in evaluating whether performance is better than expectation and satisfaction. Researches on this issue have provided empirical evidence that perceived product/service performance and performance expectations are an important function (Oliver, 1980; Khalifa and Liu, 2003). The results of this study are parallel to similar studies in the related literature within the scope of distance education activities. Relevant field scholars should conduct researches to determine student expectations and shape their distance education systems accordingly which researchers think will be important in the success of the distance education system.

Researches on online communication conference systems in the literature have shown that the attitudes of the user towards previous usage experience and skills affect user satisfaction positively (Kerr and Hiltz, 1982). Regarding the subject, Hostetter and Busch (2006) stated that students with online distance education experience have higher perceived educational performance. Trainings to be given on the use of online learning environments called virtual classrooms will be effective in meeting the educational expectations of students (Hiltz,
Table 3. Correlation matrix.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Utilitarian performance</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectation confirmation</td>
<td>0.883**</td>
<td>10.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived learning satisfaction</td>
<td>0.847**</td>
<td>0.782**</td>
<td>10.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>20.32</td>
<td>20.43</td>
<td>20.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>10.15</td>
<td>10.22</td>
<td>10.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.01.

Table 4. Model values before the mediating variable analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Std. R²</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H₁ learning satisfaction ≤ utilitarian performance</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>200.87</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.01.

Table 5. Model values after the mediating variable analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Std. R²</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H₂ expectation confirmation ≤ utilitarian performance</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>0.034</td>
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<td>80.92</td>
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<td>0.067</td>
<td>30.79</td>
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</tr>
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*p<0.01.

Within the scope of the research, the low levels of students’ satisfaction with regard to the relevant structures (μ: 2.42; SD: 1.16) may be related to the students’ lack of experience in these environments. In this direction, it is thought that the comprehensive visual and textual trainings that will be given to students for distance education system will be important in increasing their satisfaction and therefore their experience.

Online distance education platforms point to a serious cultural shift between students and teachers. Leaving the traditional face-to-face training activities and communicating in a largely asynchronous environment can be expressed as a radical change in this sense. This is a sign of a new culture with its own rules and traditions. Adaptation of all stakeholders in the distance education platform to the new culture can be stated as the key factor of success. The low utilitarian performance perceived by the students within the scope of the research can be expressed as a difficulty in adapting to the culture formed within this scope. It may be an important step for the field professionals to make studies adapting students to the new culture that will emerge. In this research, it was determined that a very important part of the students attended distance education courses via mobile phones. In this sense, making the applications developed only for mobile phones can be a very important step towards satisfaction.

There are important differences between the costs of distance education and traditional face-to-face education. The cost should be taken into account not only in the cost of the educational institution, but also in costs for transportation, displacement and the solution of various problems (housing, heating, etc.). In parallel with the increasing number of students and the digitalized world, it is inevitable that all educational institutions move to the distance education system partially or completely. In this sense, institutions that can perform distance education activities based on solid infrastructure foundations will gain important advantages on the way to student satisfaction.

Limitations and future research

All scientific research has some limitations for various reasons. In this sense, the reported limitations will provide important clues for future research. Within the scope of this research, basic methodological principles of quantitative research methods were used. The inclusion of qualitative research methodologies in new research may be important in providing more important insight into the subject. This research has determined student
satisfaction towards distance education systems and different results can be obtained in the research of holistic education satisfaction in new researches to be carried out. Within the scope of the research, only PES students were reached, which may be important in revealing the difference between departments in new researches for students studying different departments. Finally, testing new models that include different variables for the discussions developing in the literature will make important contributions to the literature.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests

REFERENCES


pedagogy in conventional on-campus and distance learning practice: An exploratory investigation. Learning and Instruction 11(2):87-111.


Empathy trend of student-athletes in Turkey: Ardahan example
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School of Physical Education and Sport, Ardahan University, Turkey.

The aim of the study is to analyze empathy tendencies among students who are involved in sporting activities at Ardahan Province. In accordance with this aim, this study has been conducted through the survey modelling of quantitative research methods. For the data analysis, T-Testing and ANOVA were applied. According to the obtained findings, it is detected that there is a significant difference in the ability of empathy in accordance with the duration of playing sports. The ability for empathy of those who play sports for 1 to 2 years is lower than the others. Along with this, the 9th question has the maximum value within the scale with the average value of 4.1089. The minimum value, on the other hand, belongs to the 12th question with the value of 3.586. The general average of the scale is within the level of agree with the value of 3.8215. Therefore, it can be said that the perception and level of empathic tendency is high. As a result, it would be accurate to claim that the empathic tendency levels of student-sportspeople in the province of Ardahan are relatively high and that the age of the participants is the determinant factor in their empathic behavior.

Key words: Sports, empathy, fairplay, sportsmanship.

INTRODUCTION
Empathy, defined as putting the self in somebody's shoes, is a crucial variable in effective and healthy communication among individuals and is generally divided into two as cognitive and emotional empathy (Eisenberg and Miller, 1987; Eisenberg and Strayer, 1987; Smith et al., 1989). Empathy is the behavior by which the person can get the correct understanding of the other person's feelings and thoughts by putting himself/herself in place of the other person. Yet, there are many theoretical features behind this seemingly simple definition. Describing empathy as a "gentle form of existence", Rogers (1983) asserts that empathy can only be achieved by those self-confident people who will not get lost as entering into the strange and absurd world of the others and who can easily return to their own world at any time (Rogers, 1983). According to Rogers' definition, empathy refers to the process in which a person places himself/herself within the position of the other person and in this way s/he looks at things from his/her perspective, and appropriately understands, feels, and conducts this activity.
situation back to the person (Dökmen, 2006). Sport is a social phenomenon that finds participation and audience from all variations of ages and professions in the world (Öztürk, 1997). Today, international achievements in sports have become highly crucial for daily life and morale of the society (Açıkađa and Ergen, 1990: 21). The excitement and relief that the sports provide for people mark a privileged position for sports.

If we take closer look at why empathy is so crucial, we come to the conclusion that our needs and motivations impact our judgments and perceptions. Therefore, the audience, though desperately, wants their favorite team to win and in this case, for example, the audience intends to see that the ball, which is declared to be “outside” by the referee, to be “inside”. In this case, the audience is on behalf of perceiving and interpreting everything in favor of their favorite team they support (Özbaydar, 1983). Therefore, excessive love, passion and ignorance prevent today’s people to stop their feelings and desire to win. In this case, a distorted fanaticism emerges. Thus, sports cease to be a means and become a cause to win (Erdem, 2000). In the atmosphere of sports, there is a high level of excitement and stress for spectators and athletes. This environment creates a dangerous area by leading the low-educated fan groups to fanaticism (Efe, 2001). During this above-mentioned atmosphere of excitement, the psychological state of athletes, coaches, referees, spectators and sportsmen is often ignored. Since success becomes the sole goal and focus of the whole process, elements such as fair play, olympism, psychology and sporting virtue can often be violated. Essentially, empathy would provide enhancing both the quality and pleasure of sports when the audience put themselves in the place of athletes, coaches and referees who train day and night; when the coaches put themselves in the position of referees, athletes and spectators; and when the referees put themselves in place of athletes, coaches and spectators (Öztürk et al., 2004). Developing the concept of empathy in the sports environment and developing social reactions to a peaceful state is extremely significant.

Purpose of the study

The aim of the study is to analyze empathy tendencies among students who are involved in sporting activities at Ardahan Province. Within this context, the research is limited to the public schools located in Ardahan provincial center and affiliated to the Ministry of National Education in order to render detailed and comprehensive assessments.

METHODOLOGY

Research method

While this study has been conducted through the survey modelling of quantitative research methods, during this process, a 5-point Likert scale has been applied as the data collection tool. While the quantitative research method, which is frequently utilized within scientific studies, aims to obtain objective, valid and reliable information, it also enables the representation of findings through their numerical values (Özsoy and Madran, 2010: 191; Kus, 2012: 106; Ekit, 2003: 47). With the survey modelling, through which the detailed data is obtained from large groups (Büyüköztürk et al., 2017: 97), a profile is aimed to be constructed by using the words and numbers (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2016: 54). In addition, the relationship between the different characteristics of the research group can be examined in this process (Fraenkel et al., 2012: 121).

Population and sampling

The population of this study consists of secondary education students who have been schooled at Ardahan Province. The institution whose duties and responsibilities are undertaken to manage the general schools, technical and vocational schools between primary and higher education institutions. The method of simple random sampling has been applied to reach a sufficiently large research group over this population. According to this method, a completely random, unbiased, simple and independent selection is carried out within the universe (Balci, 2016: 74; Kaya and Şahin, 2013: 24). Therefore, the research group of the study consists of 505 secondary school students who are educated in Ardahan provincial center and selected through the method of simple random sampling. Demographic characteristics of these students are presented by being visualized in Table 1.

Data collection tool

“A Study Developing Empathy Scale in The Sports Situations (ESSS)” developed by Erkış and Yakupoğlu (2001) was utilized. The confirmatory factor analysis and Cronbach’s Alpha reliability analysis are conducted in order to prove the structural validity and reliability of the scale with the current research data since the scale was developed by Erkış and Yakupoğlu through the data obtained from secondary school students.

Data analysis

In accordance with the aim of the study, the obtained data have been analyzed via SPSS 22 program at 95% confidence interval range. Descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, average, standard deviation) have primarily been utilized in this process. Then, it is assessed whether the data reveal normal distribution before the relationship tests in-between groups or not, and thereafter, the parametric testing techniques of T-Test and ANOVA analysis are conducted because the data reveal normal distribution. The values obtained from the results of the normality test are presented in Table 2.

RESULTS

In this part of the study, in accordance with the aim of the research, the findings attained through various analysis methods are presented by visualizing them via numerical data and the results have been interpreted separately (Table 2). As Table 2 is examined, it is identified that the 9th question has the maximum value within the scale with the average value of 4.1089. The minimum value, on the
Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the sample group.

<table>
<thead>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
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Data collection tool.

other hand, belongs to the 12th question with the value of 3.586. The general average of the scale is within the level of Agree with the value of 3.8215. When Table 3 is examined, it is revealed that there is a significant difference in the ability of empathy in accordance with the duration of playing sports. The ability for empathy of those who play sports for 1-2 years is lower than the others. Since there was a student from the 5th grade, s/he was included in the upper grade. Since the number of the participants from the age range of 19 and 20 was low,
they have been analyzed as 18 and above. Due to the small number of fathers and mothers with post-graduate degrees was low, they have been combined as post-graduates.

**DISCUSSION**

The research results are discussed within the light of the data in the current literature and evaluations regarding the levels of empathy attitude of the students are presented. Empathy, as a means of embodying another individual's states, may be particularly potent in situations that involve the trained human body in motion. Sports and performing arts are prime areas where embodiment is manifested and can be assessed (Sevdalis and Raab, 2014). While sports may seem like an unusual place to look for examples of empathy, ultra-running provides a few clear examples of how empathy leads to success (Hanold, 2011).

Empathy has a powerful impact that directs people from egoist orientation to prosocial behavior (Hoffman 2001). The studies have proven that empathy is a powerful factor in directing prosocial behavior (Kavussanu et al., 2009; Sezen and Yildiran 2012; Sevdalis, Raab, 2014). Empathy is a skill that can be developed through education (Dökmên 1990). Rogers (1975) emphasizes that empathic skills can be learned through education and that empathy can be learned from empathic people. Based on the idea that the empathic behaviors of the coaches would be reflected on the sportspeople, the coaches have great responsibilities for the development of their empathy skills and prosocial behaviors. Indeed, the researches that have been conducted support this situation (Hodge and Lonsdale, 2011; Bolter and Kipp, 2016; Chen et al., 2016). When people are taught humane communicative skills, and their prejudices and fears are pointed out, empathy becomes easier. In this way, their confidence in their healing skills develops and they become someone who is free from anxiety and whose presence is healing for others (Davis, 2005).

Sport performance is one of the main areas for the study of empathic tendencies because the right conditions are created. The individual can put effort or perceive actions that are evaluated, among others, through experiments with the help of neurophysiological measurements. Numerous recent scientific studies have investigated the bond between the empathic function and sport performance (Emery et al., 2009; Gano-Overway et al., 2009; Kontra et al., 2012; Lorimer and Jowett, 2009). Adler, one of the leading pioneers of the empathy studies, quotes the sentences of an English writer, whose name he does not precise, and reveals the essence of the concepts of social emotion and social interest by stating “seeing with the eyes of another, hearing with the ears of another and feeling with the heart of another” (Barret, 1981). In sports, these concepts form high-level abstract concepts and athletes who possess these characteristics will be able to exhibit prosocial behaviors towards both to their competitors and friends in such a way that suits sports ethics. Sports, morals and empathy are processes that interact with each other (Sezen 2009a). Indeed, Sezen (2009b)’s study shows that there

<table>
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<th>Expression</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>a.ave.</th>
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Table 3. The demographic characteristics and T-test and ANOVA results of the expressions.

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<td>3.887</td>
<td>1.887</td>
<td>0.131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>3.896</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.653</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>3.871</td>
<td>0.719</td>
<td>0.609</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>3.852</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-2499</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>3.653</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2500 and above</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>3.835</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

is an increase in the empathy levels of prospective physical education teachers who receive fair play education. Greif and Hogan (1973) assert that there are five dimensions of moral development as moral knowledge, socialization, empathy, autonomy and moral judgment, and that moral behavior can be explained by these dimensions.

As the research findings are assessed, it is detected that within the context of empathy tendencies, the 9th question has the maximum value within the scale with the average value of 4.1089. The minimum value, on the other hand, belongs to the 12th question with the value of 3.586. The general average of the scale is within the level of Agree with the value of 3.821. Therefore, it can be said that the level of empathic tendency is above average. When the results of the study are analyzed, only a significant difference has been detected in terms of duration of performing sports. There is no statistically significant difference in terms of age, gender, fatherly and motherly education levels, grade and income level. But in sports-related research, male and female participants appear to differ with regard to empathy. Specifically, one study compared empathic tendencies in the course of a sports-based intervention program whose aim was to create opportunities for prosocial development: Female participants obtained significantly higher scores compared to male participants on the perspective-taking subscale of Davis (1980)’s Interpersonal Reactivity Index (Brunelle et al., 2007).

In the results of the studies of Aydın (1996), Karakaya (2001), Duru (2002) and Uygun (2006), it is observed that women’s empathic skills are more advanced than men.
While these studies do not cast parallels with our study, they exhibit parallelism with the works of Koluayiş and Yığıter (2010). Dökmen (2005: 14–16) explains the fact that empathy skills in women are more developed than the empathic skills of men with the concept of “female sensitivity”. As a result, the following results were obtained in the light of the derived findings:

(i) According to the findings, there was a significant difference in empathy ability according to the duration of sports. Those who do sports for 1-2 years have lower empathy ability than others.

(ii) However, the 9th Question has the highest value in the scale with an average of 4,1089; the lowest value has the 12th question with 3,5861.

(iii) The overall average of the scale is at the level of 1 agree with 3.8215.

(iv) Therefore, it can be said that the perception and level of empathic tendency is high.

(v) As a result, the empathic tendency levels of student athletes in Ardahan province are relatively high.

(vi) It would not be wrong to say that their age is decisive in the form of empathetic behavior.

**CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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effect of denying feedback on a victim’s status to empathetic

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Universitesi, Sağlık Bilimleri Enstitüsü, İstanbul, Turkey.


Full Length Research Paper

Evaluation of attainments in 2018 Life Sciences curriculum based on the views of primary school teachers

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Life Science is a course that has been taught since the beginning of the first years of Turkish Republic. Life Science curriculum was revised in 1924, 1936, 1948, 1968 and 1998, 2004, 2009, 2015, 2017 and 2018. When the structure of 2018 Life Sciences curriculum is examined, it is seen that the curriculum is composed of general aims, values, basic survival skills, concepts, units and attainments. In Life Sciences curriculum themes were replaced by the units. In order to gain the features that are in the structure of Life Sciences curriculum (values, basic survival skills, concepts), “attainments” are formed in the units. In this study, primary school teachers’ evaluation about the attainments in 2018 Life Sciences curriculum was discussed. 323 primary school teachers working in Pamukkale and Merkezefendi districts of Denizli province are included in the sample of the study; they were chosen utilizing random sampling technique among first second and third year primary school teachers. In the study, data were collected using the scale titled “Evaluating Life Sciences curriculum in terms of teachers’ views.” Cronbach alpha value was 0.895 and 0.978 in the original form and in this study, respectively. Primary school teachers are of the opinion that “I agree” on the attainments in 2018 Life Science curriculum.

Key words: Life Sciences, curriculum, attainment, primary school teacher, views.

INTRODUCTION

Individuals in the society must receive a qualified education to meet the requirements of today’s world. In order to achieve this, qualified curriculums that would contribute to individual and social development should be designed. The purpose of a curriculum is to train individuals with the required qualifications in line with the general and specific objectives of the education system. Changes occur in qualities of individuals who aim to be trained in accordance with the changing conditions and needs. That is why it is unavoidable to make adjustments and changes in curriculums to meet the changing needs (Karaman, 2019: 351). There are different reasons for revising a curriculum. The reasons include improving the quality of teaching (Tay and Baş, 2015:346), advancements...
in science and technology (Sönmez and Kılıçoğlu, 2016: 38), innovation and developments in teaching and learning theories and approaches (MoNE, 2018). The most important stakeholder in the adjustment and development of the curriculum is the teacher who is the practitioner of the curriculum (Öztürk and Kalafatçı, 2017: 103). Teachers have an important role in making adjustments and developments in a curriculum as well as to implement it and identify its inadequacies and eliminating them. It is a fact that there is a need for feedback about the status of a curriculum during implementation in every level of education. In order for the changes and adjustments made in the curriculum to be successful, it is very important how the revised program is perceived and to what extent it is adopted by the teachers especially (Karaman, 2019: 364). One of the programs that are readjusted according to changing conditions is Life Science curriculum.

Life Science is a course that has been taught since the beginning of the first years of Turkish Republic. It has been revised in a number of times since 1924. Life Science curriculum was revised in 1924, 1936, 1948, 1968 and 1998, 2004, 2009, 2015, 2017 and 2018 (MoNE, 2004, 2009, 2015, 2017, 2018). The latest revision made in Life Science curriculum was in 2018. Each and every Life Science program implemented had unique features. For instance, 1968 Life Sciences curriculum was implemented for the longest time. 1998 Life Sciences curriculum is the eight-year compulsory education period. 2004 Life Sciences curriculum; on the other hand, it is designed based on constructivism. With 2004 Life Sciences curriculum, it is seen that a human centric approach was adopted. It handles human as a whole and as both subject and the object of the change (MoNE, 2004). Life Sciences curriculum that was put into practice in 2004 was revised in 2009 (Alak and Nalçaci, 2012:38). While 2009 Life Sciences curriculum was designed based on the following approaches; "child centred" "holistic teaching approach" "spiral approach" "thematic approach" and "a dynamic approach based on participation principle", 2015 Life Sciences curriculum, when compared to 2004 curriculum in terms of objectives, was more intelligible, includes less skills and attainments, values are modified, topics about Kemalism are not included and it includes decreased evaluation (Tay and Baş, 2015; MoNE, 2009, 2015). 2017 Life Sciences curriculum also puts child in the centre and adopts spiral, participatory and holistic approach. Moreover, it has a unit based approach and "skill based approach" has also been adopted (Uçuş, 2017:92).

When the structure of 2018 Life Sciences curriculum is examined, it is seen that it is composed of general objectives, values, basic survival skills, concepts, units and attainments (MoNE, 2018). Moreover, it is seen that the curriculum is composed of dimensions such as perspective, innovations, assessment and evaluation (MoNE, 2018). The perspective of Life Sciences curriculum has been determined as training individuals with knowledge, skills and behaviour integrated with our values and competencies (MoNE, 2018). Competencies are among the significant differences among the Life Science curriculums. The program tried to cover competencies (MoNE, 2018), which are the skill ranges students will need in their personal, social, academic and business lives both at national and international level. When the objectives are examined it is seen that 14 objectives are stated as special aims in the program (MoNE, 2018). In Life Sciences curriculum themes are replaced with units. In order to gain the features that are in the structure of Life Science curriculum (values, basic survival skills, concepts), "attainments" are formed in the units. It is seen that unit perception started in 2015 and is maintained in 2017 and 2018 programs. Same units are included in Life Sciences course during 1st, 2nd and 3rd year. It is stated that instead of one dimensional assessment maximum variety and flexibility is adopted as the basic principle of the program in assessment and evaluation. According to Altun and Güler (2020: 70-72), primary school teachers stated that with revised version of 2018 Life Sciences curriculum, it became a simpler and more practical and the importance assigned to the course increased. On the other hand, they think that subjects about Atatürk and national independence war have not been included enough.

Attainments in a curriculum are expressions that include knowledge, skills, attitude and values as well as clearly observable behaviours of children (MoNE, 2004). In attainments, being able to form a connection between school and real life was taken as a base. There are 148 attainments in 2018 Life Sciences curriculum during the first three years. There are 50 attainments in the first year, 53 in the second year and 45 in the third year (MoNE, 2018). A decrease in the number of attainments has been observed from 2004 to 2018. When there were 376 attainments in 2004 curriculum, there were 292 attainments in 2009 curriculum, 146 attainments in 2015 curriculum, 144 attainments in 2017 curriculum and 148 attainments in 2018 curriculum (MoNE, 2004, 2009, 2015, 2017, 2018). When the characteristics of the attainments are examined it is seen that they are shorter, more intelligible and appropriate to students’ level. Çakır (2007) and Türkyılmaz (2011) reported that primary school teachers think that attainments are appropriate to the students’ levels. It can be asserted that the attainments in Life Sciences curriculum are in accordance with the objectives (Öztürk and Kalafatçı, 2017). Through the attainments children are expected to gain knowledge, skills, values, attitude and behaviours. It is determined that attainments in each unit are oriented towards the knowledge, skills, values and concept that students should be equipped within the unit. When the values dimension of 2018 curriculum is examined it is seen that only 24 values out of 148 values are about national values and others are about nation, tradition and
customs, state, country and deeds and when their distribution to the units examined they were limited to two units (Esenen and Sadioğlu, 2019: 24). Moreover, considering values as national, spiritual, human and social values is remarkable in terms of showing the importance assigned to the values (Avcı and Kayabaşı, 2018:44). It can be suggested that attainments in first year Life Sciences curriculum are appropriate and adequate. According to Ünsal (2018:1087), primary school teachers think that attainments are simple and appropriate to students’ level. In other countries such as Australia, the Life Education program provides students with practical information about a range of safety, health and wellbeing topics (Regina Hill Effective Consulting Pty Ltd, 2015). It can be said that this situation is similar to the Life Sciences program in our country.

With the revision made in 2004, constructionist approach was adopted in Life Sciences curriculum. With this revision, the attainments in the Life Sciences program were rearranged according to the constructivist approach (Aykça, 2011; Sözer and Yıldırım, 2017). A number of studies have been conducted about the attainments in the renewed Life Sciences curriculum. Altun and Güler (2020) stated that reducing the number of attainments in the Life Sciences curriculum, the appropriateness to the level of students, integration with values, and supporting the skills are well received by primary school teachers. According to Özgüç (2019), the attainments in the 2nd grade Life Sciences curriculum coincide with the objectives, can contribute to the development levels of the students and are intelligible. On the other hand, it was emphasized that skills did not coincide with attainments. Karaman (2019) also highlighted that updating attainments of Life Sciences curriculum would contribute to students’ level and needs positively. Aktaş and Çetin (2019) claimed that attainments in 2015, 2017 and 2018 programs had a similar structure. Temiz (2019) suggested that attainments in Life Sciences program are for character education. Esemen and Sadioğlu (2018) indicated that the ratio of national values to the general values is lower in the attainments of the Life Sciences curriculum. According to Ünsal (2018), the attainments in the new Life Sciences 1st grade curriculum are clear, intelligible and appropriate for students’ level. Tay and Baş (2015) and Gülzalı (2017) stated that attainments in 2015 and 2017 Life Sciences curriculums are appropriate for the readiness level of the students. Öztürk and Kalafatçı (2017) claimed that attainments do not have features to support and increase students’ scientific thinking, critical thinking, problem solving, creative thinking skills and learning curiosity. Çelik (2017), on the other hand, asserted that attainments are adequate in acquiring the skills. Alak and Naçiçaci (2012) reported that there were no significant differences between the views of primary school teachers about the attainments of Life Sciences curriculum in terms of gender, experience, educational status. Türkylmaz (2011) stated that there was a significant difference in favour of female primary school teachers in terms of their ideas about the attainments in Life Sciences curriculum. According to Şenay (2015), primary school teachers are of the opinion that attainments are partially appropriate in acquiring skills. According to Alak (2011), there were no significant differences between the views of primary school teachers about the attainments of Life Sciences curriculum in terms of gender, seniority, educational status and the level of the class they teach. Tuncer (2009) suggested that while primary school teachers mostly accepted that attainments were clear, they partly agree that attainments meet the needs.

The Life Sciences course that has been taught since the foundation of the Republic to the present day brings important contributions to the organization of social life. Teachers help individuals to acquire basic life skills through the Life Sciences curriculum. Understanding and adopting the attainments in the Life Sciences curriculum by the primary school teachers, who are in the position of practitioners, is important in terms of achieving these attainments at the desired level. No matter how good the attainments in the Life Sciences curriculum are, they have a meaning as far as they are understood and adopted by the primary school teachers who are practitioners. When the related studies in literature are reviewed it is seen that understanding and adopting the attainments in Life Sciences curriculum by primary school teachers has been underlined. There is a need for new studies on how primary school teachers perceive attainments of the Life Sciences curriculum that was renewed and started to be implemented in 2018. In this study, primary school teachers’ evaluation about the attainments in 2018 Life Science curriculum was discussed. Sub-objectives addressed for the purpose of the research are as follows; (1) What are the views of the primary school teachers about the attainments in 2018 Life Sciences curriculum? (2) Do primary school teachers’ views about the attainments in 2018 Life Sciences curriculum differ in terms of their gender, professional experience, educational status and the class they teach?

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The research was conducted in order to determine the views of the primary school teachers working in the 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades of primary schools regarding the elements of 2018 Life Sciences curriculum. In accordance with the aim to understand and present the current situation a survey design was utilized. In survey models, it is aimed to try to present the current or past situation as it exists (Karasar, 2009: 77); reveal the views of the participants about the case or the phenomenon (Karakaya, 2009: 59); need to identify the attitude, actions, opinions and beliefs of the individuals (Christensen et al., 2015: 370-371); describe the situation as it exists (Robson, 2015: 296). In this study, the views of the primary school teachers about the attainments in 2018 Life Sciences
curriculum were asked. The study was conducted with a group that represents the target population of the study (Karasar, 2009: 79). Target population of this study consists of all primary school teachers working in Pamukkale and Merkezezefendi districts of Denizli Province. Teachers working in Pamukkale and Merkezezefendi districts of Denizli province are included in the sample of the study; they were chosen utilizing random sampling technique among first second and third year primary school teachers. While creating the sample group, teaching 1st, 2nd, and 3rd classes during 2019-2020 academic year is taken as the basic criteria. 323 primary school teachers were included in sample group using random sampling method. Demographic information about the teachers included in the sample group is presented in Table 1.

Data were collected using “Evaluation of Life Sciences curriculum based on views of the teachers” scale developed by Türkyılmaz (2011). The scale is composed of two parts. The first part consists of personal information questions asked the primary school teachers who are the study participants and the second part consists of questions about the attainments of the curriculum. In the scale, there are 22 items concerning the attainments of the Life Sciences curriculum. In the second part of the scale about the attainments 2nd item that expresses “It is designed based on individual, society and science which are the resources of the curriculum” was changed into, “in accordance with 2018 curriculum objectives it is designed in an integrated way that complies with the values and competencies that are the objectives of our educational system”. The tenth item on the same part which expresses “it will equip students with entrepreneurship skills” is changed into “it will equip students with entrepreneurship and initiative”. Similarly in item 13, “theme” was replaced with “unit”, and in item 18 “inter discipline” was replaced with “competencies”. Cronbach Alpha for the scale was calculated as 0.895 in the original form and 0.978 in this study.

While analysing the data, for primary school teachers’ opinions about the attainments in Life Sciences curriculum arithmetic mean and standard deviation were used. In order to find out whether there is a difference between the views of primary school teachers, first normality of the data distribution was checked. Kolmogorov Smirnov test was utilised to check normality in data distribution. At the end of Kolmogorov Smirnov test results it was seen that the data have normal distribution [K-S] = 1.145; p=0.145). As data distribution is normal, to identify the difference between views of teachers, parametric tests, t test and ANOVA were run.

Assuming that the intervals are equal, score intervals were calculated in the following way; interval number is divided into option number (4/5= 0.80). Gathered value was added starting from the lowest option and scores were interpreted as the following way; 1.00-1.80 “Totally disagree”, 1.81-2.60 “Disagree”, 2.61-3.40 “Partly agree”, 3.41-4.20 “Agree” and 4.21-5.00 “Totally agree”.

**FINDINGS**

The views of the primary school teachers regarding the attainments in the 2018 Life Sciences curriculum are given in Table 2.

According to Table 2, about the appropriateness of the attainments in 2018 Life Sciences curriculum, the teachers had the opinion of “agree”. However, none of the primary school teachers chose “totally agree” option for any item in the scale. Primary school teachers are of the opinion that there are deficiencies in the attainments of 2018 Life Sciences curriculum. They stated that they “partly agree” about association of attainments in the 2018 Life Sciences curriculum with the topics of “Kemalism”. Primary school teachers think that “Kemalism” topics are not sufficiently included in the attainments in the 2018 Life Sciences curriculum.

In considering whether there is a significant difference between the views of the primary school teachers about attainments in the 2018 Life Sciences curriculum in terms of gender, there is no significant difference between the views of the primary school teachers (Table 3).

In considering whether there is a significant difference between the views of the primary school teachers about attainments in the 2018 Life Sciences curriculum in terms of experience, there is no significant difference between the views of the primary school teachers (Table 4).

In considering whether there is a significant difference between the views of the primary school teachers about attainments in the 2018 Life Sciences curriculum in terms

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**Table 1. Distribution of the teachers participated in the study in terms of demographic variables.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>51.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-16 years</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 years and over</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>83.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate degree</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completion of BA</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class they teach</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Class</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Class</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Class</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
of educational status, there is no significant difference between the views of the primary school teachers (Table 5).

In considering whether there is a significant difference between the views of the primary school teachers about attainments in the 2018 Life Sciences curriculum, there is no significant difference between the views of the primary school teachers in terms of the class they teach (Table 6).

**DISCUSSION**

In this study, when the views of the primary school teachers about the attainments in the Life Sciences 2018 curriculum were investigated, the primary school teachers chose “agree” option for almost all of the statements in the scale, and “partly agree” to the only statement related to Kemalism. It can be claimed that primary school teachers have a positive point of view about the attainments in 2018 Life Sciences curriculum. Moreover, primary school teachers had similar views about the attainments in 2018 Life Sciences curriculum in terms of their gender, educational status, experience and the class they teach.

Considering the results of the research studies in the literature, it can be concluded that the primary school teachers generally do not consider the changes in the Life Sciences curriculum in a negative way. According to Altun and Güler (2020) and Karaman (2019), teachers had a positive idea about reducing the number of attainments in the Life Sciences curriculum, appropriateness to the level of students, integration with values, and supporting the gain of skills are well received by them. The findings in this study coincide with the findings of Altun and Güler (2020). According to Özgüç (2019), the attainments in the 2nd grade Life Sciences curriculum coincide with the objectives, and they are intelligible expressions that can contribute to the development levels of the students. On the other hand, the skills do not coincide with the attainments. The findings of this study are parallel to findings of Özgüç (2019) except the findings about skills.

According to Ünsal (2018), the attainments in the new Life Sciences 1st grade curriculum are clear, intelligible and appropriate for the students’ level. The findings of this study are in harmony with Ünsal’s findings. Esemen and Sadioğlu (2018) indicated that the ratio of national

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item number</th>
<th>Item of the scale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Appropriate for the general objectives of the Life Sciences course</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>It overlaps with the unit they are associated</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Suggested allocated time is enough</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Appropriate for readiness level of children</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>It is designed in an integrated way that complies with the values and competencies that are the objectives of our educational system</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Expressed clearly and intelligibly</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students use Turkish accurately, effectively and beautifully</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students gain forming communication skills</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to form the sense of self-respect</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to gain the habit to use the resources efficiently</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to develop the sense of self-confidence</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to think critically</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to gain self-management skill</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>It is associated with competencies sufficiently</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to familiarize basic concepts of science.</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to gain skills of entrepreneurship and initiative.</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to develop problem solving skills</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to think creatively</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to gain the skills of benefiting from information technology</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to gain the skills of making use of information technology</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>It has the quality that will enable students to gain the skills of making research</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>It is sufficiently associated with topics of Kemalism</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>Partly agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. The views of the primary school teachers regarding the attainments in the 2018 Life Sciences curriculum in terms of gender variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>ss</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>-0.695</td>
<td>0.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

X, Mean; ss, sums of square; sd, standard deviation, t, t value, f, F value, p, value.

Table 4. The views of the primary school teachers regarding the attainments in the 2018 Life Sciences curriculum in terms of experience variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of the variance</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>3.249</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.083</td>
<td>2.054</td>
<td>0.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>165.053</td>
<td>0.527</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>168.303</td>
<td>316</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

sd, Standard deviation; f, F value; p, p value.

Table 5. The views of the primary school teachers regarding the attainments in the 2018 Life Sciences curriculum in terms of educational status variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variance</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>1.595</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.532</td>
<td>0.998</td>
<td>0.394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>166.708</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>0.533</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>168.303</td>
<td>316</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. The views of the primary school teachers regarding the attainments in the 2018 Life Sciences curriculum in terms of the class they teach variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variance</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>165.12</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>168.30</td>
<td>316</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

values to the general values is lower in the attainments of the Life Sciences curriculum. The findings of the study do not coincide with Esemen and Sadioğlu’s findings. Findings of Tay and Baş (2015) and Güldali (2017) that claim the attainments in Life Sciences curriculum are appropriate for the students’ readiness level is concurrent with the findings of this study. Öztürk and Kalafatçı (2017) claimed that attainments do not have features to support and increase students’ scientific thinking, critical thinking, problem solving, creative thinking skills and learning curiosity. The findings of the study do not coincide with their findings. In this study, primary school teachers think that attainments are effective in acquisition of skills. Based on this, it can be asserted that the revision made in 2018 Life Sciences curriculum is received well by primary school teachers. Çakır (2007), Nalçacı and Alak (2012) and Alak (2011) reported that the views of teachers about the attainments in Life Sciences curriculum do not differ in terms of teachers’ gender, experience and educational status. Similar findings were obtained in this study as well. Tuncer (2009)’s findings are consistent with the findings of this study in which he reported primary school teachers considered the attainments in 3rd year Life Sciences curriculum appropriate, intelligible, and consistent. Similar to the finding of the study, Türkyılmaz (2011) identified a difference in the view of teachers in terms of gender. However, there is no significant difference in the view of teachers in terms of gender. While primary school teachers considered attainments about Kemalism adequate (Türkyılmaz, 2011), in this study they think that they are partly adequate. According to Çelik (2017)
primary school teachers think that attainments help the students acquire skills of creative thinking, problem solving and critical thinking quite well. In this study, primary school teachers think that the skills about the attainments in Life Sciences curriculum are acquired as well. According to Tuncer (2009), most of the primary school teachers think that attainments are intelligible and they partly agree that they coincide with the needs. The finding of the study is concurrent with the finding that the attainments are intelligible but not concurrent with the finding that they partly coincide with the needs.

When the results of the research on Life Sciences curriculum are evaluated, it is seen that there is not a big difference in the views of the primary school teachers. For this purpose, it would be more appropriate to carry out narrower and in-depth studies with qualitative designs about the attainment for primary school teachers. Because, what primary school teachers who are the practitioners of the Life Sciences curriculum think is important for the development and implementation of the program. In addition to this quantitative study, narrower and deeper studies should be designed with qualitative design in which the views of the classroom teachers are taken.

**CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Ministry of Education (2009). Social studies curriculum it was taken from the internet address of mebgovtr.

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Ministry of Education (2018). Social studies curriculum it was taken from the internet address of mebgovtr.


Scale of vocabulary learning strategies for learners of Turkish as a foreign language: A scale development study

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It does not seem to be possible to teach all the words needed by learners of Turkish as a foreign language in the target language just through classroom applications. Thus, students should be taught vocabulary learning strategies that will contribute to their independent learning and raise their awareness of vocabulary learning processes. In this regard, the purpose of the current study is to develop a scale to determine the vocabulary learning strategies used by learners of Turkish as a foreign language. The data of the current study were collected from a total of 507 students attending Turkish teaching centres in five different cities of Turkey. In the development of the scale, all stages of scale development process were followed and then the required reliability calculations were performed. On the basis of the scores obtained from the scale, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to test the construct validity of the scale. As a result of the factor analysis, it was found that the scale consists of four factors that are “learning process”, “technological material”, “psychological process” and “visual materials” and its Cronbach Alpha internal consistency value was calculated to be 0.86. After the completion of all the stages of scale development, a 23-item scale whose psychometric features had been examined was developed to be used to determine students’ vocabulary learning strategies.

Key words: Teaching Turkish as a foreign language, vocabulary learning strategies scale, vocabulary, word.

INTRODUCTION

In the process of teaching Turkish as a foreign language, the ultimate goal is to make the learner proficient in listening, speaking (verbal production and verbal interaction), reading and writing skills. One of the basic elements necessary for the accomplishment of the stated goal is to strengthen the learner’s vocabulary in the target language. The learner can only use his/her listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in the target language to the extent which is allowed by his/her vocabulary. In this regard, Nation (1990) states that the difficulties faced by learners in using their comprehension and expression skills are largely due to the lack of vocabulary. Gough (2001) emphasizes that there is a direct relationship between language skills and vocabulary and the existing
research shows that the vocabulary that the learner has about the target language predicts the development of language skills (Meara and Jones, 1987; Karatay, 2007; Özbay and Melanlioğlu, 2008). Seen from this perspective, the vocabulary possessed by the learner draws the boundaries of his success in language learning as well as the extent to which he/she carries the language he/she has learned to his/her daily life.

The vocabulary that can be explained as the sum of the words in a vocabulary repertoire of a person or a society (Korkmaz, 1992) can be described as a complementary area in the teaching of Turkish as a foreign language. In this respect, Karadağ (2013) states that the development of vocabulary forms the basis for the teaching of all language skills. Skehan (2003) says that the word is the basis of both language use and language teaching.

The vocabulary possessed by a learner consists of active and passive vocabulary. While the words defined as active vocabulary refer to the words used by the learner to produce in writing and speaking, the words defined as passive vocabulary refers to the words learned by the learner through reading and listening but not used. Baş (2006) states that the passive vocabulary is broader than the active vocabulary. The reason for this is explained by the fact that many words that are not used while talking or writing can be used while listening or reading. It is necessary to support the student's vocabulary in the target language with words to be used both actively and passively.

To this end, Karadağ (2013) lists the points to be considered in applications to be made for vocabulary teaching:

1. Priority should be given to the most frequently used words of the language.
2. Words to be learned by different age groups should be determined.
3. Meaning relations should be established between the known and newly learned words.
4. The use of the words taught should be ensured.
5. The pronunciation features of words should be taken into consideration.
6. Spelling of words should be taught.
7. Context-based vocabulary teaching should be performed.
8. Cognates should be taken into consideration in vocabulary teaching.
9. Learners should be encouraged to master vocabulary learning strategies.

Considering the listed items, it is understood that it is important to teach a word with its all aspects to the learner and to synthesize the prior information with new information while doing this. Existing vocabulary is an important step in teaching new words. The words the student encounters for the first time are stored in memory by associating them with the known words having close or similar meanings to these new words (Kurudayoğlu, 2005). Indeed, it is a fact that the most important variable affecting new learning is prior information. Demirel (2013) states that it is easier for learners to learn words specific to the same concept area. Memiş (2018) states that providing students with morphological awareness in the target language positively affect their efforts to improve vocabulary. For this reason, vocabulary should be seen as vocabulary units to be learned in a meaningful and contextual language rather than a long and boring list that needs to be defined and memorized (Büyükikiz and Hasirci, 2013). According to Stahl and Nagy (2006), the “importance and benefit” level of words should be taken into consideration as a general criterion in determining the words that should be taught to learners. Aksan (2009) believes that frequency should be used as a criterion in the selection of words to be taught to learners.

Learning a word means an exact match or integration between the word's sensation and meaning (Karadağ, 2013). In this sense, the learner is expected to have knowledge of the word's form (prefix-root, pronunciation and spelling), meaning (concept area, connation world, type) and usage (collocation, limitation, grammatical function) (Nation, 1990). One of the difficulties experienced by foreign language learners in the process of language learning is to recall the newly learned words. Chang and Millet (2014) state that a word must be repeated 5 to 16 times, and this repetition must be supported by use for this word to stick in the mind of the learner. Besides repetition, elements such as the meaning of the word in context, the learner's language ability, the methods and techniques used in the process, and the quality of the instructor are also considered to be important variables for any word to be permanently stored in the mind (Hu and Deng, 2007; Kim and Gilman, 2008; Brown, 1993). Many new methods and applications have been proposed in recent years to develop vocabulary in students and it has been emphasized that the activities focusing on vocabulary development should not be limited to teaching primary meanings of some certain words (Çalışkan, 2010; Büyükikiz and Hasirci, 2013; Karadağ, 2013).

In the classes where Turkish is taught as a foreign language, the limits of what to give to learners and what to expect from them in relation to vocabulary teaching are defined in the European Common Framework as lexical, grammatical, semantical, phonological under the main heading “Communicative Language Competences” and in the sub-dimension “Grammatical Competences”. The content of the four items listed earlier are directly related to vocabulary knowledge.

Lexical competence is explained as follows: “It covers the vocabulary knowledge of a language which consisted of lexical and grammatical elements and the ability of using this knowledge” (TELC, 2013). Accordingly, the elements related to vocabulary consist of fixed expressions which consist of many words and learned
Table 1. Expectations from students of different levels in terms of vocabulary range.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>Has a good command of a very broad lexical repertoire including idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms; shows awareness of connotative levels of meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions; little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies. Good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Has a good range of vocabulary for matters connected to his/her field and most general topics. Can vary formulation to avoid frequent repetition, but lexical gaps can still cause hesitation and circumlocution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Has a sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some circumlocutions on most topics pertinent to his/her everyday life such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events. Has sufficient vocabulary to conduct routine, everyday transactions involving familiar situations and topics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>Has sufficient vocabulary for the expression of basic communicative needs. Has a sufficient vocabulary for coping with simple survival needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>Has a basic vocabulary repertoire of isolated words and phrases related to particular concrete situations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Competences related to control of vocabulary repertoire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Competence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>No descriptor available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>Can control a narrow repertoire dealing with concrete everyday needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Shows good control of elementary vocabulary but major errors still occur when expressing more complex thoughts or handling unfamiliar topics and situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Lexical accuracy is generally high, though some confusion and incorrect word choice does occur without hindering communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Occasional minor slips, but no significant vocabulary errors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>Consistently correct and appropriate use of vocabulary.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and used as whole and simple words. While fixed phrases (Good morning! I am pleased), proverbs, idioms, stereotypical metaphorical expressions, intensifiers, fixed frames, expressions that have fallen out of use constitute sub-steps in the first category, simple words correspond to the words that make sense alone (noun, verb, adjective, adverb, days, months, weight and units of measure) (TELC, 2013).

What is expected of the students from different levels in terms of vocabulary knowledge in the European Common Framework of Reference is shown in Table 1 (TELC, 2013).

As can be seen in Table 2, there is no expectation from the student in level A1 in terms of controlling his/her personal vocabulary. This is largely because of the fact that the student has just been introduced to a new language and the subjects taught in level A1 generally focus on the teaching of fixed phrases. B1 is called the threshold level. Therefore, for this level, the student is expected to have mastered the basic vocabulary of the target language (family relations, numbers, names of

and as in their daily life. In level C1, the student is expected to have a rich lexical repertoire that allows him/her to understand subtle differences in meaning. In line with the competences defined in Table 1, the competences related to the student’s Control of Vocabulary Repertoire somehow describing the student’s world of vocabulary for different levels are also presented. These competences are shown in Table 2.
body parts, etc). While students are expected to have vocabulary sufficient not to hinder communication in level B2, they are expected to actively use the words they have learned in level C.

After vocabulary competence, grammatical competence is defined and within this grammatical competence, issues such as types of words, syntax, phonology and semantics are also discussed. Within semantic competence, relationships between words and general context (such as reference, connotation) and inter-lexical relations (synonym, antonym, collocations, etc.) are mentioned. Phonological competence on the other hand involves teaching prosodic features of the target language (TELC, 2013). The framework includes grammatical subjects to improve the student’s vocabulary. When the four sub-dimensions of grammatical competence are considered, it is understood that teaching a word with its all aspects is prioritized in research on vocabulary.

The Common European Framework of Reference does not specify which words should be taught in each level by providing vocabulary lists. Yet, it suggests that the following points should be taken into consideration in the selection of the words to be taught:

1. Words required for students to achieve communicative tasks.
2. Words that comply with the language learning objective of the target group.
3. Words that are most frequently used in daily life in the target language.
4. Words repeated in the texts encountered by the student (TELC, 2013).

In addition to these suggestions, the framework answers the question “How the vocabulary of language learners should be developed?”

1. Through direct exposure to the words and fixed idioms used in daily life conversation texts and written texts
2. By looking up a dictionary, etc., when necessary for some certain communication-oriented tasks and activities
3. By guessing the meaning of an unknown word from the context and then using it in different contexts
4. By learning words with visual materials (pictures, gestures and mimics, activities and tools)
5. By memorizing bilingual lists of words, etc.
6. By creating concept and mind maps, etc.
7. By studying from mono-lingual and bilingual dictionaries and other reference sources.
8. By having information about the structural features and the areas of use of the words learned in the target language.
9. By knowing the semantic conceptual load of words.

Considering the items listed earlier, it is understood that the framework refers to the methods and techniques to be used in vocabulary learning. In order for the learner to select and use some of the specified ways, he/she must first be allowed to try and use them in classroom activities. Thus, the learner will be accustomed to trying different ways of learning while learning new words of the target language.

While learning Turkish as a foreign language, the learner needs many words of the target language in order to be competent in listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Considering the amount of words that need to be learned, it can be said that a significant part of the learner’s vocabulary should be gained with out-of-class experiences, since the contribution of classroom activities to the development of vocabulary is limited due to shortage of time spent in the class. One way to help learners in this regard is to introduce them to vocabulary learning strategies. Learners should be provided with opportunities to acquire vocabulary learning strategies that will support their vocabulary learning and that will foster their independent learning (Morin and Goebel, 2001). According to Graves (2016), teaching vocabulary learning strategies is extremely important, and considering the thousands of words to learn, it is an absolute necessity to develop learners’ independent vocabulary learning skills. Therefore, in addition to teaching certain words within the framework of vocabulary teaching, inclusion of practices necessary for teaching vocabulary learning strategies is seen as a must.

Vocabulary learning strategies

One of the goals of the applications directed to developing vocabulary is to impart the skills and habit of vocabulary learning to learners (Karadağ, 2013). Since it is not possible to teach students all the words they need in the target language with in-class practices, it is a necessity in this sense to inculcate the knowledge and skills of independent vocabulary learning in learners. According to Balcı and Çakır (2012), learners should make an individual effort outside of school time to learn words. At this point, it can be said that the learners’ gaining the ability to cope with the words that they encounter for the first time or that they do not know is part of the efforts to improve vocabulary in the target language. Therefore, it should be ensured that learners gain vocabulary learning strategies that will raise their awareness of vocabulary learning processes.

When the literature is reviewed, it is seen that vocabulary learning strategies are evaluated within foreign language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990; Schmitt, 1997; Nation, 2001). Foreign language learning strategies can be defined as activities carried out by the learner to make it fast, effective, fun, self-controlled and transferable (Oxford and Scarcella, 1994). Learning
strategies enable the learner to build an independent learning process, taking responsibility for his/her own learning process, which also applies to vocabulary learning strategies (Oxford, 1990). Seen from this perspective, vocabulary learning strategies can be explained as the learner’s taking the control of the vocabulary development process and managing the process. Research shows that the learner improves his/her vocabulary by using vocabulary learning strategies (Nation, 2001; Oxford, 1990). What motivates learners to use vocabulary learning strategies is the desire to express themselves both orally and in writing in the target language.

Oxford’s (1990) classification of language learning strategies consists of six sub-dimensions based on direct and indirect learning strategies. These sub-dimensions are memory strategies (They are used to transfer the knowledge into the long-term memory and to recall it for communicative purposes), cognitive strategies (They are used to create mental models, revise and receive and produce messages in the target language), compensation strategies (They are used to compensate for any shortage of information in language use), metacognitive strategies (They allow the student to plan, organize and evaluate his/her own learning process), affective strategies (They help students control their emotions, motivation and attitudes related to learning), and social strategies (They help establish interaction in verbal communication).

Gu and Johnson (1996) address vocabulary learning strategies in four groups as metacognitive, cognitive, memory, and activation. Metacognitive strategies involve the learner’s determining the words that will enable him/her to understand in the target language and determining the appropriate strategies, methods and techniques to learn these words. Of course, the ability to realize all these steps is closely related to the learner’s awareness of his/her own learning process. Cognition strategies are listed as guessing, using dictionary and taking notes. What is expected from the learner while using guessing strategy is to use his/her prior knowledge and to act on the basis of the grammatical structures of the target language. Memory strategies aim to transfer the learned word from short term memory to long term memory considering both pronunciation and meaning. For this, it is necessary to create word lists, to pay attention to pronunciation, to code with the help of visual and audio cues and to revise. Practice strategies mean that the learned word is used by the learner in different contexts in a suitable place.

Schmitt (1997) evaluates vocabulary learning strategies under two headings; the strategies that are used to determine the meaning of a word when first encountered and the strategies that are used to reinforce the meaning when encountered again. Determination strategies mean that the learner discovers the meaning of a new word by both guessing and receiving help. Consolidation strategies on the other hand include cognitive, metacognitive and memory strategies as seen in Gu and Johnson (1996). Schmitt (1997) thinks that both determination and combining strategies should be supported with social strategies. Thus, both groups of strategies include some content related to social strategies.

Nation (2001) treats vocabulary learning strategies together with key strategies and classifies them as planning, source and processes. Planning involves deciding where, how and how often attention should focus on vocabulary: selecting words, selecting the dimensions of vocabulary and determining strategies, revision. Resource strategies involve gaining information about the word. While having information about the word, the learner can use the clues given in the context, can use reference sources such as dictionaries and can relate some elements of his/her mother tongue to the word. Process strategies, on the other hand, refer to raising the learner’s awareness of vocabulary learning process and enhancing the vocabulary in the target language by using different vocabulary learning strategies.

When the classifications made by Oxford (1990), Gu and Johnson (1996), Schmitt (1997) and Nation (2001) regarding vocabulary learning strategies are examined, it is seen that there are many similar aspects in the content although different names are used to name these strategies. This is because researchers do not think of word learning strategies as independent of learning strategies.

Tağa (2018) argues that three basic independent vocabulary learning strategies should be taught to learners to be used when a new word is encountered for the first time: using contextual clues, using lexical elements and using dictionary. Karadağ (2013) evaluates vocabulary learning strategies as the following.

When Table 3 is examined, it is seen that the listed vocabulary learning strategies are related to all language learning processes. Although there is no unity regarding the name and content of vocabulary learning strategies in the literature, it can be said that the most important thing is that the learner will benefit from these strategies in the process of learning vocabulary and in the process of independent learning.

The effectiveness of teaching and using vocabulary learning strategies depends on variables such as proficiency level, task, language method, prior knowledge and readiness, learning context, target language and learner characteristics (Chamot and Rubin, 1994). It is not possible to draw sharp boundaries for applications designed for vocabulary learning strategies due to many variables such as proficiency level of learners, language teaching method, task, text, etc. Learners try to learn new words with a word learning strategy that suits them (Biçer and Polatcan, 2015). Schmitt (1997) notes that learners mostly tend to use basic vocabulary learning strategies.
In this process, learners learn words in line with their own interests and needs (Apaydın, 2007).

The learner can use more than one vocabulary strategy together in vocabulary learning. While guessing the meaning of the word from the context, the learner can find its meaning from a dictionary, take notes and while doing this, he/she uses cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies. Each vocabulary strategy used by the learner gives clues about how well the newly learned word has been learned (Gu, 2003). The learner should be given the opportunity to develop an awareness of his/her own learning process when faced with a vocabulary activity to deal with words they do not know. For example, the steps taken by the learner in guessing the meaning of the word based on the context should be questioned one by one while proceeding with it. Thus, the learner can evaluate to what extent he/she can benefit from a vocabulary learning strategy (Porte, 1988). In addition, in this way learners are directed to different vocabulary activities and exposed to different vocabulary learning strategies and discover which of these strategies benefit them.

Although there are studies focusing on vocabulary teaching and vocabulary development in literature (Aşık, 2007; Hasekioğlu, 2009; Özlü, 2009; Bayraktar, 2010, 2011; Çalışkan, 2010; Erer, 2011; Büyükikiz and Hasircı, 2013; Demirel, 2013; Memiş, 2018), there is a limited amount of research to determine the vocabulary learning strategies used by learners of Turkish as a foreign language (Yığın, 2013; Biçer and Polatcan, 2015; Baştuğ and Durmuş, 2018; Saydam, 2018; Tağa, 2018). Thus, in line with the findings and opinions in the literature related to vocabulary strategies in foreign language teaching, and in compliance with the competences defined in relation to vocabulary in the Common European Framework of Reference, the current study aimed to develop a scale to reveal the vocabulary learning strategies used by the learners of Turkish as a foreign language and to check the psychometric features of this scale. This developed scale is thought to be useful in determining the vocabulary learning strategies used by learners.

### METHODOLOGY

Here, information is given about the study group, preparation of scale items, validity and reliability studies.

#### Study group

The pilot and actual applications of the draft scale were conducted in Turkish Teaching Centres (TÖMER) operating within the universities selected by means of the random sampling selection method in the 2018-2019 academic year. A total of 30 students participated in the first pilot application and 15 students in the second one. These students were attending the Turkish Teaching Centres which were not included in the actual application. The actual application was conducted with the participation of 507 students from different levels (A2, B1, B2 and C1) attending Turkish Teaching Centres in the cities of Ankara, Adana, Istanbul, Kütahya, and Eskişehir. As students from A1 level were thought to not understand the items in the draft scale, they were not included in the study group. Comrey and Lee (1992) proposed the following numbers to determine the adequacy of sample size: 200 - fair, 300 - good, 500 - very good, and 1000 - excellent (cited in Çokluk et al., 2010). By using this information given in the literature about the adequate size of the sample, the number which is defined as “very good” was reached in the current study. Thus, the data collection process covered a two-year period due to the characteristics of the participants. After the completed scales were collected, they were examined to detect the ones having problems such as missing data or multiple markings and thus, a total of 72 scales were excluded from the study.

Of the participating students, 61% (308) are males and 39% (199) are females. Thirty two percent (164) of them are students of Arabic origin (Syria, Iraq, Egypt, Lebanon, Palestine). The same percentage of the participants is constituted by the students of

### Table 3. Vocabulary learning strategies and their content.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary learning strategy</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategies to be used when an unknown word is encountered to assign a meaning to this word</td>
<td>Guessing from the context&lt;br&gt;Looking at the meaning of the word within a context of another expression, sentence and text&lt;br&gt;Using the morphological awareness&lt;br&gt;Predicting&lt;br&gt;Using dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies to be used to be sure of the meaning of the word and to enhance vocabulary</td>
<td>Creating context&lt;br&gt;Performing inter-textual reading&lt;br&gt;Keeping a vocabulary notebook&lt;br&gt;Creating a context map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies to be used to learn new words and concepts</td>
<td>Gaining linguistic awareness&lt;br&gt;Being open to communication&lt;br&gt;Gaining the habit of listening and reading</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Persian origin (32% (164)). The total number of the students coming from Tanzania, Kenya, Somalia, Mauritania and Burkina Faso is 80 (16%). And the other students in the study group are as follows: 10% (48) are Mongolian, 7% (33) are Bosnian and 3% (18) are Russian. Of the participating students, 15% (76) are in level A2, 25% (130) are in level B1, 27% (135) are in level B2 and 33% (166) are in level C1. The reason for not including students from the level C2 is that students are graduated from Turkish Teaching Centres when they have completed C1.

Stages followed in the scale development process

Generation of the item pool

The first stage in the development process of the scale prepared to determine the vocabulary learning strategies used by the learners of Turkish as a foreign language is the review of the research on the subject (Oxford, 1990; Gu and Johnson, 1996; Schmitt, 1997; Nation, 2001; Yğín, 2013; Bıçer and Polatcan, 2015; Başgutku and Durmuş, 2018; Saydam, 2018; Karadağ, 2013; Aşık, 2007; Hasekioğlu, 2009; Özü, 2009; Bayraktar, 2010, 2011; Çalışkan, 2010; Erer, 2011; Büyükikiz and Hasircı, 2013; Demirel, 2013; Memiş, 2018). In the second stage, 15-min interviews were conducted with a small heterogeneous group of students who could represent the study group by using the questions “How do you learn Turkish words and how do you recall Turkish words?” in order to collect information that could contribute to the formation of the item pool. Thirteen students from each language level (A2, B1, B2, C1) participated in these interviews. In the light of the interviews, a pool of items consisting of 47 items was created to reveal the vocabulary learning strategies used by the learners of Turkish as a foreign language. In order to evaluate the reflections of the generated items in practice, the competences defined in relation to vocabulary in the Common European Framework of Reference were taken into consideration. This draft was checked in terms of compliance with the spelling rules of Turkish and then submitted to expert review.

Expert review (Content validity)

In this stage, the main emphasis is on the content validity of the draft scale. According to Büyüköztürk (2007), the success of a measurement tool in predicting individuals' behaviour is closely related to its validity and reliability. The extent to which a measurement tool measures the variable that it claims to measure correctly is explained by the concept of validity. Three types of validity are mentioned in the literature: content, criterion and construct validity (Tyler, 1971). In the current study, the content validity of the scale was checked. The 47-item draft form was submitted to the review of the experts (four teachers of Turkish as a foreign language, a measurement and evaluation expert). In the review process, the experts evaluated the items to determine whether there are items including expressions that might lead to misunderstanding and whether they are really related to vocabulary learning strategies. On the basis of the feedbacks given by the experts, 2 items were discarded and 3 items were corrected; thus, a total of 45 items were included in the draft scale. In this way, the content validity of the scale was established.

Pilot study

In order to determine whether the items in the draft scale arranged in light of the feedbacks given by the experts could be understood by students, their pilot application was conducted on 30 students. This application was conducted by the researcher and the feedbacks given by the students were taken into consideration. As they led the students to different judgments from the ones intended to be measured in the study, 2 items were excluded from the scale. A second pilot application was conducted with the participation of 15 students (five from each level) randomly selected from among the students attending a Turkish Teaching Centre (TÖMER) to see whether the remaining 43 items in the scale to be correctly understood by the students in the target population. The items in the draft scale were loudly read by each student and then they were asked questions to elicit what they understood about the item they had read. As a result of the application, ten students stated that they had understood the items and made similar explanations. Only five students at the level A2 could not understand 6 items and misinterpreted 1 item. These 7 items were discarded from the scale; thus, the 36-item scale became ready for the actual application. The researcher prepared a five Likert-type measurement tool with the following response options: “Never”, “Rarely”, “Sometimes”, “Usually” and “Always” for these 36 vocabulary learning strategy items. Thus, a form that allowed the students to respond to each item by using any of the five response options was presented to them.

Data analysis

Within the context of the validity studies of “The Scale of Vocabulary Strategies for Learners of Turkish as a Foreign Language”, its content and construct validity was studied. In order to establish content validity, expert review was used. As for the construct validity, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) were conducted to determine the factor structure and sub-dimensions of the scale. For EFA, the data obtained from 302 students were used while for CFA, the data obtained from 205 students were used. In the analyses, the cut-off point for factor loadings was set to be 0.30. In the determination of the reliability of the scale, Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was checked. The item-factor structure obtained from EFA was tested with CFA. EFA was conducted by using SPSS 22.0 package program and CFA was conducted by using AMOS 23.0 program package.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The data collected from 507 students were divided into two and 302 of them were used for exploratory factor analysis and 205 of them were used for confirmatory factor analysis. For the reliability of the scale, the item total score correlation was examined. Büyüköztürk (2007) argues that correlation explains the relationship between the scores taken from the test items and the total score of the test and that the items with item total correlation of 0.30 or higher have a better rate of discrimination. None of the 36 items in the scale revealed a correlation lower than 0.30 with the total score. As all the 36 items in the scale have positive statements, there is no item to be reverse scored. In order to elicit the best possible construct showing the relationships among the 36 items in the scale, exploratory factor analysis was used.

Exploratory factor analysis

In order to evaluate the suitability of the data collected for the Scale of Vocabulary Strategies for the Learners of
Turkish as a Second Language for exploratory factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity were conducted.

The measurement value of the KMO test used to test whether the sample is suitable for factoring was found to be 0.815 and the result of Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity ($\chi^2 = 2220.072$, sd=630, p=0.000) was found to be significant. After collecting this evidence showing that the data set is suitable for factor analysis, factor analysis was conducted by using the Principle Components Analysis method to reveal the factor structure (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996).

In order to determine the number of factors in the scale, the scree plot graph was also examined. In the scree plot shown in Figure 1, it is seen that after the fourth point, the shape of the curve changes direction and becomes horizontal. Then, the data were analyzed by using the Direct Oblimin oblique rotation method. Oblique rotation is used when it is thought that there is a correlation between the factors (Çokluk et al., 2010). After the rotation, the loading value of 0.30 was taken as the cut-off point and another point taken into consideration was that for any item loading on two different factors, the difference between the two loading values should be 0.10 and higher (Büyüköztürk, 2005). From among the scale items, 13 items were discarded as they were not loaded on any factor and had loadings on more than one factor with values very close to each other. The remaining 23 items were gathered under 4 factors. In Table 4, the variances explained by the factors in the Scale of Vocabulary Strategies for the Learners of Turkish as a Foreign Language.

As can be seen in Table 5, the first factor having 12 items explains 21.317% of the total variance and its eigenvalue is 5.116. The second factor having 4 items explains 10.921% of the total variance and its eigenvalue is 2.621. The third factor having 3 items explains 6.361% of the total variance and its eigenvalue is 1.527. The fourth factor having 4 items explains 1.280% of the total variance and its eigenvalue is 5.333. The scale explains 43.932% of the total variance, which is considered to be sufficient because for it to be acceptable, it needs to explain a percentage of the total variance ranging from 40 to 60% (Tavşancıl, 2002). In this regard, Büyüköztürk (2007) states that the highness of the variance explained is an indicator of how well the related concept or construct is measured. The distribution of the items across the factors with their factor loadings are shown in Table 6.

As can be seen in Table 6, the factors loadings of the items in the scale vary between 0.448 and 0.826. When the sample size is taken into consideration, 0.45 or higher factor loading value of the scale items is a good criterion for item selection (Büyüköztürk, 2007). The factor loadings of the four items in the second factors were found to be between 0.456 and 0.751. When the items in this factor are examined, it is seen that they are related to the path followed by the student in the vocabulary learning process; thus, this factor is named as “learning process”. The factor loadings of the four items in the second factors were found to be between 0.456 and 0.751. As the items in this factor are related to the support provided by technology in the vocabulary learning process, this factor is named as “technological materials”. The factor loadings of the three items in the third factor vary between 0.495 and 0.826. When the items in this factor are examined, it is seen that they are related to the
Table 4. KMO and Barlett Test Results for the Scale of Vocabulary Strategies for the Learners of Turkish as a Foreign Language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KMO</th>
<th>0.815</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>chi-square</td>
<td>2220.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sd</td>
<td>630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Variances explained by the factors in the scale of vocabulary strategies for the learners of Turkish as a foreign language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Variance explained (Total)</th>
<th>Variance explained (Cumulative)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.116</td>
<td>21.317</td>
<td>21.317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.621</td>
<td>10.921</td>
<td>32.238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.527</td>
<td>6.361</td>
<td>38.598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.280</td>
<td>5.333</td>
<td>43.931</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. The exploratory factors analysis for the scale of vocabulary strategies for the learners of Turkish as a foreign language (Rotated Component Matrix).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Covariance</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M11</td>
<td>0.812</td>
<td>0.751</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M20</td>
<td>0.703</td>
<td>0.686</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M26</td>
<td>0.684</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M36</td>
<td>0.635</td>
<td>0.637</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M4</td>
<td>0.588</td>
<td>0.571</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M30</td>
<td>0.647</td>
<td>0.558</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M12</td>
<td>0.536</td>
<td>0.545</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M23</td>
<td>0.512</td>
<td>0.525</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M9</td>
<td>0.493</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M27</td>
<td>0.476</td>
<td>0.470</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M16</td>
<td>0.470</td>
<td>0.466</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M32</td>
<td>0.402</td>
<td>0.448</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M7</td>
<td>0.841</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.791</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M28</td>
<td>0.797</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.727</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M8</td>
<td>0.722</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M22</td>
<td>0.636</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.456</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M33</td>
<td>0.868</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M17</td>
<td>0.840</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.752</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M24</td>
<td>0.558</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.495</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M19</td>
<td>0.644</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M15</td>
<td>0.589</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M18</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M31</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.497</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

support given by the teacher, peers, etc., thus, it is named as “psychological process”. The factor loadings of the four items in the fourth factor vary between 0.497 and 0.610. As these items were found to be related to the use of visuals, it is named as “visual materials”. When the four-factor structure of the scale is examined, it is seen that the twelve items in the first factor are related to “learning process`; the four items in the second
factor are related to "technological materials"; the three items in the third factor are related to "psychological process", and the four items in the fourth factor are related to "visual materials". In this connection, the opinions of experts were also sought in the naming of the factors.

**Confirmatory factor analysis**

In order to determine whether the four-factor and 23-item construct obtained from the exploratory factor analysis is confirmed, the confirmatory factor analysis model was constructed and the latent factors in the structure of the scale and the dependent relationships between them were examined in AMOS 23.0 program package. For the confirmatory factor analysis, Chi-square, GFI, RMSEA, CFI and AGFI goodness-of-fit coefficients were examined. The acceptable fit value for GFI, AGFI, CFI, NNFI and RFI coefficients should be >0.90 and the excellent fit value should be >0.95 (Marsh et al., 2006). For RMSEA, the acceptable fit value is <0.08, excellent fit value is <0.05 (Hooper et al., 2008; Byrne and Campbell, 1999). The goodness-of-fit values obtained from the analysis are shown in Table 7.

For the model to be acceptable, if the value obtained by dividing the Chi-square goodness-of-fit value by the degree of freedom is 2, then it means excellent fit; if it is a value between 2 and 3, then it means acceptable fit (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003). As can be seen in Table 7, this value is \( \chi^2/df = 1.644 \). When the goodness-of-fit values of the model are examined, it is seen that RMSEA= 0.064, NFI= 0.914, CFI= 0.912, GFI= 0.939 and AGFI= 0.902. On the basis of these values, it can be argued that the scale has an acceptable fit for the four-factor construct. The path diagram showing the standardized factor loadings for the four-factor model is as shown in Figure 2.

As can be seen in Figure 2, the results of the confirmatory factor analysis match with the results of the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \chi^2 )</th>
<th>( \chi^2/df )</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>TLI (NNFI)</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>AGFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>368.211</td>
<td>1.644</td>
<td>0.912</td>
<td>0.914</td>
<td>0.939</td>
<td>0.902</td>
<td>0.064</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 2. Confirmatory factor analysis findings of the scale of vocabulary strategies for the learners of Turkish as a foreign language.*
exploratory factor analysis.

Investigation of the reliability of the scale

Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was calculated in order to determine how accurately the scale measures the feature it wants to measure; that is, the reliability of the scale. According to Büyüköztürk et al. (2008), this coefficient is a measure of the consistency of the scores of the items with the total test scores. When this coefficient has a value between 0.60 and 0.80, then it means that scale is “quite reliable” and when it has a value between 0.80 and 1.00, then it means that the scale is “highly reliable” (Akgül and Çevik, 2003). Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficients were calculated for the Scale of Vocabulary Strategies for the Learner of Turkish as a Foreign Language. The findings obtained from these calculations are shown in Table 8.

As can be seen in Table 8, the Cronbach Alpha values calculated for the sub-dimensions are as follows; 0.81 for the learning process sub-dimension; 0.69 for the psychological process sub-dimension; 0.65 for the technological materials sub-dimension; and 0.66 for the visual materials sub-dimension. For the whole scale, it was found to be 0.84. These results show that the scale is a reliable scale and the internal consistency of the sub-dimensions of the scale is quite high.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-dimension</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Internal consistency coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning Process</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Process</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological Materials</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual Materials</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole Scale</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 8. Internal consistency reliability coefficients of the scale of vocabulary strategies for the learner of Turkish as a foreign language.**

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

It is not possible for a teacher to teach all the words needed by the learner in different levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1+) in the target language. For this reason, it is thought that teaching vocabulary learning strategies to students to improve their vocabulary will positively affect the development of comprehension and expression skills in the target language.

The reliability of the Scale of Vocabulary Strategies for the Learner of Turkish as a Foreign Language developed to measure the vocabulary learning strategies used by the learners of Turkish as a foreign language on the basis of a literature review, student interviews, the Common European Framework of Reference and expert opinions was tested by calculating the Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the sub-dimensions of “learning process”, “psychological process”, “visual materials” and “technological materials”. For the whole scale, the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was calculated to be 0.84. These values are enough to show that this scale is suitable for use with the learners of Turkish as a foreign language who are over 15 and in level A2 or higher level. As the consistency coefficients were found to be varying between 0.65 and 0.84 for the four sub-dimensions of “The Scale of Vocabulary Strategies for the Learner of Turkish as a Foreign Language”, it can be said that the scale is reliable. These findings were confirmed by the confirmatory factor analysis. All the goodness-of-fit indices found for the model are over the value 0.85 and the RMSA value for the model was found to be 0.064; p=0.01.

There are studies in the literature investigating vocabulary learning strategies from different perspectives. In his experimental study, Sanaoui (1995) found that foreign language learners using vocabulary learning strategies have broader vocabulary and that vocabulary learning strategies serve the purpose of learning new words. Yiğìn (2013) found that the strategies most used by foreign learners in level B2 when learning words in the classroom are social and cognitive strategies, and least used ones are memory strategies. Biçer and Polatcan (2015) found that C1 level learners’ use of vocabulary learning strategies is lower than that of the learners from other language levels. They explained that this is because these learners are proficient in the target language. Saydam (2018) determined the frequency of vocabulary learning strategies found in the textbook sets that are the source of teaching Turkish as a foreign language. The most frequently used strategy was found to be the vocabulary learning strategy related to reading and listening with 63.1%, followed by the strategy related to morphological awareness with 14.6% and the strategy related to the use of visuals with 7.31%. It was determined that the strategy with the least frequency of use in the textbooks is the strategy of enacting with a rate of 0.89%. It was understood that the strategy most frequently used by the instructors during the lesson was the vocabulary learning strategy related to reading and listening with 90%. It was determined that the vocabulary
learning strategy least used by language teachers is the strategy of using dictionary with 65%. Başıştu and Durmuş (2018) aimed to determine the targeted vocabulary to be taught from the reading texts in the Turkish textbook sets in level B1 prepared for foreigners and the vocabulary learning strategies used to teach these words. As a result of their research, they concluded that while there is a great similarity between the target vocabulary intended to be taught at the basic level, each textbook set in level B1 has different content around the same theme. Although this is not considered to be a negative situation, it was suggested that reaching an agreement on the vocabulary to be taught at different levels can be good.

Tağa (2018) developed the “Vocabulary Awareness Scale” which consists of sub-dimensions of function, interest and strategy for foreign learners who learn Turkish as a target language. This scale has 17 items and its Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient is 0.86. Some items in the scale are as follows: Vocabulary is important for effective communication. I like looking through a dictionary. I search for the meaning of the words I do not know. I enjoy learning new words. I analyze the root and suffixes of the word to determine the meaning. While learning a word, I find sample sentences (p. 239). It is important for the student to learn about the vocabulary awareness learning process through in-class and out-of-class activities. In-class activities are generally textbook-based. Fidan and İrem (2016) stated that in textbook sets prepared for teaching Turkish to foreigners, activities such as using visuals, filling in blanks, matching, acting on the basis of the features of meaning, grouping, and puzzles are frequently included for vocabulary teaching.

Kocaman and Cumaoğlu (2014) developed the “Foreign Language Vocabulary Learning Strategies Scale” for secondary school students based on Oxford (1990) inventory of word strategies. This scale developed in the form of five-point Likert-scale have six sub-dimensions “Memory Strategies”, “Cognitive Strategies”, “Compensation Strategies”, “Metacognitive Strategies”, “Affective Strategies” and “Social Strategies” and 32 items. As this scale was developed primarily for learners of English as a foreign language, its application to the learners of Turkish as a foreign language without any adaptation is thought to not reveal valid and reliable results.

The strategy used can vary according to the needs of learners, their learning styles, proficiency levels and the requirements of the task. Learners need to learn which strategy or strategies they need to choose first under the guidance of the instructor and then on their own. Therefore, the strategies are not fixed and can vary depending on the purpose of use and the place of use. By using “The Scale of Vocabulary Strategies for the Learners of Turkish as a Foreign Language”, the vocabulary learning strategies used by the students from each level can be determined. In this connection, the instructor:

1. Can learn about the vocabulary learning strategies used by students and take these strategies into consideration while designing in-class vocabulary teaching activities.
2. Can organize training about the vocabulary learning strategies needed by students and teach the related strategies together.
3. Can plan on what strategies will be taught to students, how much time will be allocated to these strategies and what kinds of activities will be organized (Nation, 2001).
4. Can realize that in-class and out-of-class activities conducted for vocabulary teaching cannot be handled as independent of vocabulary learning strategies.
5. Can avoid adopting just one or several vocabulary strategies and always using them in the activities conducted with students “As the context of each vocabulary activity is different, the vocabulary learning strategy that needs to be used should be different.” (Schmitt, 1997).
6. Can persuade students who are not prone to independent learning or do not have any experience about it to learn and use vocabulary learning strategies; thus, support their learning processes (Ellis, 1994).
7. Can organize adequate number of activities for students to learn each vocabulary learning strategy.
8. Can remind students from time to time the goal of each strategy and in which situation it should be used and thus provide guidance for the proper use of strategies.
9. Can use scale items to inform students about which strategies are more suitable for themselves.

The learner can also use the suggestions listed earlier for teachers in order to monitor and plan their own learning processes. Turkish teaching centers can make inferences about learning styles by making use of the scale in their placement exams. In addition to their experimental research, researchers can benefit from the scale in their studies on vocabulary teaching that they design according to descriptive survey model. In this sense, it is important to introduce the Scale of Vocabulary Strategies for the Learners of Turkish as a Foreign Language into the literature so that it can be used in research on vocabulary in teaching Turkish.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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### Appendix. The Scale of Vocabulary Strategies for the Learners of Turkish as a Foreign Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Yeni kelime öğrendiğimde hem kendi dilimdeki karşılığını hem Türkçe anlamını yan yana yazırım.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Günlük hayatta ya da derste ihtiyaç olan kelimeyi öğrenirim.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kelimelerin anlamlarıla birlikte söylenişlerini de öğrenirim.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Kelime öğrenirken öğretmenimden yardım alırım.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Kelimeleri eş veya zıt anlamlarıyla birlikte öğrenirim.</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>İhtiyac duyduğumda telefonuma yüklediğim Türkçe sözlüğü kullanırım.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeler için bir sözlük defteri oluştururum.</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Öğrendiğim kelimeleri unutmamak için sürekli tekrar ederim.</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Ana dilimde kullandığım günlük konuşma cümlelerini, Türkçe ye tercume etmeye çalışırım.</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Öğrendiğim kelimeleri doğru söyleyip söylemediğini arkadaşlarla sorarım.</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Yeni öğrendiğim kelimelerle diyalog oluştururum.</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Öğrenmek istediğim kelimeleri not alırım.</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Yeni kelimeler öğrenmeye çalışırken grup çalışması yaparım.</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Kelimeleri hatırlamak için kelime kartlarını görebileceğim yerlere yapıştırırım.</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Kelimeleri görselleriyle eşleştirerek öğrenirim.</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Kelimelerikartlara yapız bu kartları yanımdan ayrıram.</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Kelimeleri teknolojik oyunlar sayesinde öğrenirim.</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Öğrendiğim kelimeleri kalıcı hâle getirmek için metinler (hikâye vb.) okurum.</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>Türkçe bir video izlerken bildiğim kelimelerin kullanılması dikkatimi çeker.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Türkçe bir video vb. izlerken yeni kelimeler öğrenmek için alt yazılı olmasına dikkat ederim.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Yeni kelimeler öğrendiğimde kendimi ödüllendiririm.</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>Kelimeleri arkadaşlarımla rekabet hâlindeyken daha iyi öğrenirim.</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>Öğrendiğim kelimeyi yanlış söylediğimde düzeltmesini isterim.</td>
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Review

The use of contingency contracting in educational settings: A review of the literature

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Respecting individual differences among students and meeting their unique needs may be one of the greatest challenges faced by teachers. When having a heterogeneous group of students, teachers need to consider a variety of instructional methods. The literature details a large number of teaching strategies supported by research findings, and the purpose of this review is to add to the literature by highlighting important information obtained from research on contingency contracting. This information includes the steps for creating and implementing contingency contracting, types of students with whom it can be used, and types of skills and behaviors that can be targeted. The review results show that contingency contracting is an easy-to-implement strategy that can be effectively used to teach both academic and non-academic skills to students with different characteristics. The results also suggest several practical implications for teachers and several areas of research that need further investigation.

Key words: Contingency contracting, behavioral contracts, special education, students with disabilities.

INTRODUCTION

Perhaps the main intent of schooling is to help students gain thorough knowledge of the curriculum. This knowledge is transmitted to students through different instructional techniques and strategies. Hundreds of instructional techniques have been discussed in the literature; however, there has been a strong emphasis on differentiated instruction to meet individual needs of all students (Mastropieri and Scruggs, 2010; Tomlinson et al., 2003). Differentiated instruction involves making modifications to different aspects of teaching, including teaching methods, to ensure that every student masters the targeted skills regardless of the student's unique characteristics (Tomlinson et al., 2003).

In addition to recommending the use of differentiated instruction, the literature lays particular stress on enhancing student participation, monitoring student performance, and providing immediate feedback. In fact, general and special education research revealed that these components are of fundamental importance to keep students active, attentive, and motivated and help teachers check understanding and ensure high rates of success (Archer and Hughes, 2011).

One instructional strategy that facilitates the incorporation of these elements into teaching practices...
and that can be used to address individual needs of students is contingency contracting, also referred to as behavioral contracting. According to Cooper et al. (2007), contingency contracting is a document that is written and agreed upon by two individuals. This document (that is, the contract) specifies individuals involved in the contract, tasks assigned to each individual, rewards that will be given to the student, and conditions for receiving the rewards. Every person involved in the contract should have the opportunity to review, negotiate, and agree upon the content of the contract (Maag, 2004). Appendix A Table 1 shows a contingency contract that includes all necessary components.

Several theoretical explanations and practical implications support the use of contingency contracts. First, a student who is involved in the contract verbally states and writes the condition in which the completion of a specific task leads to a reward. Receiving the reward is usually delayed, and this delay can help the student self-monitor the targeted behavior to receive the reward. Second, because contingency contracts are reviewed and renegotiated on a regular basis, they help students remain on task (Cooper et al., 2007). Moreover, because contingency contracting enables students to play an active role in developing the contracts, it may allow for teaching skills related to self-determination, which in turn promotes student participation and adherence to the behaviors indicated in the contract (Alwahbi and Hua, 2020; Maag, 2004).

Not until the late sixties did researchers start evaluating the effect of contingency contracting (Cantrell et al., 1969; Walker and Shea, 1984). At that time, most of the research was done with clients attending counseling and therapeutic settings to help them adhere to treatments and therapies for physical and behavioral conditions, such as being overweight, smoking, drug abuse, and alcoholism (Janz et al., 1984). The positive results obtained in medical research led to the use of contingency contracting in other fields including education. Cantrell et al. (1969) did one of the first studies that focused on the use of contingency contracts with students. The purpose of the study was to determine the impact of home-school contingency contracts on improving student academic behavior such as completing homework, participating in classroom activities, getting on the school bus, and staying in class. Cantrell et al. (1969) stated that the contracts resulted in a considerable improvement in the students’ behavior.

Since then, educational research on contingency contracting has expanded to include students without disabilities and students with special needs. Despite the large amount of research conducted to evaluate the effects of behavioral contracting on improving student performance and academic achievement, a few, if any, literature reviews have been done to highlight significant findings indicated in related studies (Bowman-Perrett et al., 2015). Therefore, the purpose of this narrative review of the literature on contingency contracting was to address different areas pertaining to the use of contingency contracting with students without and with disabilities. The research questions that guided the review were as follows:

(1) What were the characteristics of the students who participated in the contingency contracting studies?
(2) What were the skills and behaviors that were targeted in the studies?
(3) What were the effects of contingency contracting on the students?
(4) What were the steps for creating contingency contracts?

METHODOLOGY

The current paper is a narrative, comprehensive review of the literature on the use of contingency contracting in education. Therefore, a comprehensive search was conducted across a range of databases and search engines (ERIC, PsycINFO, Google Scholar, and the Saudi Digital Library) to locate and identify scholarly articles. With these search engines, different combinations of terms were used such as contingency contracting, behavioral contracting, behavior contracts, general education, special education, students without disabilities, and students with disabilities. In order to make the search more precise, I narrowed it by using AND and by limiting the results to peer-reviewed articles. In addition, a hand and online search of secondary sources addressing contingency contracting, such as books and informally published articles, was conducted to identify additional studies that did not appear in the databases and search engines. The search conducted in this step yielded a large number of references for scholarly articles.

However, the studies reviewed in this paper were chosen based on the following criteria. First, contingency contracting had to be the primary intervention used in the study. Second, the sample had to include school-age students. Third, the procedure and what the participants did during the study had to be explained in detail. The searches based on these criteria resulted in a total of 32 studies to be reviewed in this paper. The following section provides information about the use of behavioral contracting with general education students and students with disabilities.

RESULTS

The use of contingency contracting with students without disabilities

As mentioned earlier, Cantrell et al. (1969) did one of the first studies that evaluated the effect of contingency contracts on students. The purpose of the study was to determine the impact of home-school contingency contracts on improving student academic behavior such as completing homework, participating in classroom activities, getting on the school bus, and staying in class. Cantrell et al. (1969) stated that the contracts resulted in a considerable improvement in the students’ behavior.

Since then, educational research on contingency contracting has expanded to include students without
Table 1. Studies about the use of contingency contracting with students without disabilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Intervention procedure</th>
<th>Outcome variables</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Allen et al. (1993)</td>
<td>3 (gender NR); 2nd and 3rd grade</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Individually developed, teacher-student contracts</td>
<td>On-task behavior</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arwood et al. (1974)</td>
<td>4 (gender NR); 9th grade</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Classroom-wide contracts developed based on students’ opinions about tasks and rewards</td>
<td>On-task behavior social interaction</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Besalel-Azin et al. (1977)</td>
<td>8 males; 2 females; 10-12 years old</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Classroom-wide contracts developed based on students’ opinions about tasks and rewards</td>
<td>Adherence to classroom rules</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantrell et al. (1969)</td>
<td>(Number of participants NR); (gender NS); 1st to 7th grade</td>
<td>Regular school Home</td>
<td>Individually developed, teacher-student and parent-child contracts</td>
<td>School-related behavior at home</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kelley and Stokes (1982)</td>
<td>12 males; 1 female; 16-21 years old</td>
<td>Vocational training facility</td>
<td>Individually developed, teacher-student contracts</td>
<td>Homework completion</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kelley and Stokes (1984)</td>
<td>7 males; 1 female; 16-21 years old</td>
<td>Vocational training facility</td>
<td>Individually developed, teacher-student contracts</td>
<td>Studying for exams</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidd and Saudargas (1988)</td>
<td>1 female; 1 male; 6th and 3rd grade</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Individually developed, teacher-student contracts</td>
<td>Percentage of math problem completed correctly</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kieffer and Goh (1981)</td>
<td>48 (Gender NR); elementary school</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Individually developed, teacher-student contracts</td>
<td>Motivation to take tests</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martini-scully et al. (2000)</td>
<td>2 females; 8 years old</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Individually developed, teacher-student contracts</td>
<td>Challenging behavior</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miller and Kelley (1994)</td>
<td>2 females; 2 males; 9-11 years old</td>
<td>Home</td>
<td>Individually developed, parent-child contracts</td>
<td>Homework completion</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navarro et al. (2007)</td>
<td>3 males; 8-14 years old</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Individually developed, teacher-student contracts</td>
<td>Challenging behavior</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Brown and Mathews (2003)</td>
<td>18 (gender NR); 4th grade</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Individually developed, researcher-student contracts</td>
<td>Math skills</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheridan and Deering (2009)</td>
<td>1 male; 12 years old</td>
<td>Residential home</td>
<td>Individually developed, teacher-student contracts</td>
<td>Aggression, safety behavior</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith (1994)</td>
<td>8 males; 4 females; k-7th grade</td>
<td>Regular school HOME</td>
<td>Individually developed, teacher-student and parent-child contracts</td>
<td>School-related behavior at home, parent-teacher communication</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trice (1990)</td>
<td>96 (gender NR); high school</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Individually developed, school counselor-student contracts</td>
<td>Truancy challenging behavior</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wahler and Fox (1980)</td>
<td>4 males; 5-8 years old</td>
<td>Home</td>
<td>Individually developed, parent-child contracts</td>
<td>Oppositional behavior aggression rule violating</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welch (1985)</td>
<td>1 male; 16 years old</td>
<td>Home</td>
<td>Individually developed parent-child contracts</td>
<td>Tempers curfew regulations</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Williams and Anandam, (1973)</td>
<td>(Number of participants NR); (gender NS); 7th grade</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Classroom-wide contracts developed based on students’ opinions about tasks and rewards</td>
<td>Social and academic behaviors</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Williams et al. (1972)</td>
<td>4 (gender NR); high school</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Classroom-wide contracts developed based on students’ opinions about tasks and rewards</td>
<td>On-task behavior; social interactions; challenging behaviors</td>
<td>Positive</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

aStudies are listed in alphabetical order. bBased on the information available, chronological age, grade, or school level is reported to indicate students’ ages. cNR= not reported. dMixed results are those indicating the intervention was not effective for some of the participants or some of the outcome variables.

disabilities and students with special needs. Research on the use of contingency contracts with students without disabilities has involved participants attending different types of educational settings, of different ages, and from different backgrounds (see Table 1 for information about the studies). Regular public schools were the settings where contingency contracts were implemented in the vast amount of this research (Allen et al., 1993; Arwood et al., 1974; Trice, 1990).

The intervention in other studies took place at vocational and educational training facilities for high-school students who dropped out of school (Kelley and Stokes, 1982, 1984), a parochial school (Williams et al., 1972), a special residential home (Sheridan and Deering, 2009), and students’ homes (Miller and Kelley, 1994; Wahler and Fox, 1980; Welch, 1985). The participants in the studies ranged in age from 5 to 21 years and came from varied academic, family, and social backgrounds.

The researchers of these studies focused on different academic, social, and behavioral
outcomes. Academic behaviors targeted in some of the studies included on-task academic behavior (Allen et al., 1993; Arwood et al., 1974; Williams et al., 1972), homework and assignment completion (Cantrell et al., 1969; Kelley and Stokes, 1982; Miller and Kelley, 1994; Smith, 1994; Williams and Anandam, 1973), studying for examinations (Kelley and Stokes, 1984), math skills (Kidd and Saudargas, 1988), and setting and working toward academic goals (Self-Brown and Mathews, 2003). Social behaviors included skills related to social interactions such as appropriate social initiations and responses (Arwood et al., 1974). Examples of behavioral outcomes addressed in the studies are truancy (Trice, 1990), disruptive behaviors (loud talking and throwing objects; Martini-scully et al., 2000; Navarro et al., 2007), non-compliance (Wahler and Fox, 1980; Welch, 1985), and aggression (Sheridan and Deering, 2009; Wilkinson, 2003). In addition to these behaviors, two studies focused on students’ motivation and parent-teacher interaction and communication (Kieffer and Goh, 1981; Smith, 1994). The focus of one study was on safety behavior such as using a seatbelt and on property destruction (Sheridan and Deering, 2009).

The development of the interventions in the studies included all components and procedures of creating a contingency contract (Appendix B; Walker and Shea, 1984). All involved parties (the contractors and students) negotiated and agreed upon the tasks and rewards and signed written contracts. The procedures of developing a contract in the majority of the studies (Allen et al., 1993; Cantrell et al., 1969; Trice, 1990) included having a teacher, parent, or school counselor individually negotiates the tasks and reward with the students. In three studies (Arwood et al., 1974; Besalel-Azrin et al., 1977; Williams et al., 1972), class-wide contingency contracts were developed by having the students attending the same classroom answer surveys or checklists as a means of negotiating the responsibilities indicated in the contracts. These contracts were individually modified for each student, if needed. The researchers of the studies generally focused on the use of rewards as a result of completion of tasks. In four studies, the researchers used punishment techniques such as response cost (Martini-scully et al., 2000; Sheridan and Deering, 2009; Williams and Anandam, 1973), time out (Wahler and Fox, 1980; Welch, 1985), and a loss of recess time or getting extra homework (Kidd and Saudargas, 1988) in combination with reinforcement techniques.

The results obtained in the majority of the studies showed positive outcomes of implementing contingency contracting. Only the authors of four studies reported mixed results; contingency contracting had no effect on some of the participants (Arwood et al., 1974; Miller and Kelley, 1994) or on some behaviors (Wahler and Fox, 1980; Welch, 1985). Some authors (Besalel-Azrin et al., 1977; Navarro et al., 2007; Welch, 1985; Wilkinson, 2003) evaluated the effect of the contracts on maintenance and found that the participants were able to maintain the behaviors of interest. Several studies included findings about the participants' opinions about the intervention. The students involved in the contracts expressed a high level of satisfaction and happiness regarding contingency contracts as a result of being freely able to negotiate the tasks, rewards, and criteria for receiving the rewards (Besalel-Azrin et al., 1977; Martini-scully et al., 2000). In another study, the authors stated that the students thought the intervention was fair because they were able to choose the reinforcers and the criteria for acceptable performance (Wilkinson, 2003). Parents and teachers were also satisfied and happy with the effectiveness of the intervention and with the ease of implementation (Besalel-Azrin et al., 1977; Martini-scully et al., 2000; Miller and Kelley, 1994; Wilkinson, 2003).

The use of contingency contracting with students with disabilities

A smaller amount of research on contingency contracting for students with disabilities has been done (Table 2). The majority of the authors of this research focused on students with emotional and behavioral disorders (EBD; Allen and Kramer, 1990; Diaddigo and Dickie, 1978; Hess et al., 1990; Newstrom et al., 1999; Ruth, 1996). Fewer researchers included participants with ASD (Alwahbi and Hua, 2020; Fausett, 2014; Hawkins et al., 2011; Mruzek et al., 2007), students with attention deficit and hyperactivity disorders (ADHD; Flood and Wider, 2002; Gurrad et al., 2002), and students with learning disabilities (LD; Grünke, 2019; Grünke and Coeppicus, 2017; Hess et al., 1990; Ruth, 1996). A smaller number of students with intellectual disabilities, communication disorders, and health impairments participated in some of the studies (Fausett, 2014; Hess et al., 1990; Ruth, 1996). All the studies but two took place in inclusive settings. Hawkins et al. (2011) implemented the contingency contracting in a special education school and at the students’ homes, and Diaddigo and Dickie (1978) conducted their study at a private residential school. The participants with disabilities ranged in age from 7 to 16 years.

Regarding the students with ASD, the targeted behaviors for which contingency contracting was implemented were following classroom rules (Mruzek et al., 2007), non-compliance, physical aggression, verbal aggression, in-seat behavior, inappropriate interaction behaviors (touching the hair of peers) (Hawkins et al., 2011), social initiations, and responses to social initiations (Alwahbi and Hua, 2020; Fausett, 2014). The outcomes for the other students with disabilities included improving on-task behavior (Flood and Wider, 2002; Gurrad et al., 2002), in-class participation (Gurrad et al., 2002), homework completion (Ruth, 1996), school attendance (Hess et al., 1990; Ruth, 1996), appropriate
social behaviors such as talking calmly and cooperating (Ruth, 1996), writing skills such as using correct capitalization and punctuation (Grünke, 2019; Grünke and Coeppicus, 2017; Newstrom et al., 1999), reducing challenging behaviors (Diaddigo and Dickie, 1978), and personal hygiene and grooming habits such as combing hair and washing hands (Allen and Kramer, 1990).

The procedures for creating contingency contracts for students with disabilities were similar to those done for typically developing students. However, the procedures used to develop the contracts, especially for students with ASD, were more specific in terms of the components of the contracts. Mruzek et al. (2007), for example, conducted a functional assessment and interviewed the students with ASD, their parents, and their teachers to determine the targeted tasks assigned to the students and to choose preferred rewards. Hawkins et al. (2011) developed both school and school-home contracts for the students with ASD to maximize the effect of the intervention and to facilitate generalization. Fausett (2014) added other components to the contingency contracting to help students remember the tasks by having the students engage in modeling and imitation sessions with their teachers to practice their social skills and by having them watch a short video regularly that showed the students negotiating the contracts. In the other studies involving students with disabilities, the contracts were developed individually with each student and involved teachers and school psychologists in addition to the students. However, due to the high number of

Table 2. Studies about the use of contingency contracting with students with disabilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Intervention procedure</th>
<th>Outcome variables</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alwahbi and Hua (2020)</td>
<td>3 males; 8-11 years old</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Contract between the students and the researchers</td>
<td>Social Interactions</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allen and Kramer (1990)</td>
<td>1 male; 12 years old; EBD</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>An individually developed contract between the student and school consultant</td>
<td>Personal hygiene and grooming</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diaddigo and Dickie (1978)</td>
<td>1 male; 10 years old; EBD</td>
<td>Private residential school</td>
<td>Contract between the student and teacher</td>
<td>Challenging behavior</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fausett, 2014</td>
<td>3 males; 1 female; 2nd - 5th grade; ID and ASD</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>An individually developed contract between the students and teachers</td>
<td>Social interactions</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flood and Wider (2002)</td>
<td>1 male; 11 years old; ADHD</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>An individually developed contract between the student and teacher</td>
<td>Off-task behavior</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grünke (2019)</td>
<td>1 male; 2 females; 8-9 years old; LD</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Individually developed contracts between the students and a special educator</td>
<td>Writing skills</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grünke and Coeppicus (2017)</td>
<td>3 males; 11 years old; LD</td>
<td>Regular School</td>
<td>Individually developed contracts between the students and the researcher</td>
<td>Writing skills</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gurrad et al (2002)</td>
<td>1 male; 12 years old; ADHD</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>An individually developed contract between the student and teacher</td>
<td>Off-task behavior Participation in class</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawkins et al. (2011)</td>
<td>4 males; 8-13 years old; ASD</td>
<td>Special education school</td>
<td>Individually developed home-school contracts</td>
<td>Off-task behavior Aggression Antisocial behavior</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hess et al. (1990)</td>
<td>10 males; 3 females; LD, EBD, and CD</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Individually developed contracts between the students and teachers</td>
<td>Truancy</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mruzek et al. (2007)</td>
<td>2 males; 9 and 10 years old; ASD</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Contracts between the students and teachers</td>
<td>Adherence to rules of conduct</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newstrom et al. (1999)</td>
<td>1 male; 9th grade; EBD</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>An individually developed contract between the student and teacher</td>
<td>Writing skills</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruth (1996)</td>
<td>35 males; 8 females; 7-12 years old; EBD, LD, and HI</td>
<td>Regular school</td>
<td>Individually developed contracts between the students, teachers, and psychologists</td>
<td>Academic and behavioral goal setting and achievement</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Studies are listed in alphabetical order. *Based on the information available, chronological age, grade, or school level is reported to indicate students’ ages. *ID= intellectual disability. *Mixed results are those indicating the intervention was not effective for some of the participants or some of the outcome variables. *CD= communication disorders. *HI= health impairment.
participants, Ruth (1996) did not have them all negotiate the contracts, and Hess et al. (1990) used checklists to determine the reinforcers for the students. In two studies, the researchers combined contingency contracting with group consultation (Hess et al., 1990) and with functional communication training (Flood and Wider, 2002).

The majority of the studies showed that contingency contracting was effective in promoting outcomes of interest. However, Hawkins et al. (2011) and Fausett (2014) reported mixed results. In particular, teacher-student contracts were not effective for some of the students with ASD in these studies, but after adding school-home contracts (Hawkins et al., 2011) and modeling and imitation sessions (Fausett, 2014), the contracts did have an effect on the students' behaviors. Only one study (Fausett, 2014) included information on the students' ability to maintain the skills acquired, and the study showed that the contracts had a positive impact on maintenance.

DISCUSSION

A large number of instructional techniques have been outlined and discussed in the literature. A significant aspect teachers should focus on when they teach is to consider what scientific research has revealed about the effectiveness of these techniques. The purpose of this review was to provide information found in research about the use of contingency contracting in educational settings. Thirty Two research studies were reviewed in this paper to give a broad outline of this instructional strategy to help teachers and researchers be aware of the steps for creating contingency contracts, students who may benefit from them, skills that can be addressed, and the effects of contingency contracting.

The results obtained in this review showed that contingency contracting can be effectively used in different educational settings and with students with different demographics and characteristics. Contingency contracts were used in public (Fausett, 2014; Trice, 1990), private (Diaddigo and Dickie, 1978), and home schools (Sheridan and Deering, 2009), and they were created for students with different characteristics. The students who participated in the study were from the 5 to 21 age range and were receiving general or special education. The students came from a wide range of academic, social, and ethnic backgrounds.

The results also showed that contingency contracting can be used to teach a variety of skills, including academic (Grünke, 2019) and non-academic (Smith, 1994) skills, or to manage different student behaviors (Navarro et al., 2007). The vast majority of the studies indicated that contingency contracting was effective in addressing the targeted skills and behaviors. However, the results obtained in this review about the use of contingency contracting with students with disabilities were consistent with those reported in Bowman-Perrott’s et al. (2015) meta-analysis, which showed combining contingency contracting with other interventions or adding another component to contracts can enhance the effectiveness of the intervention for students with disabilities (Fausett, 2014).

The findings of this review could have important implications for teachers and researchers. First, involving students in any intervention and having them take part in designing the intervention could enhance student motivation as the review results revealed that both teachers and students found satisfaction in implementing the contracts. Second, greater outcomes were found in studies in which contingency contracting was implemented in different settings (home and school). Therefore, involving students' parents, friends, or siblings in the contract can promote the effectiveness of the intervention. Third, the studies that included participants with disabilities suggest the use of contingency contracts alongside other interventions and implement them as a treatment package.

Despite the findings of this review, there are some limitations that should be considered. First, this is a comprehensive review that included a large number of studies that met a very few criteria. Therefore, the data obtained in the studies should be interpreted with caution because some of the studies, as indicated by the authors of the studies, were conducted with a low level of experimental rigor (Hawkins et al., 2011). This lack of experimental rigor may limit the conclusions about the findings. Second, the majority of the studies did not report information about the treatment fidelity or reliability of the data although they are key factors that should be considered to determine whether an intervention is effective (Smith et al., 2007).

In spite of these limitations, there is a need for research to update the literature on using contingency contracting in education as most of the studies were published decades ago. Moreover, further research is needed to evaluate the effect of using contingency contracting with students with disability categories other than those reported in the review such as students with hearing impairment and visual impairment. Finally, a large number of the studies included in this review did not address the effect of contingency contracting on students' ability to maintain and generalize targeted skills and behaviors. Therefore, future research on contingency contracting should focus on generalization and maintenance, given the importance of these aspects in applied settings.

Conclusion

When having a diverse group of students, teachers may need to use different instructional strategies to meet the individual and unique needs of the students. Contingency
contracting is an efficient strategy that has been shown to be effective. Research has revealed that contingency contracting can be used with students with different learning characteristics and abilities. In addition, research has revealed the effectiveness of contingency contracting in improving a wide range of academic and social behaviors and has supported the use of contingency contracting in different settings such as public schools, private schools, and homes.

**CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

**REFERENCES**


Appendix A

Table 1. An example of contingency contracts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contract</th>
<th>Reward</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This section includes information about who is responsible for completing the task, the task description, and criteria for acceptable performance, in addition to date on which the contract is signed and the student’s signature.</td>
<td>This section includes information about who is responsible for providing the reward, the reward description, and criteria for receiving the contracts, in addition to date on which the contract is signed and the teacher’s signature.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is an agreement between (student’s name) and (teacher’s name). The contract begins on ( / / ) and ends on ( / / ). It will be reviewed every day and renegotiated every week.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task completion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix B

Steps of creating contingency contracts

1. Building up and maintain a good rapport with the student.
2. Explaining the purpose of the meeting.
3. Explaining the meaning of a contract.
4. Providing examples of a contract.
5. Discussing the task that the student is going to complete.
6. Making an agreement on the task.
7. Discussing possible rewards with the student.
8. Discussing the criteria for receiving the reward.
9. Discussing when the reward will be given to the student.
10. Agreeing on a date to review and renegotiate the contract.
11. Giving the student a hard copy of the contract and having the student read it aloud.
12. The teacher and student give verbal affirmation.
13. The teacher and student sign the contract.
14. Congratulating the student for signing the contract and motivating the student to do the task.
Field specific competencies for French language teachers in Turkey: A model proposal

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The Republic of Turkey’s Ministry of National Education has long been working on the general professional and field specific competencies for teachers in Turkey in collaboration with universities. As a result of these efforts, the “General Competencies for Teaching Profession” was prepared in 2006. Later in 2008, the field specific competencies that teachers should have in their respective fields were determined. For primary school teachers, specific competencies were determined in 14 fields. While the field specific competencies for English language teachers are among these 14 fields, no such work has been conducted for French language teachers. For intermediate school (middle school) teachers, specific competencies were determined in 8 fields and were put into effect in 2011. This study aims to formulate a model related to the field specific competencies for French language teachers in Turkey as the existing literature on the topic is insufficient.

Key words: French language teacher, general competencies for teaching profession, field specific competencies, performance indicator.

INTRODUCTION

A country’s level of development in terms of its politics, economy and culture is closely related to its education system and its components. In particular, the constant advancements in education and training technologies as well as the changing student profile make it necessary to revise the knowledge, skills and competencies of teachers, who are the cornerstone of education. Although today's education is “student-centred”, the role and importance of teachers at all stages of education and training has not diminished. On the contrary, quick access to information thanks to advanced technologies has transformed and increased the qualities expected of teachers. Having long been described as people who merely “hold information and pass it onto others”, today, teachers are generally seen as people who facilitate learning and guide students. “The social, economic and technological developments as well as new approaches in the field of education bring forth changes in teachers’ traditional roles and functions. Teaching profession is dynamic, and the expectations about what teachers should know and be able to do constantly changes” (TED, 2009a: 6).

In today’s world, teachers play a vital role in raising modern individuals with inquisitive minds. They have various duties and responsibilities for the development of societies. Raising qualified individuals can be achieved
with the help of competent teachers with sufficient knowledge. After all, the most basic factor that determines the quality of education is without a doubt of the level of general and field specific competencies of teachers. The most important requisite for increasing a country’s education quality is to increase the quality of its teachers and improve their qualifications. Therefore, increasing the quality of education is directly linked to teacher qualifications during pre-service and in-service processes.

There are many factors affecting student success including teachers, family, school management, social circle, skills and interests of the student, etc. Numerous national and international studies have been conducted on this topic. It would not be wrong to say that these studies began with the reports of Coleman et al. (1966) in the Plowden Report (1967). According to these studies, the most important factor affecting student success was the socio-economic status of the family. However, the findings from these studies were later challenged by many researchers and resulted in other findings that prove the most important factors affecting student success to be school and class size (Glass et al., 1982; Mosteller, 1995) and teacher competencies (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Rockoff, 2003; Goe and Stickler, 2008) (TED, 2009b). The studies in Turkey (Olcay and Düş, 2009; Engin et al., 2009) also list various factors for having an impact on student success such as school and its physical conditions, financial and technological resources provided to education, etc., however, they point out that the most important factor in relation to student success is teachers and their qualifications. Especially, “the changing student profiles as well as the rapidly advancing educational technologies and the professional development approach dictated by our age have made it necessary for teachers’ knowledge, skills and competencies to be updated” (Inal and Büyükyavuz 2013: 222). However, teacher competency cannot be reduced to effective lecturing only; several different factors such as teachers’ professional competencies, personality traits, communication skills, lesson planning and management skills must be considered all together. In this respect, general professional and field specific competencies for teaching profession is a noteworthy topic to be studied.

**Teaching profession**

Teachers are the main building block of a society. Their role and importance for the development and progress of a country can never be ignored. “Acting as a bridge between knowledge and those who demand it, and passing down social values to future generations, teaching has always been one of the most respected professions throughout human history” (MEB, 2017:1). The respect that teachers garnered in society has in turn increased their responsibilities. It should be noted that a country’s quality of education can only be improved by training qualified teachers. In this regard, it is highly important that teachers practice self-improvement and attain to necessary professional standards in a world of science and technology.

The acceptance of teaching as a professional occupation took a long time. Article 43 of the Basic Law of National Education No. 1739 dated 1973 defines teaching profession as follows: (https://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.1739-20140206.pdf 5101-5113)

“Teaching is a specialised profession that undertakes the state’s responsibilities related to education, training and their overall management. The training for teaching profession covers general cultural knowledge training, subject matter training and pedagogical training. In order to attain these qualifications, all prospective teachers should receive higher education irrespective of the grade they will teach in.”

In 2013 and 2018, the United Kingdom based Varkey Foundation conducted researches that surveyed the prestige and social status of teaching profession across 35 countries. According to these researches, Turkey ranked third and seventh in Global Teacher Status Index (2013, 2018) reports, respectively, in terms of teachers' prestige in the society. Countries where teachers have the highest social status were China, Malaysia and Taiwan whereas the countries with the lowest status were Israel, Brazil and Italy (OECD, 2005). Despite the decrease in the teaching profession' prestige in Turkey between the two reports, teaching is still considered a respected profession in Turkey. In the research titled “Türkiye’de Çalışma Yaşamı ve Mesleklerin İlişkisi” (Working Life and Occupational Prestige in Turkey) (2015) conducted nationwide with the support of TÜBİTAK (The Scientific And Technological Research Council Of Turkey), teaching ranked as the fourth most prestigious profession after medical doctor, university professor and judge. (https://tyap.net/turkiye-mesleki-iliskisi).

“Similar to the rest of the world, teaching was not considered as a professional occupation within the Turkish education system until mid-19th century; and a handful of competencies were deemed sufficient for people who would take up teaching as an occupation” (Beyreli, 2017: 331). In many European countries, education activities were carried out either by actual clerics or by people with religious educational backgrounds until this approach finally changed in the 19th century. “For instance, the world’s first normal school (that is, teacher-training college), which was opened in France in 1794 shortly after the French Revolution, was closed the following year and was not opened again until 1808. Similarly, the normal school opened in England in 1830 did not function until 1840 due to pressure from the church” (Öztürk, 2005). In the history of Turkish education,
teaching was an occupation that was generally intertwined with the “clergy”. It was not accepted as a separate field of specialisation and lacked a separate curriculum" (Yalçınkaya and Aktepe, 2016: 398). With the teachers’ colleges opened in 1848, teacher training in Turkey became systematic; and since 1982, the job of training teachers has been carried out by universities.

**Teachers in the 21st Century**

The rapid developments in science and technology in the 21st century have resulted in radical changes in the field of education just like other fields. In this context, determining teacher competencies became imperative. These changes “make it necessary to have a comprehensive definition of what a competent teacher is and implement teacher training policies that are prepared within that framework” (MEB, 2017).

The traditional teacher model, which is based on having knowledge and passing it along to students, has, in today’s world, transformed into a model of teachers who act as guides and life coaches teaching students how to reach information while also constantly improving themselves. Today, “in addition to having an extensive knowledge about the subject matter they teach, teachers are expected to have competencies for facilitating students’ learning processes, being effective educators, organising group works and studies, and attracting students’ attention” (Karacaoğlu, 2008: 1). Particularly, the “information age” that we live in expects students to be inquisitive, to interpret things and to be productive individuals, which makes it necessary for teachers’ competencies, which are crucial in terms of student success, to be redefined in accordance with the conditions of the time.

The first studies on the qualifications required of teachers show that having professional pedagogical knowledge is more important than having field specific knowledge in terms of increasing student success. The “pedagogical content knowledge model” proposed by Shulman (1986) argues that content knowledge and professional pedagogical knowledge should be balanced. This model has been used throughout the world. However, the proliferation of technology in our daily lives soon began to affect education and training as well as teachers as one of its primary stakeholders. Specifically, “with the integration of technology, student expectations, teachers’ approach to training materials and the general structure of training activities” have changed (Sağlam-Kaya, 2019: 186). The topic of technology, which was absent in Shulman’s model, was later introduced with the “technological pedagogical content knowledge” model proposed by Mishra and Koehler (2006). According to this model, which was created by combining pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge with the use of technology, “quality teaching requires developing a nuanced understanding of the complex relationships between technology, content, and pedagogy”.

The elements constituting this model are as follows (Mishra and Koehler, 2006): Content Knowledge, Pedagogical Knowledge, Pedagogical Content Knowledge, Technology Knowledge, Technological Content Knowledge, Technological Pedagogical Knowledge, and Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge.

This model of seven elements is also compatible with the standards established by the *International Society for Technology in Education* (ISTE) to innovate education [https://www.iste.org/standards/standards-in-action/global-reach.](https://www.iste.org/standards/standards-in-action/global-reach) ISTE’s standards aim to prepare students for both life and business, and are aimed at bringing up individuals who are “empowered learners, digital citizens, knowledge constructors, innovative designers, computational thinkers, creative communicators, and global collaborators”.

**Definitions, scope and developing processes of teacher competencies**

When talking about teacher qualifications, terms like “qualification”, “competency”, “standard”, “quality”, “capacity”, “characteristics” and “effectiveness” are used in the literature. The Republic of Turkey’s Ministry of National Education (2008: VIII) defines teacher competencies as “the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for effectively and efficiently practicing teaching profession”. “According to the Teacher Development Agency (TDA) for England and Wales, ‘professional standards are statements of a teacher’s professional attribution, professional knowledge and understanding, and professional skills’” (Köksal and Convery, 2013: 2).

While educational technologies transform the scope and quality of education and training, they also make it necessary to review and revise teachers’ professional competencies. Reaching goals in education can be possible with teachers who can cater for the needs and requirements of our age. “The educational reforms taking place around the world signal that teachers must improve themselves so as not to fall behind the constantly changing social and economic life” (Buldu, 2014: 117). This means that teachers should be more qualified than ever before.

In order to improve the qualifications for teaching profession and to train teachers in accordance with the conditions of the 21st century, first, the general and field specific competencies for teachers must be determined. Then, teachers should be provided with the means and opportunities to adopt these competencies through pre-service and in-service programmes. “Therefore, to achieve success in education, prospective teachers should gain these competencies through theoretical and applied studies during teacher training programme”
(Karaca, 2008: 69). The general professional competencies that teachers should have change according to the education system of each country (Eurydice, 2018: 14). For instance, in the United States, the idea that education should be based on certain standards gained ground in the 1980s. Since then, federal governments and states have adopted and implemented it as law, and have turned it into a general practice. In this respect, the general professional competencies for teachers in the United States are determined by a central body whereas the field specific competencies are determined by professional organisations such as the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) and National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), which are then shared with related institutions (Özcan, 2011: 53).

In its report on teaching careers within the national education systems in Europe, the European Commission (2018) defines teacher competency as “a collection of statements about what a teacher as a professional should know, understand and be able to do.” The areas of competency included in the report are “psychopedagogical competences, subject knowledge and its teaching approaches, the organisation of learning and evaluation, innovative teaching approaches, communication with pupils, cooperation with colleagues, and relationships with parents and other external partners” (Eurydice, 2018: 79).

As the rest of the world, there are works carried out in Turkey regarding teachers’ professional competencies. However, establishing general professional and field specific competencies for teaching profession is an incredibly difficult and open-ended process due to the ever-changing conditions of our society and the dynamic nature of the teaching profession. The first official efforts in Turkey related to teacher competencies began in 1999 by the “Teacher Competencies Commission” consisting of representatives from the Ministry of National Education and various universities (MEB 1973). The commission prepared the “Teacher Competencies Document” in 2002 consisting of 3 main headings, namely “education-teaching competencies”, “general cultural knowledge and skills” and “subject matter knowledge and skills”. This was followed by the “Support to Basic Education Programme” (SBEP) signed between the European Commission and the Government of the Republic of Turkey that same year (2002). As a result of these, first, the “General Competencies for Teaching Profession” came into effect in 2006 (https://oymg.meb.gov.tr/www/ogretmenlik-meslegi-genel-yeterlikleri/icerik/39). The “General Competencies for Teaching Profession” consisted of 6 main competency domains, 31 sub competency domains and 233 performance indicators. Later, “Primary School Field Specific Competencies” were determined in 14 fields while “Secondary (Intermediate) School Field Specific Competencies” were determined in 8 fields, which were put into effect in 2008. However, some problems began to arise regarding the implementation of the “General Competencies for Teaching Profession”. This led to a need to update the professional competencies so that qualified teachers who are able to cater to society’s needs could be trained. The works to update the “General Competencies for Teaching Profession”, which was published by the Ministry of National Education in 2006, were carried out in 2008 (MEB, 2008). After consulting a large number of stakeholders, the “General Competencies for Teaching Profession” and “Field Specific Competencies for Teaching Profession”, which were initially planned as two separate frameworks, were combined into a single text. “The General Competencies of Teaching Profession has been updated in this context and it now consists of 3 interrelated competency domains; namely "professional knowledge", "professional skills", and "attitudes and values". These main domains include 11 competencies and 65 indicators related to the competencies…” (MEB, 2017: 8).

The “European Qualifications Framework” was adopted internationally by the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union in 2008. In relation to this, efforts to establish National Qualifications Framework (NQF) for higher education began in Turkey. National Qualifications Framework for Higher Education in Turkey (NQF-HETR) prepared by YÖK (Turkish Council of Higher Education) covers 14 main fields including the teaching profession (http://tyyc.yok.gov.tr/?pid=11). One of those fields is “Teacher Training and Education Science”, and it consists of 22 undergraduate programmes. “However, it is important that the existing General Competencies for Teaching Profession prepared by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) is compatible with National Qualifications Framework as well as the Higher Education Qualifications Framework” (Buldu, 2014: 118).

Teacher training and general competencies for teaching profession in France

The centralised governing style in France is also apparent in its education system and most of the authorities related to education are handled by central bodies except for some specific powers. Prior to the educational reform on July 2, 2010, teacher training in France was carried out by universities and the Teacher Training Institutes called Institut Universitaire de Formation des Maîtres (IUFM) founded in 1991. Teacher training would last 5 years, including undergraduate education. “Until the 2010-2011 academic year when the IUFMs began to be reconstructed, 3 years of this education would be given by universities, and the remaining 2 years would be given by IUFM” (Yücelsin Taş, 2011: 74). To become a primary, intermediate or
high school teacher, the candidates had to take one of the 7 exams at the end of their first years at the IUFM. IUFM’s mission was not only to train teachers in every field but also to organise and regulate in-service trainings for teachers.

The process of gradually reconstructing teacher training in France began with the 2010-2011 academic year. “The teacher training and higher education reform which was proposed at the end of 2012 within this context, and which was an extension of previous reforms, included a new policy and a new system devised in order to provide the best theoretical and applied education to prospective teachers at French universities and aptly configuring them in the most excellent way possible as well as providing regular, constant job opportunities for them (Saydi, 2013: 327). The name of the teacher training institutions that were founded on September 1, 2013 (Écoles Supérieures du Professionat et de l’Éducation–ÉSPÉ) was changed to INSPE (Institut national supérieur du professorat et de l’éducation) with the law introduced on July 29, 2019 (https://www.devenirenseignant.gouv.fr/pid33962/les-inspe-pour-former-les-futurs-enseignants.html).

The main goal of teachers and education personnel in France is to perform the educational duties in the country, providing education to help all students reach academic success and helping students develop both professionally and socially. In line with these goals, the official bulletin of the Ministry of National Education and Youth (https://www.education.gouv.fr/pid285/bulletin_officiel.htm?id_bo=2974) dated 25 July 2013 (No. 30) listed 14 general professional competencies for teachers (BO, 2013):

1. Sharing the values of the Republic.
2. Carrying out teaching profession within the framework of the fundamental principles of the education system and within the school regulatory framework.
3. Knowing students and the learning process.
4. Taking into account student diversity.
5. Accompanying students in their education journeys.
6. Acting as a responsible educator and in accordance with ethical principles.
7. Using French language in accordance with communicational purposes.
8. Using another foreign language when necessary.
9. Integrating digital culture elements when performing the job.
10. Working as a team.
11. Contributing to education.
12. Cooperating with the parents of students.
13. Cooperating with school partners and stakeholders.
14. Having an individual and collective approach to professional development.

It is clear that in France, just like in Turkey, the standards for teaching profession are only addressed within the context of general professional competencies; they do not focus on field specific competencies.

METHODOLOGY

Aim and significance of the study

The aim of this study is to formulate a model that determines the field specific competencies that French language teachers who teach French as a 1st or 2nd language in intermediate and high schools in Turkey should have.

The problem statement of the research is “What are the field specific competencies for French language teachers in Turkey?” In line with this problem statement, the following sub-problems have been determined:

1. What should be the field specific competencies for French language teachers?
2. What should be the scope of the field specific competencies for French language teachers?
3. What should be the performance indicators of the field specific competencies for French language teachers?

Research model

This descriptive study was designed as a qualitative research and was carried out by using a survey model. Survey model methodology is a research approach that aims to describe a past or present situation the way it occurs (Karasar, 2000). In light of the data gathered through document analysis, field specific competencies and performance indicators for French language teachers have been determined. As this is a qualitative research, the trustworthiness factor was adopted according to the criteria determined by Guba and Lincoln (1982) instead of validity and dependability. In this regard, instead of internal validity, the credibility factor was used while instead of the principle of external competence, the transferability factor was used. The trustworthiness and transferability of the results obtained from the research conducted according to these factors were examined. The principle of dependability was adopted in this study and it is aimed that the study produces similar results when repeated with similar participants. In line with these principles, the credibility and dependability of the study was ensured through feedbacks from practising French language teachers at intermediate and high school levels, from graduate students studying at French Language Teaching departments, and from the expert opinions of Marmara University’s Atatürk Faculty of Education members.

Collecting and analysing data

The research data was obtained through literature review and document analysis. “Document analysis includes the analysis of written materials that provide information about the phenomenon or phenomena aimed to be researched” (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2018: 189). In this respect, to prepare a model for the “field specific competencies for intermediate and high school level French language teachers”, first, a national and international literature review on teacher competencies was conducted. Then, the documents were examined through content analysis. The validity of the content analysis is directly related to the compatibility between the study objectives and the data collection tools. "The only tool to measure validity in content analysis is category definitions" (Karadağ, 2014: 5). The resources and materials used in this research consist of the following national and international reports and documents:
FINDINGS

In this part, based on the data obtained from document analysis, the field specific competencies for French language teachers that are/will be teaching in intermediate and high schools in Turkey are listed followed by their related performance indicators. The following 6 competencies and 50 performance indicators were determined according to the sub-problems stated in this research. In this regard, first, the competencies required from intermediate and high school level French language teachers were listed followed by an explanation of the scope of each competency; finally, the performance indicators related to each competency were listed. This field specific competency model was originally presented to French language teachers, academics, and graduate students to get their opinions; and according to their feedbacks, the list was revised and formulated as 6 competencies and 50 performance indicators:

Field specific competencies for French language teachers in Turkey

Improving French Language Related Knowledge

Scope: This competency is concerned with having theoretical and practical knowledge about language (phonetics, syntax, grammar, etc.), history, methodology, literature and culture related to teaching the French language.

Performance Indicators:

A2. Knowing the grammatical and phonetic features of the French language.
A3. Having a good lexical command of the French language.
A4. Being familiar with French literature and culture.
A5. Knowing fundamental linguistics principles.
A7. Having a good command of basic linguistic skills for French language.

Planning and assessing the teaching process

Scope: This covers the practices and competencies related to planning the French language teaching process, setting goals and objectives, determining methods and techniques appropriate for the subject matter and the target audience, creating suitable teaching environments, choosing and preparing the right equipment and materials, and using technological resources.

Performance indicators:

B1. Ability to plan the teaching-learning process in accordance with the curriculum.
B3. Effectively using printed and digital materials during teaching process.
B4. Ability to adopt the developments in French language teaching and reflect them in own teaching practices.
B5. Effectively using methods, techniques and strategies that are appropriate for French language teaching.
B6. Ability to plan the teaching process by taking into consideration students’ learning characteristics (learning strategies, learning styles, etc.).
B7. Taking into consideration the students’ age when planning the teaching process.
B8. Taking into consideration the language proficiency levels of students when planning the teaching process.
B9. Taking into consideration the readiness levels of students when planning the teaching process.
B10. Ability to plan the teaching process in accordance with the students’ cognitive, emotional and social traits.
B12. Guiding students for developing their learning strategies.
B13. Taking into consideration the needs of special needs students during the teaching-learning process.
B14. Ability to design activities that develop students’ higher-order thinking skills.
B15. Ability to design the learning environment in a way that enables active student participation.
B16. Creating a stimulus-rich learning environment during the teaching-learning process.
B17. Ability to design the learning environment by taking into consideration the individual differences and attributes of students.
B18. Effective time management during the teaching and learning process.
B19. Enabling active student participation in the teaching and learning process.

**Improving students’ French language skills**

**Scope:** This competency covers the sub-competencies related to developing students’ basic language skills, which are listening-understanding, speaking and spoken interaction, reading and writing, in accordance with the criteria in the “The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages”.

**Performance indicators:**

C1. Improving students’ listening and watching skills.
C2. Improving students’ reading skills.
C3. Improving students’ writing skills.
C4. Improving students’ dialogue skills.
C5. Helping students use French correctly and intelligibly
C6. Having a pragmatic approach when improving students’ basic language skills and associating them with communicative environments.
C7. Ability to utilise grammar either explicitly or implicitly whenever necessary while improving students’ language skills.

**Monitoring and assessing students’ French language improvements**

**Scope:** This competency is related to determining, monitoring and assessing the students’ French language improvements during the teaching process in accordance with The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages criteria.

**Performance indicators:**

D1. Setting goals for the assessment and evaluation practices related to French language teaching.
D2. Communicating the goals related to the assessment tools that will be used in the learning environment to the students.
D3. Using assessment and evaluation tools in French language teaching that are diversified according to basic linguistic skills.
D4. Using assessment and evaluation tools that are diversified according to language proficiency levels.
D5. Interpreting evaluation results related to students' French language improvements and providing feedback.
D6. Knowing the European Language Portfolio and benefiting from it during the assessment and evaluation process.
D7. Using process and result assessment tools together.

**Developing and Assessing Cross-Cultural Interaction**

**Scope:** This covers the competencies related to developing students’ social and cultural identities; familiarising them with France and the francophone culture, teaching them to respect other cultures.

**Performance indicators:**

E1. Contributing to the development of students’ personal, social and cultural identities.
E2. Being a role model and guiding students with regards to being tolerant and respecting differences (ideas, beliefs, lifestyles, etc.) and other cultures.
E3. Ability to teach French culture and the francophone culture both explicitly and implicitly.
E4. Ability to utilise written, oral and digital materials on both French and Turkish cultures.
E5. Preparing activities aimed at developing students’ cross-cultural skills.

**Professional development and assessment in the field of French language teaching**

**Scope:** This is related to the practices and competencies of French language teachers with respect to their own professional development.

**Performance indicators:**

F1. Identifying professional competencies and doing self-assessment to improve them.
F2. Following national and international publications and activities to support and improve professional experiences and knowledge.
F3. Participating in national and international courses/seminars for professional development.
F4. Using student, colleague and supervisor opinions to improve own professional competencies.
F5. Sharing knowledge and experiences and exchanging ideas about French language teaching with other colleagues.

**DISCUSSION**

Both national and international researches show that teacher competencies have a direct impact on student success. One of the most significant problems in educational institutions is the quality of education, and the most important factor that affects the quality of education is teacher qualification. To train qualified teachers who can cater for the technological needs and requirements of our age, it is of utmost importance that all factors affecting teacher competency are taken into consideration, and the policies related to teacher training are formulated accordingly. In order to make a sufficient and effective teacher assessment, it is necessary to determine and define certain standards. Such standards can help better understand how competent a teacher is based on their assessment.
Created based on the data obtained from literature review and document analyses, this model bears some similarities to the “Field Specific Competencies for Primary School Level English Language Teaching” guidebook published in 2008 by the Ministry of National Education in Turkey. However, no data has been found in any international documents regarding the field specific competencies that French language teachers should have.

Diverging from the “Field Specific Competencies for Primary School Level English Language Teaching” guidebook, which consists of 26 performance indicators under 5 competencies, that is, “Planning and Organising English Language Teaching Processes”, “Improving Linguistic Skills”, “Monitoring and Assessing Language Improvement”, “Cooperating with the School, Family, and Society” and “Professional Development in the Field of English Language Teaching”, this study is prepared for French language teachers and proposes 6 competencies and 50 performance indicators. The 6th competency, which is “Improving French Related Knowledge”, focuses on having theoretical and practical knowledge on language (phonetics, syntax, grammar, etc.), history, methodology, literature, and culture in relation to teaching French. This competency is not included in the “Field Specific Competencies for English Language Teaching” guidebook. However, it is a crucial competency for teachers who teach French as a 1st or 2nd language in intermediate schools and high schools. The rest of the competencies listed in the model proposed here show similarities with the competencies included in the ministry's said guidebook; however, the performance indicators differ. For instance, the competency of “Planning and Assessing the Teaching Process” has 19 performance indicators here, which is more than the ministry's guidebook. The 3rd competency, that is “Improving Students' French Language Skills” has similar performance indicators such as “improving students’ speaking, listening, reading and writing skills” but it has been enriched with the inclusion of performance indicators that today’s communicational and performative approaches entail such as “having a pragmatic approach when improving students’ basic language skills and associating them with communicative environments” and the “ability to utilise grammar either explicitly or implicitly whenever necessary while improving students’ language skills”. The 4th competency, which is “Monitoring and Assessing Students' French Language Improvements” is related to determining, monitoring, and evaluating students’ improvements during the education process in accordance with the criteria in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Another performance indicator, which is “knowing the European Language Portfolio and benefiting from it during the assessment and evaluation process”, was added under this competency; and in doing so, the competencies currently expected of foreign language teachers internationally have been updated. The 5th competency is “Developing and Assessing Cross-Cultural Interaction”, and it covers competencies related to developing students’ social and cultural identities, helping them learn about France as well as the francophone culture, and teaching them to respect other cultures. Since this competency is deemed to be highly important in today's foreign language teaching environment, it has been added to the model as a new competency. The 6th competency, which is “Professional Development and Assessment in the Field of French Language Teaching” also exists in English language teaching; however, in the model proposed here, its performance indicators have been broadened. The competency of “Cooperating with the School, Family, and Society” included in the “Field Specific Competencies for English Language Teaching” guidebook has been left out in this model as it is part of the general professional competencies.

It is critical that teachers who teach French as a 1st or 2nd language in intermediate schools or high schools acquire the competencies listed in this “Field Specific Competencies for French -Language Teachers” model, which was formulated by taking into consideration the current methods and approaches in foreign language teaching. In this regard, the following is a list of actions that can help French language teachers in acquiring the field specific competencies that are required of them.

1. The Education Faculties that train French language teachers and the schools run by the Ministry of National Education can collaborate more; with more importance given to applied courses in particular. In doing so, better equipped teachers with more professional competencies can be trained. Teachers can especially be supported to further improve their competencies for “Planning and Assessing the Teaching Process” and “Monitoring and Assessing Students' French Language Improvements”.

2. In service training programmes can be organised with the collaboration of the Ministry of National Education and the Education Faculties in order to provide continuous development for French language teachers. In doing so, French language teachers can have the opportunity to improve themselves both in terms of the methods they use and in terms of technological advancements.

3. To improve the linguistic skills of French language teachers, the number of opportunities for them to train in France for certain periods can be increased. Such trainings that take place abroad can improve the linguistic skills of teachers while also helping them learn that country’s culture.

4. The curriculums of Education Faculties that train French language teachers for intermediate and high schools can be designed in a way that will improve prospective teachers’ field specific competencies covered in this model.
(5) Practices that encourage French language teachers to participate in social and cultural activities as well as conferences and seminar in order to develop themselves can be organised.

It should be noted that this study constitutes a starting point, and the topic will be examined in all its aspects through future applied researches.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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