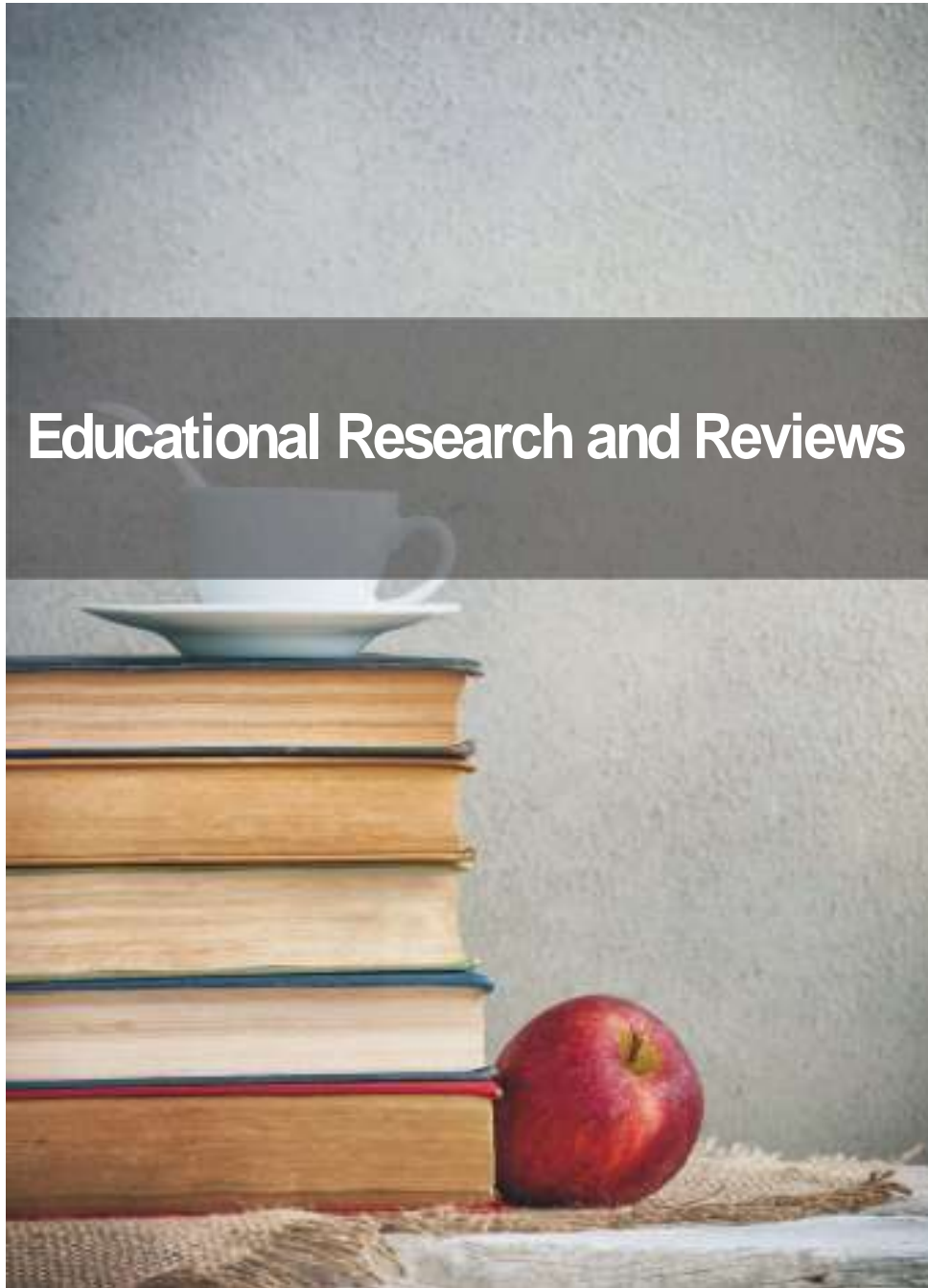


OPEN ACCESS

Educational Research and Reviews



10 May, 2018
ISSN: 1990-3839
DOI: 10.5897/ERR
www.academicjournals.org

 **ACADEMIC
JOURNALS**
expand your knowledge

ABOUT ERR

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

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

Contact Us

Editorial Office: err@academicjournals.org

Help Desk: helpdesk@academicjournals.org

Website: <http://www.academicjournals.org/journal/ERR>

Submit manuscript online <http://ms.academicjournals.me/>.

Editors

Dr. Peter W. Wong

*Southern Cross University
Australia.*

Assoc. Prof. Manjula Vithanapathirana

*Faculty of Education
University of Colombo
Colombo,
Sri Lanka.*

Associate Editors

Dr. Melissa Vick

*School Of Education
James Cook University
Townsville,
Australia.*

Prof. Ogunsakin R. Ebenezer

*Department of Statistics
Ekiti State University
Ado Ekiti,
Nigeria.*

Dr. Maniam Kaliannan

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

Dr. A. Kadir Maskan

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

Dr. Tavis D. Jules

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

Dr. Mohd Akhtar Siddiqui

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

Dr. Adams Onuka

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

Dr. Yambo John M. Onyango

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

Dr. Tolga Gök

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

Editorial Board

Prof. García Mayo, María del Pilar

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

Prof. Frank Witlox

*Ghent University
Department of Geography
Gent,
Belgium.*

Prof. Georgios D. Sideridis

*University of Crete
Department of Psychology
Rethimno,
Greece.*

Prof. Andreas Veglis

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

Prof. Mutendwahothe Walter Lumadi

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

Dr. Miriam McMullan

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

Prof. Moshe Barak

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

Dr. Hiam Zein

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

Dr. Joel O. Eriba

*Faculty of Education
Benue State University
Makurdi,
Nigeria.*

Prof. Bingjun Yang

*School of Foreign Languages
Southwest University
Chongqing,
China.*

Dr. Ernest W. Brewer

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

Prof. Gail Derrick

*Regent University
School of Education
Virginia Beach,
USA.*

Dr. Evridiki Zachopoulou

*Department of Early Childhood Care and Education
Thessaloniki,
Greece.*

Dr. Francesco Pastore

*Seconda Università di Napoli
Italy,*

Dr. Syed Iftikhar Hussain Shah

*Technical Education and Vocation
TEVTA Secretariat
Lahore,
Pakistan.*

Dr. Ravi Kant

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

Editorial Board

Dr. Dibakar Sarangi

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

Dr. Elisa Backer

*Faculty of Business
Federation University Australia
Australia.*

Dr. Ahmad Alkhaldeh

*Department of Curriculum and instruction
University of Jordan
Jordan.*

Dr. Mehmet Akif Sözer

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

Educational Research and Reviews

Table of Contents: Volume 13 Number 9 10 May, 2018

ARTICLES

Motivation to learn Turkish in foreign students with different thinking styles in terms of functional and formal aspects	328
Behice Varisoglu	
Challenges of research conduct among postgraduate research students in an African University	336
Adeyimika Titilayo Desmennu and Eme Theodora Owoaje	
A look at mother tongue education in the context of the right to education	343
Idris Şahin	

Full Length Research Paper

Motivation to learn Turkish in foreign students with different thinking styles in terms of functional and formal aspects

Behice Varisoglu

Faculty of Education, Gaziosmanpaşa University, Turkey.

Received 11 February, 2018; Accepted 27 March, 2018

The aim of this study was to determine the level of motivation to learn Turkish among foreign students with different thinking styles in terms of the functional and formal aspects of these thinking styles. The survey model was used in the study. The participants in the study were 51 foreign students (33 female, 18 male) who were studying at the TÖMER (Türkçe Öğretim Merkezi [Center of Turkish Language Teaching]) at Gaziantep University in the 2016-2017 academic year and who were selected by the convenience sampling technique. The Thinking Styles Inventory and Turkish-Oriented Motivation Scale were used to obtain the data. The data collected were analysed by descriptive and relational analysis techniques and presented with averages, standard deviations, analysis of variance (Chi Square) and the Mann Whitney U-test. According to the findings obtained, the motivation of the foreign students with different thinking styles to learn Turkish was at a moderate level. It was determined that the following motivating factors were predominant in the motivational sub-dimensions: among legislative and anarchic thinkers, the sub-dimension of research; among executive and monarchic thinkers, the sub-dimension of performance; among legislative and hierarchic thinkers, the sub-dimension of communication; among executive and hierarchic thinkers, the sub-dimension of cooperation; and among judicial and monarchic thinkers, the sub-dimension of individual success.

Key words: Thinking styles, teaching Turkish as a foreign language, motivation.

INTRODUCTION

Thinking styles

Every individual's way of perceiving the world, their goals, their communication with people, their approaches to problems and the solutions they come up with are different. The differences that individuals have, has led

them to see reality from different perspectives, to acquire information in different ways, to make judgements on the basis of different findings and to express the results in different forms.

Thought, one of the basic and distinctive features of human beings, is a complex process shaped by individual

E-mail: bvarisoglu@gmail.com.

Author(s) agree that this article remains permanently open access under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 International License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/)

differences. The different situations, events and phenomena that an individual encounters force them to constantly think anew. The way in which an individual manifests an attitude and style of thinking in different situations helps them to develop their own forms and ways of thinking.

As individuals bring their different thinking processes to bear on the external world, they demonstrate different methods and strategies that are unique to them. 'Thinking style' indicates the way that an individual prefers to apply cognitive processes such as intelligence, ability, reasoning, problem-solving (Grigorenko and Sternberg, 1995: 205). According to Stenberg (1994: 36), a thinking style is the way that an individual chooses to use the skills they possess. For him, a thinking style does not indicate the extent of one's ability to think, but is rather the means by which one's ability is demonstrated. A style is the habitual way of revealing one's ability, whereas the ability itself is the capacity to act or do something (Zhang, 2002).

Individuals do not have a single, constant thinking style. One's preferred style may change in the face of changing situations. The style of thinking needed may also change from time to time according to individual flexibility and preference (Sternberg, 1994: 38). However, each person's style follows a specific profile. People have a 'style profile' based on their favourite style of thinking. The style profile is related to what form of thinking each person uses. For this reason, each person differs from every other individual in terms of style profile (Duru, 2004). A 'thinking style profile' is the style that a person typically applies in similar situations, from which they gain experience, and which facilitates problem-solving.

The notion of thinking styles is derived from the theory of mental autonomy; they can be measured, and, as structures that influence thought, they are related to learning approaches, personality types and self-esteem (Zhang, 2000). The typical styles can be measured by scales in appropriate environmental and laboratory conditions.

Thinking styles can vary depending on age and changing circumstances. A person can change the thinking style they use when in a given situation, at later ages or in other situations. In this sense, a thinking style is dynamic, not static. The habitual thinking style of an individual may be different after a few years have passed (Dinçer, 2009). However, the preferred thinking style is used more effectively as age increases (Zhang and Sternberg, 2005).

Thinking styles are acquired in a social context and in this respect they are part of an individual's process of socialization (Grigorenko and Sternberg, 1997). Individuals observe their surroundings and learn new things from the people they take as models. A behaviour that is learned through observation can become part of the preferred thinking style. The thinking styles of people they observe can affect the observers. Hence, the ways

in which thinking processes are expressed can be part of an individual's socialization. Thinking styles have a social significance in a sense and can change and develop under the influence of the environmental factors that people live in (Buluş, 2005).

Language learning motivation

Motivation, which is one of the most important basic concepts in education, encompasses affective characteristics such as interest, attitude, value, belief and self-efficacy, all of which affect learning. In general, motivation, which involves ideas of demand, desire, goal, purpose, need and impulse, can be defined as a process that is initiated as a result of a physiological or psychological necessity, and which then activates and sustains a purposeful behaviour or an impulse (Ülker, 2001: 6).

Motivation thus indicates the totality of efforts an individual makes in beginning to move towards a goal (Mahmutoğulları, 2015: 23). It is both a propulsive and repulsive force, pushing a person down one path of action, rather than another. In this sense, motivation is the general name of a process that signifies continuity.

Motivation is a drive which supports a student's learning of new knowledge and skills and helps them to feel confident as they pursue success. In aiming for success, it is what stimulates an individual to work, helps them maintain and manage their efforts, and takes account of all the conditions arising from an individual and their surroundings. In addition, motivation is not only a drive that leads to success but also a feeling that keeps a person going and helps them to avoid possible obstacles to success (Dede and Yaman, 2008).

Motivation is one of the most important concepts in learning and thinking. Students who want to learn language should set achievable and logical goals. In the language learning process, both internal and external sources of motivation are needed to attain the stated goals. Motivation is an important and dominant factor influencing one's success in learning a foreign language. According to Dörnyei (1994), motivation involves the behaviours that people choose and the patience and efforts that they expend in exhibiting these behaviours. Students with a high level of motivation are more likely to be successful than those with a low level of motivation. Motivation in language learning increases the students' desire to learn. While taking responsibility for their own learning, students willing to learn a foreign language more consciously consider the amount of effort they are putting in, the frequency of the activities they engage in, and the possible causes of the problems they encounter (Dörnyei and Skehan, 2005).

Motivation is needed to help students improve their efforts to learn a foreign language and for them to continue learning. It has been suggested that even if they

have language learning skills, they will not be able to demonstrate their full potential and reach their long-term goals if they do not have enough motivation (Dörnyei, 2003). For this reason, many researchers have focused on motivation in foreign language learning and its effect.

Ellis (1994) drew attention to the relationship between motivation and learning. He suggested that learning occurs only when a person is motivated. He also stated that foreign language teachers explain their own failures as being mostly due to the low motivation of the students. Al-Shehri (2009: 168) stated that language acquisition is not the same in all students. According to him there are three main factors that affect foreign language learning: age, personality and motivation. Masgoret and Gardner (2003) stated that motivation to learn a language is related to the communication needs of students and their attitudes towards the community that speaks the foreign language.

The question of whether students' motivation is determined by their own individual efforts or by external processes they have experienced has been influential in the classification of motivation. Theories of motivation can be classified as content theories and process theories. The content (energy) theories are related only to what initially motivates people and their needs, desires and goals. Process theories focus on the entire process of being motivated and are concerned with how motivation is formed (Spolsky, 2000).

When the literature is examined, it is seen that there is very little research on the significance, role, effect and relation of motivation in teaching/learning Turkish as a foreign language. (Arslan and Gürsoy, 2008; Biçer, 2016; Barin, 2008; Yılmaz and Buzlukluoğlu Arslan, 2014). This study was therefore needed to draw attention to this gap in the field as well as to describe the situation as related to the motivations to learn in students with different thinking styles learning Turkish.

Purpose of the research and the research questions

The aim of this study was to determine the level of motivation of foreign learners with different thinking styles who were learning Turkish language in terms of the functional and formal aspects of these thinking styles. The main research questions, reflecting this aim were:

- i) What are the preferences of foreign students in terms of their dominant functional and formal thinking styles?
- ii) What is the level of foreign students' motivation to learn the Turkish language?
- iii) Do foreign students' motivations to learn the Turkish language differ in terms of the functional and formal aspects of their thinking styles?
- iv) Do the motivations of foreign learners who are learning Turkish and have different thinking styles differ in terms of the functional and formal aspects of these

thinking styles according to gender?

METHODS

Research design

The survey model was used in the study. The survey is used to investigate the opinions and characteristics of a large number of participants and is usually conducted with a specific number of people representing the universe (Büyüköztürk et al., 2009: 248). A cross-sectional survey model was used in this study since data were being collected once from all the participants.

Research group

The data were collected from 51 foreign students (male: 18; female: 33) who were learning the Turkish language at TÖMER at Gaziantep University in the 2016-2017 academic year. They were selected by the convenience sampling technique. Students participated in the study on a voluntary basis. The participants were students attending the B1 (male: 9; female: 14), B2 (male: 6; female: 12), C1 (male: 3; female: 7) levels within the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

Data collection

In order to obtain the data of the study, the Thinking Styles Scale, prepared by Sternberg and Wagner (1992) and adapted to Turkish by Sünbül (2004), and the Turkish-Oriented Motivation Scale, prepared by Dede and Yaman (2008) and revised for the purpose of the study by the researcher, were used.

The data were collected with the Thinking Styles Scale, prepared by Sünbül (2004). No changes were made to the items in the scale. The reliability coefficient of the scale was calculated for all the items ($\alpha=0.71$). However, analyses were only conducted of the items including the formal and functional thinking styles only. For this reason, a shortened scale was used for the new form, which contained the 35 items in these two sub-dimensions of the scale. The reliability coefficient calculated for the short scale was $\alpha=0.72$. The original α values of the scale were: for legislative thinking style, 0.70; for executive thinking style, 0.74; for judicial thinking style, 0.78; for monarchic thinking style, 0.70; for hierarchical thinking style, 0.78; for oligarchic thinking style, 0.71; for anarchic thinking style, 0.72 (Sünbül, 2004).

The reliability coefficient of the Turkish-Oriented Motivation Scale was calculated as $\alpha=0.78$. The inventory revised for the purpose of the study was examined by three lecturers who were specialists in the field and the subject area was examined for the validity of the scope and appearance. A "Yes-Partially-No" form was used to determine the consistency among the views of the three experts about the scale. The ratings given were "2-1-0" in the form. The ratio of the experts' opinions was thus 68%. The items were evaluated by experts mainly on the basis of clarity, fluency, proper use of language, how the expressions regarding motivation were formulated, and in terms of understandability. In accordance with the suggestions of the experts, items which were not suitable for inclusion or decreased the appearance were removed from the scale. In addition, an internal consistency analysis was conducted for construct validity of the scale and items with a correlation value of less than 0.400 were eliminated. According to the results of factor analysis, five sub-dimensions were determined. There are thus five sub-dimensions in the Motivation scale and a total of 23 items. It is a 5-point (lowest value 1; highest value 5) Likert-type

Table 1. Foreign students' thinking style profiles.

Categories	Styles	N	%	X	S.D
Functional thinking	Legislative thinking	11	21.57	3.81	1.411
	Executive thinking	9	17.65	3.73	1.426
	Judicial thinking	6	11.76	3.87	1.325
Formal thinking	Monarchic thinking	7	13.73	3.80	1.329
	Hierarchic thinking	7	13.73	3.75	1.401
	Oligarchic thinking	6	11.76	3.72	1.527
	Anarchic thinking	5	9.80	3.85	1.523

scale.

Data analysis

The data collected were analyzed by descriptive and relational analysis techniques and presented using average rates, standard deviation and the Chi Square and Mann Whitney U-test in the SPSS 16.00 program. Non-parametric statistical techniques were used because the data were not normally distributed in terms of homogeneity.

FINDINGS

Foreign students' functional and formal thinking style preferences

The preferred thinking styles of the foreign students participating in the study were determined by considering the average values and standard deviations of their answers to the Thinking Styles Scale. The distribution of students according to their preferred thinking styles is shown in Table 1.

When Table 1 is examined, it was seen that the thinking styles dominated by the average and standard deviation values in the answers of the students were approximately similar. It was seen that there were more foreign students who had the profile of a legislative thinker than any others. However, when examined by category, it was seen that functional thinkers (N=26) and formal thinkers (N=25) had very similar values and were in similar situations.

Levels of foreign students' motivation to learn Turkish

The levels of foreign students' motivation to learn Turkish were determined by considering the average and standard deviation values of the responses given by the foreign students who participated in the study to the Turkish Learning Motivation Inventory. The motivation levels of the students are shown in Table 2.

When Table 2 is examined, it was seen that the foreign

students had a moderate level of motivation to learn Turkish according to the average and standard deviation values. The situation is also the same in the sub-dimensions of motivation to learn Turkish.

Foreign students' motivation to learn Turkish according to functional and formal aspects of different thinking style profiles

Whether foreign students' level of motivation to learn Turkish differed according to the functional and formal aspects of their different thinking styles, and their predominant motivation levels according to their preferred thinking style was determined by the Chi Square test. The findings are shown in Table 3.

When Table 3 is examined, it was seen that the students' thinking styles had a significant impact on their motivation to learn Turkish ($\chi^2=33.28$; $p(0.000) < 0.05$). That is, there was a significant difference between those who had a formal style of thinking and those who had a functional style of thinking, in terms of motivation to learn Turkish.

The Pearson correlation test was used to determine which sub-dimension of motivation to learn Turkish had a stronger relationship with the thinking styles of the students participating in the study. As a result of analysis, the values showing the highest scores in the sub-dimensions of motivation to learn Turkish and thinking styles are shown in Table 4.

It is accepted as a high level of correlation if the correlation coefficient is between 0.70 and 1.00, as a moderate level of correlation if the correlation coefficient is between 0.30 and 0.70, and as a low level of correlation if the correlation coefficient is between 0.00 and 0.30 (Büyüköztürk, 2009: 32). According to the correlation coefficient values in Table 4, a mid-level positive and significant relation between the functional and formal thinking styles of foreign students and their motivation to learn Turkish [$r=0.415$; $p(0.000) < 0.01$] was found. When the relationship between the sub-dimensions of both scales was examined, a significant positive correlation between the scales was seen. The highest

Table 2. The levels of foreign students' motivation to learn Turkish.

Turkish learning motivation	Mean	S.D.	Low	Medium	High
			1-2.3	2.4-3.6	3.7-5
Research motivation	2.57	1.443		✓	
Performance motivation	3.51	1.252		✓	
Communication motivation	3.15	1.505		✓	
Cooperation motivation	3.39	1.556		✓	
Individual achievement motivation	3.66	1.416		✓	
All items of the scale	3.45	1.416		✓	

Table 3. The results of Chi Square test.

Styles	Research motivation		Performance motivation		Communication motivation		Cooperation motivation		Individual achievement motivation		All items of the scale	
	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p
Functional thinking	10.63	0.031	9.73	0.045	9.69	0.046	8.67	0.070	8.13	0.087	7.84	0.097
Formal thinking	15.10	0.057	15.95	0.043	14.76	0.064	14.32	0.074	14.48	0.014	14.06	0.007
All items of the scale	28.15	0.031	27.29	0.063	29.09	0.001	27.39	0.0560	30.16	0.000	33.28	0.000

p<0.05.

Table 4. Results of the Pearson correlation analysis (r).

Correlation	Research motivation	Performance motivation	Communication motivation	Cooperation motivation	Individual achievement motivation
Legislative thinking	0.303**	0.102	0.477**	0.121	0.119
Executive thinking	0.386**	0.412**	0.125	0.339**	0.107
Judicial thinking	0.121	0.099	0.122	0.331**	0.441**
Monarchic thinking	0.134	0.392**	0.105	0.111	0.245**
Hierarchic thinking	0.110	0.301**	0.308**	0.327**	0.400**
Oligarchic thinking	0.108	0.113	0.101	0.147	0.198
Anarchic thinking	0.119	0.321**	0.127	0.132	0.174
Between thinking styles and motivation			r=0.415 p(0.000) <0.01		

**p<0.01.

correlation ratio was between the sub-dimension of communication and legislative thinking, with $r=0.477$. The lowest correlation ration was seen between the sub-dimension of performance and judicial thinking, with $r=0.099$.

Foreign students' motivation to learn Turkish according to gender

It was determined whether the foreign students' motivation to learn Turkish differed by gender. The findings are shown in Table 5.

When the U-test results in Table 5 are examined, it was

seen that gender made a significant difference to the motivation to learn Turkish of the foreign students participating in the study ($U=1.748$; $p_{(0.000)}<0.005$). According to this result, it can be said that female students' had a higher motivation to learn Turkish than their male counterparts when the average and standard deviation values are taken into consideration.

DISCUSSION

In this study to determine the level of motivation of foreign students to learn Turkish, conducted with regard to the functional and formal aspects of the students'

Table 5. Mann Whitney U- test results.

Gender	N	X	S.D.	U	df	P
Male	18	3.71	0.68	1.748	49	0.000
Female	33	3.93	0.42			

different thinking styles, the results obtained can be summarized as follows:

1) 21.57% of the foreign students who participated in the study had a functional legislative thinking style. In this regard, 17.65% of the students had an executive thinking style and 11.76% of them had a judicial thinking style. When viewed from the formal aspect, it was seen that 13.73% of the students had a monarchic thinking style, 13.73% of the students had a hierarchic thinking style, 11.76% of the students had an oligarchic thinking style and 9.80% of the students had an anarchic thinking style.

2) The average level of motivation of the foreign students learning Turkish was 3.45. When the sub-dimensions of the scale were examined, the lowest mean value was 2.57 for the sub-dimension of research, and the highest mean value was 3.66 in the sub-dimension of individual achievement. According to these findings, both in the total scale and in all sub-dimensions, it was concluded that foreign students' motivation to learn Turkish was at a moderate level.

Learning a foreign language is a difficult and complex process. It requires an intense effort to obtain information and develop the linguistic skills in the new language being learned. In beginning to learn a foreign language, it can be unclear whether a learner will use internal and external sources of motivation, to what extent they will use them, and how any learning will occur. In this respect, motivation levels of students may vary. While some students may have a very high motivation, others may have a lower motivation. As students with a higher motivation will also be more successful in learning, it will be easier for both them and their teachers to achieve learning goals. On the other hand, a foreign language class consisting of poorly motivated students will not be a productive and efficient learning environment. Thus, the level of motivation has an effect on the success of learning (Gardner, 2001; Williams and Burden, 1997; Dörnyei, 2003). This study determined that students had a moderate motivation. As the motivation of students who participated in the study increases, their success will also increase.

3. There was a significant difference between the students' thinking style profiles and their motivation to learn Turkish. In other words, students who thought differently had different levels of motivation when they were learning the Turkish language.

The fact that motivation varies according to different thinking style profiles is a situation that can be easily understood, because motivation is not a stable factor. It

can change, develop or fade away during the process. As students' experience of learning a foreign language varies according to their different preferred thinking styles, so their levels of motivation will also change. Sometimes a single preferred thinking style may be a determinant for motivation throughout the process. And sometimes thinking styles may be deployed in only one lesson and may undergo a change during the process of a learning activity, consequently changing the level of motivation.

4. A moderate and positive significant relationship was found between the motivation to learn Turkish of the students participating in the study and their thinking styles. According to the findings of Pearson correlation analysis, a positive relation was found in the sub-dimensions of motivation to learn the Turkish language.

When the literature was examined, no studies that examined thinking styles together with learning motivation could be found in Turkey. In the literature worldwide some outstanding research has been carried out. For example, Oke and Musta'Amal (2013) addressed the use of inner motivation and thinking styles as a tool to assess students. In a study by Paloş et al. (2011), thinking styles and motivation were considered as variables determining success. In another study, Navan and Shariatmadari (2015) noted that there was a positive relationship between students' motivation to achieve academic success and thinking styles, similar to the findings of this study. In another study that overlaps with the findings of this study, Nikoupoor et al. (2012) concluded that there was a moderate positive relationship between learning motivation and thinking styles. Fan and Zhang (2009) also reported that there was a relationship between motivation and thinking styles in their research. On the other hand, in contrast with this result, the findings of Fan and Zang (2009) in their study also signify a negative relationship between some lower dimensions.

5. It was determined that the relationship between sub-dimensions of motivation to learn Turkish and the thinking styles of the foreign students was at a moderate level. When the relationship between the sub-dimensions of the scales were examined according to their correlation values, significant relationships were found between legislative and anarchic thinkers and the sub-dimension of research; between the sub-dimension of performance and executive, monarchic, hierarchic, anarchic thinkers; between the sub-dimension of communication and legislative and hierarchic thinkers; between the sub-dimension of cooperation and executive, judicial and hierarchic thinkers, and between the sub-dimension of

individual achievement and judicial, monarchic, hierarchic thinkers.

6. It is one of the results of the research that there was a significant difference between genders with regard to motivation to learn Turkish. Female students were more motivated to learn Turkish than their male counterparts. In other words, female and male students have different levels of motivation while learning Turkish as a foreign language. In parallel with this result, Nikoupoor et al. (2012) also determined that there was a significant difference between gender and motivation towards academic achievement.

In another study, Öztürk and Gürbüz (2013) also compared the motivation of female and male students learning a foreign language and found that female students had a higher motivation to learn a foreign language than male students. Similarly, Gardner and Lambert (1972) investigated a group of Canadians learning French as a second language and determined that female students were more motivated than male students. In addition, Sung and Padilla (1998) examined the motivation of students learning Chinese or Korean as a foreign language and determined that girls had a higher level of motivation than boys.

This finding, which is also supported by the results of similar studies in the literature, proves that gender difference is a determining variable for motivation. It has an effect particularly in favour of girls.

There may be some additional reasons why gender is a determinant for motivation. Socio-cultural factors may be among these. For example, Kobayashi (2002) associated the reason that Japanese female students learned English and had a higher level of motivation with their perception of learning a foreign language as a means of setting themselves apart from society which marginalizes women. Thus, he indicated that women had a higher desire to learn English at school. In another study, Ryan (2009) revealed that women in Japan learned English to express themselves more freely and noted that Japanese restricted women in some aspects of life.

Another social factor that may cause differences in motivation between genders is the perception individuals have of a language. In their studies, Dörnyei et al. (2006), and Williams et al. (2002) emphasized that the reason that male students were less motivated to learn French than female students was that French was generally considered an effeminate language.

The majority of foreign students who participated in the study were Syrian immigrants. It was observed that immigrant women needed to know Turkish more than men in order to function socially in Turkey. This situation also affected their motivation to learn.

Conclusion

When all these results are evaluated in general, it can be said that foreign students' motivation to learn Turkish

varied according to their thinking style profiles and their gender; the students' thinking styles and genders had an influence on their motivation to learning, and that the motivation to learn changes as the thinking style profile changes.

Suggestions

Thinking styles were used as independent variables in this study. In other research new variables such as learning styles or metacognitive strategies could be used in addition to thinking styles. Learning motivation was also used as a dependent variable in this study. Attitudes, perceptions and belief scales could also be added to this variable

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

REFERENCES

- Al-Shehri AS (2009). Motivation and vision: The relation between the ideal L2 self, imagination and visual style. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters. pp.164-171.
- Arslan M, Gürsoy A (2008). Establishing motivation in teaching Turkish as a second language through role playing and dramatic activities. *Ege J. Educ.* 2(9):109-124.
- Barın E (2008). Yabancılarla Türkçenin öğretiminde motivasyonun önemi. *Van Yüzüncü Yıl University. J. Soc. Sci. Institute* 7:135-143.
- Biçer N (2016). Views of students about their motivation in teaching Turkish as a foreign language and classroom observations. *J. Mother Tongue Educ.* 4(1):84-99.
- Buluş M (2005). The Investigation of the thinking styles profile of students in the department of elementary education. *Ege J. Educ.* 1(6):1-24.
- Büyükoztürk Ş (2009). *Sosyal bilimler için varyasyon analizi el kitabı*. Ankara: PegemA Publishing.
- Büyükoztürk Ş, Çakmaklıoğlu E, Akgün ÖE, Karadeniz Ş, Demirel F (2009). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri* (4. edition). Ankara: PegemA Publishing.
- Dede, Y, Yaman S (2008). A Questionnaire for motivation toward science learning: A Validity and reliability study. *Faculty of Necatibey Educ. J. Sci. Mathematics Educ. (EFMED)*, 2(1):19-37.
- Diñer B (2009). *The investigation of teacher candidates' thinking style profiles in terms of various variables* (Unpublished master thesis), Adnan Menderes University, Aydın.
- Dörnyei Z (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *Modern Lang. J.* 78(3):273-284.
- Dörnyei Z (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research, and applications. *Language Learning*, 53:3-32.
- Dörnyei Z, Skehan P (2005). Individual differences in second language learning. In C. J. Daugherty and M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- Dörnyei Z, Csizér K, Németh N (2006). Motivation, language attitudes, and globalization: A Hungarian perspective. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Duru E (2004). Thinking styles: theoretical and conceptual framework. *Eur. J. Educ. Res.* 14:171-186.
- Ellis R (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fan W, Zhang LF (2009). Are achievement motivation and thinking

- styles related? A visit among Chinese university students. *Learning Individ. Diff.* 19:299-303.
- Gardner RC (2001). Language learning motivation: the student, the teacher, and the researcher. *Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education*, 6:1-18.
- Gardner RC, Lambert WE (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley: Newbury House.
- Grigorenko EL, Sternberg RJ (1995). Thinking styles. In: D.H. Saklofske and M. Zeidner (Eds.), *International Handbook of Personality and Intelligence. Perspectives on Individual Differences*. Springer, Boston: MA. pp. 205-229.
- Grigorenko EL, Sternberg RJ (1997). Styles of thinking, abilities and academic performance. *Exceptional Children*, 63:295-312.
- Kobayashi Y (2002). The role of gender in foreign language learning attitudes: Japanese female students' attitudes towards English learning. *Gender Educ.* 14(2):181-197.
- Mahmutoğulları D (2015). The effect of in-service training perception on employees' motivation to learn: a case report of Bodrum. (Unpublished master thesis), Nevşehir Hacıbektaş Veli University, Social Sciences Institute, Nevşehir.
- Masgoret AM, Gardner RC (2003). Attitudes, motivations, and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learn.* 53(1):123-163.
- Navan SFS, Shariatmadari M (2015). The Relationship between functions of thinking styles and academic achievement motivation among students of Payame Noor University, Iran. *Indian J. Fundamental Appl. Life Sci.* 5(S3):1699-1708.
- Nikoupoor J, Alam M, Tajbakhsh M (2012). Thinking style and achievement motivation: a survey study among Iranian efl learners. *Int. J. Eng. Lit.* 2(3):89-104.
- Oke JO, Musta'Amal AH (2013). Intrinsic motivation and thinking styles as additional measures for admitting students into qualitative technical education degree programme. 2nd International Seminar on Quality and Affordable Education (ISQAE 2013).
- Paloş R, Munteanu A, Costea I, Macsinga I (2011). Motivational and cognitive variables with impact on academic performance Preliminary study. *Procedia Soc. Behav. Sci.* 15:138-142.
- Ryan S (2009). Ambivalence and commitment, liberation and challenge: Investigating the attitudes of young Japanese people towards the learning of English. *J. Multilingual Multicultural Dev.* 30(5):405-420.
- Spolsky B (2000). Language motivation revised. *Appl. Linguistics*, 21(2):157-169.
- Öztürk G, Gürbüz N (2013). The impact of gender on foreign language speaking anxiety and motivation. *Procedia-Soc. Behav. Sci.* 70:654-665.
- Sternberg RJ (1994). Thinking styles and testing: Bridging the gap between ability and personality assessment. In: R. J. Sternberg and P. Ruzgis (Eds.), *Intelligence and personality*. New York: Cambridge University Press. pp. 169-187.
- Sternberg RJ, Wagner RK (1992). *Thinking styles inventory*. Unpublished manual, Yale University.
- Sung H, Padilla A (1998). Student motivation, parental attitudes, and involvement in the learning of Asian languages in elementary and secondary schools. *Modern Lang. J.* 82(2):205-216.
- Sünbül AM (2004). The Validity reliability of the thinking styles scale. *Educ. Sci.* 29(132):25-42.
- Ülker A (2001). *Organizasyonlarda motivasyon ve bir uygulama*. (Unpublished master thesis), İnönü University, Social Sciences Institute, Malatya.
- Williams M, Burden R, Lanvers U (2002). French is the language of love and stuff: Student perceptions of issues related to motivation in learning a foreign language. *Br. Res. J.* 28(4):503-508.
- Williams M, Burden RL (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: a social constructivist approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Yılmaz, F, Buzlukluoğlu AS (2014). Turkish learners' motivation resources and problems of foreign students at ÇOMU TÖMER. *Turk. Stud.* 9(6):1181-1196.
- Zhang LF (2000). Relationship between thinking styles inventory and study process questionnaire. *Pers. Individ. Diff.* 29:841-856.
- Zhang LF (2002). Thinking styles and cognitive development. *J. Genetic Psychol.* 163(2):179-195.
- Zhang LF, Sternberg RJ (2005). Styles of thinking as a basis of differentiated instruction. *Theory Pract.* 44(3):245-253.

Full Length Research Paper

Challenges of research conduct among postgraduate research students in an African University

Adeyimika Titilayo Desmennu* and Eme Theodora Owoaje

Department of Health Promotion and Education, Faculty of Public Health, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria.

Received 3 September, 2017; Accepted 16 October, 2017

Postgraduate research students often experience various problems during the course of their programmes which hamper the timely completion of the MPhil/PhD and full doctoral (PhD) programmes. However, there is limited documented information on these barriers among Nigerian postgraduate students in Nigeria. This study was conducted to assess the barriers to research and training needs of these students at the University of Ibadan. A cross sectional survey of 137 MPhil/PhD and PhD students was carried out using a semi-structured self-administered questionnaire to obtain data from respondents in the various faculties of the university. Data were analysed and presented in tables and percentages using SPSS version 15. Majority of the students (67%) were full doctoral students and 54% were in the biomedical and public health faculties. Reported barriers to postgraduate research were: lack of funding (61%), irregular electricity supply (51%), and lack of access to research materials (56%). Others included lack of reward/recognition for outstanding research (29%), non-functional laboratories (19%), university bureaucracy (18%) and inadequate support for research collaborations (18%). In terms of accessing research funding, the identified barriers included lack of information (46%) and inadequate mentoring (35%). Only 20% had obtained international research grants for their research projects. Ninety-one percent of the respondents required training on proposal development (90%), seeking funding (86.0%), and evaluation of interventions (83.0%). Research students at the University of Ibadan face numerous obstacles, which hinder their ability to successfully conduct research. Appropriate courses and training workshops should be organised to address the identified barriers. Additionally, financial and infrastructural support should be provided for postgraduate research.

Key words: Postgraduate students, research, barriers, funding.

INTRODUCTION

As universities and governments seek to strengthen and grow their research base, higher education especially doctoral research is receiving particular attention. There is no doubt that postgraduate/doctoral research affects a

country's research output which in turn affects the community. Doctoral level research is the seed-bed for ideas and practices of a profession (Bates, 1999). While some high-income countries (HIC) have an over supply

*Corresponding author. E-mail: adeyimikades@hotmail.com.

and demand of PhD graduates, there have been reports showing that there is a deficiency in the number of doctoral holders in Africa and Nigeria is no exception (Cyranoski et al., 2011). Recent university rankings generally show that most African universities apart from a few South African universities are performing poorly (Times Higher Education (THE) 2012, 2017). In the University of Ibadan, according to the 2012 reports made by the Committee on Needs Assessment for Public Universities in Nigeria, only 43% (16127) instead of 75% of lecturers have a PhD degree (NUC). The University of Ibadan has a total of 1,536 academic staff of which 60% had a PhD degree (UI Annual Report, 2013). The deficit in the number of PhD holders among academic staff is hinged mostly on number of issues which have posed challenges to the timely completion of research programmes among postgraduate students (Tight, 2012). Research activity in African universities has been influenced by a number of socio-political environmental factors; predominant among these are governmental policies of reduced tertiary education funding (The Economist, 2010). There have been varying degrees of deterioration from country to country and institution to institution but many institutions commenced on the road to recovery in the last decade (Sawyer, 2004).

In Nigeria, the demand for tertiary education is so high because education is not only an investment in human capital, but also a pre-requisite for economic development (Aderinto et al., 2015; Adeyemo, 2000). Universities all over the world are regarded as engines of economic and sustainable national development. They transmit knowledge and train the human minds (Johnstone, 2005). The belief that education is an engine of growth rests on the quantity and quality of education in any country (Akinsanya, 2007). In Nigeria, the universities are veritable tools for the realization of national development; the development of cultured citizens and the promotion of basic research. University education is therefore the most powerful and critical success factor for individuals and the society (Aina, 2007). The Nigerian university system has grown astronomically in size and has undergone deep transformation since its inception over 60 years ago (Ogbogu, 2011). A major challenge to research output in Africa is the failure to consistently compete with international research. In developed nations like Europe and North America, there is a constant and continued quest for new avenues to ensure that higher education is competitive and remains dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world (Kehm, 2006). This could be due to a number of identified challenges (Salako, 2014) including inadequately organized doctoral programmes which also fails to compete with that found in institutions in developed countries. Some countries and institutions have realized this gap and tried to solve it by introducing collaborative research. For instance, the African

Economic Research Consortium (AERC), along with universities and other stakeholders within and outside Africa agreed that a collaborative PhD degree programme would be the optimum way to address the quality issues (AERC, 2014).

Another well-known challenge with doctoral research is the issue of funding (Adebisi, 2014; Bamiro, 2012; Kehm, 2006; Salmi, 2001). It is unfortunate that the ability of research students to act as engines of growth and development is being challenged by the long-standing problem of inadequate funding. Most public universities in Nigeria, Africa are poorly funded by the national governments and quite often this translates to inadequate funding for research and research capacity development. In contrast, the United States, Australia government and many countries in Europe and Asia expend hundreds of billions of dollars annually on funding research in academic institutions, as well research capacity building. Poor funding could in turn delay in the completion of research work (Adebisi, 2014). Developed countries have been able to tackle this challenge by providing financial support to doctoral education and researchers through fund raisers, government grants and various funds from industries. Research funding is also available through private foundations, charities and various trusts such as the Carnegie Foundations, John and Catherine T. Macarthur, Rockefeller Foundation and Wellcome Trust to name a few (Nigeria Higher Education Foundation (NHEF), 2014).

Furthermore, another well know challenge among doctoral students is the challenge of not knowing how to write good proposals to access grants (be it foreign or domiciliary).

Though successful research is often attributed to individual researchers or research teams; it is well known that such success is determined by more than individual brilliance, hard work and team competencies. Factors such as the nature and quality of the research environment, mentored supervision, generally the facilities and other means at the disposal of the researchers, and access to prior work by other researchers in related field are also contributory (Sawyer, 2004; Mutula 2009). The role of the supervisor in doctoral programmes in the British education system is also critical to the success of the doctoral process. Poor supervision can have a significant impact on students by not only limiting the quality of their work, but also reducing their motivation for work (Abiddin, 2007). Independent of the skills or the values of the individual researcher, the macro-environment of public policy and resource allocation are factors which hinder research development in a number of African countries (Akinsanya, 2007).

The purpose of this survey therefore was to determine the barriers to postgraduate research training needs of the University of Ibadan among postgraduate research

students, assess their research training needs, and make recommendation for proffering solution to the identified research needs.

METHODOLOGY

Study area

The study was conducted in the University of Ibadan which at the time of the study had 13 faculties, namely: Art, Agriculture and Forestry, Basic Medical Sciences, Clinical Sciences, Dentistry, Education, Law, Pharmacy, Public Health, Sciences, Social Sciences, Technology and Engineering, and Veterinary Medicine. There were also number of institute and centres which offer postgraduate programmes including the Institute of Child Health, Institute of Education, Institute of African Studies, Centre for Peace and Conflict Studies, Centre for Population and Reproductive Health, Centre for Adolescent Mental Health, etc. The institution also has a Distance Learning Centre (DLC), which has over 17000 students in various undergraduate academic programmes. This centre is located on a satellite campus of the University of Ibadan.

Study population

The study population included available and consenting male and female research students (MPhil/PhD. and PhD) in the various faculties who were registered for MPhil/PhD and PhD programmes in the University of Ibadan at the time of the study. There were 252 MPhil/PhD and PhD students registered for the 2011/2012 session during the study. In all, 137 were available to participate in the study and this gave a response rate of about 54%.

Research design

A cross sectional research design was used in the survey and purposive sampling was used to select all available research students. A semi-structured, self-administered questionnaire, which was predicated on information obtained informally from doctoral students during interactive sessions at workshops, was used to obtain data from consenting respondents in the various faculties of the university. The 38-variable questionnaire contained questions on respondents' demography, research interest, barriers to conduct successful research, fund seeking experience, and research needs. The respondents were also requested to rate their competence in these different aspects of research formed the basis for respondents' competency ranking. This was assessed on a scale of 1 to 7; where 1=<10%, 2= 10-20%, 3= 20-30%, 4=30-40%, 5= 40-50%, 6= 50-60%, 7=70-100%. Data collected from the survey was analysed using SPSS version 15.

RESULTS

A total of 137 questionnaires, which was administered among the research students, were coded and analysed. The ages of the respondents ranged from 20 to 70 years and most of them were aged 30 to 39 (44.5%), male students (56.2%) were slightly higher than female students (43.8%) and most were registered on the doctoral programme (Table 1).

Research interest and competencies

The respondents were requested to itemise the types of research conducted in their programmes. These included review of literature, secondary data analysis, quantitative and qualitative surveys, animal experiments, technical (engineering) experiments, clinical experiments/trials and behavioural surveys, focus group discussions, interventions, and mathematical models. All students reported that their MPhil/PhD or PhD programmes involved a research component. Table 2 shows the respondents' perception of the competence in various aspects in the conducted research. In terms of requisite competencies in various aspects of research methodology, conduction of research and documentation of results are common among respondents. Overall, the majority of the respondents rated their competencies quite low for all the aspects. The highest rating selected was five, which was within a range of 40 to 50% competency. Most of the respondents assessed their competencies and selected the option for proposal writing quite highly, especially in the areas of setting objectives (70.8%) and proposal writing (65.7%). However, only slightly over half of the respondents rated their competencies as five in questionnaire design (55.5%), data management and interpretation (54.0%). While only 42.9% rated their competency in publishing of research findings as high as 50%, whereas the rest rated it much lower.

Barriers to successful research conduct

Table 3 shows the respondents' ranking of barriers to successful conduct of postgraduate research. In all, 185 (85.4%) acknowledged the presence of barriers to conduct successful research. The identified barriers were ranked on a scale of 1 to 5 where 1=not a barrier; 5=extreme barrier. The major barriers identified by the respondents were lack of research funding (60.5%), irregular electricity (50.5%) and lack of access to research materials (34.2%).

Sources of research funding

Virtually all of the respondents (92.7%) indicated that their research was being funded with their personal funds. Slightly over a third of them (36.7%) reported that their research was being funded partially or totally by grants from local or international funding agencies and private corporations. These included inadequate mentoring from senior colleagues (69.3%), lack of funding opportunity information (45.6%), and absence of local research funding opportunities (34.6%). Other barriers identified by the respondents included poor

Table 1. Respondents' characteristics (N = 137).

Variable	n	%
Gender		
Male	77	56.2
Female	60	43.8
Age		
20-29	30	21.9
30-39	61	44.5
40-49	34	24.8
50-59	9	6.6
>60	3	2.2
Faculties		
Social Science	35	25.5
Clinical Sciences	34	24.8
Public Health	25	18.2
Technology	8	5.8
Pharmacy	8	5.8
Science	7	5.1
Basic Medical Sciences	7	5.1
Arts	6	4.4
Veterinary Medicine	5	3.6
Centres	2	1.5
Type of Study		
Full-time	107	78.8
Part time	29	21.2
Type of post graduate Program		
MPhil	46	55.6
Ph. D	91	66.4

internet access which hampered their ability to search for funding opportunity information and perceived grant application committee (Table 4).

Research training needs

In terms of research training needs, majority of the respondents indicated that they were interested in receiving training on developing research proposals and seeking funding opportunities and evaluation of interventions (Table 5).

DISCUSSION

Majority of the respondents were males (77%) within the age range of 20 to 70 years. Half (50.3%) of these were

from the faculties of social sciences and clinical sciences, while the rest were variedly distributed among the other faculties and were mostly in fulltime (78.1%) mode of study and were in PhD programmes (91%). This is comparable with the distribution of research students in a reported study among students at the Manchester University as reported by Abiddin (2007).

Unsurprisingly, almost all the postgraduate students had quite high interest for research development and implementation; most (98.5%) were interested in conducting research which constitutes a major part of the generic and existing doctoral programme. This is quite in line with the report of Yee (2010) in which training for PhD students was based on generic university wide programme in which basically methodologies in science and humanities were dominant. Additionally, Yee (2010) and Sauermann and Roach (2012) also confirmed that many of the doctoral programme focused on exploring

Table 2. Respondents' competences in different aspects of the research.

Aspects of research	Rating of competencies				
	1 [n (%)]	2 [n (%)]	3 [n (%)]	4 [n (%)]	5 [n (%)]
Proposal Writing	6 (4.4)	1 (0.7)	7 (5.1)	9 (6.6)	90 (65.7)
Choosing Topic	3 (2.2)	4 (2.9)	3 (2.2)	9 (6.6)	89 (65)
Setting objectives	5 (3.6)	1 (0.1)	2 (1.1)	7 (5.1)	97 (70.8)
Literature review	4 (2.9)	1 (0.7)	2 (1.5)	11 (8.0)	82 (60.0)
Methodology	4 (2.9)	2 (1.5)	7 (2.9)	16 (11.7)	87 (63.5)
Sampling	5(3.6)	6(4.4)	6(4.4)	14(10.2)	84(61.3)
Questionnaire design	7(5.1)	5(3.6)	10(7.3)	15(10.2)	76(55.5)
Data collection	3(2.2)	1(0.7)	5(3.6)	5(3.6)	91(66.4)
Data management	5(3.6)	3(2.2)	8(5.8)	7(5.1)	74(54.0)
Interpretation of results	5(3.6)	3(1.7)	3(2.2)	12(8.8)	74(54.0)
Writing of discussion	4(2.3)	2(1.5)	9(5.1)	15(8.6)	98(56.6)
Referencing	5(2.9)	3(1.7)	4(2.3)	10(5.7)	91(52.0)
Abstract writing	6(3.4)	7(4.0)	14(8.0)	16(9.1)	95(51.3)
Report writing	9(5.1)	6(3.4)	10(5.7)	14(8.0)	102(58.3)
Publishing of research Findings	14(8.0)	15(8.6)	17(9.3)	29(16.6)	75(42.9)

Table 3. Respondents identified barriers to conduct of successful research.

Extreme barriers	n	%
Lack of funding	69	60.5
Irregular electricity	55	50.5
Lack of access to research materials	38	34.2
Lack of incentives	33	29.2
Lack of reagents	25	22.9
University bureaucracy	21	19.6
Lack of access to laboratories	21	19.6
Lack of access to reagents	21	19.6
Lack of laboratories	20	18.5
Lack of interdisciplinary collaborations	20	18.5
Lack of perceived value	13	11.8
Insufficient time due to other work	11	10.0
Conflicting supervisor/student interest	9	8.3
Insufficient time due to family responsibilities	8	7.1

Table 4. Respondents' sources of research funding.

Funding sources	n	%
Personal	127	92.7
Local aid/grant	16	11.7
Foreign grant	21	15.4
Private/Corporate organization	13	9.6

*Multiple responses included.

methodologies, structures, processes and solving concrete questions. In consonance with other studies in

Table 5. Respondents identified research needs.

Identified research needs	Very interested [n (%)]	Some-what interested [n (%)]	Not interested [n (%)]
Developing a research Project/ proposal	123 (90.4)	7 (5.1)	6 (4.4)
Seeking institutional support	118 (86.8)	13 (9.6)	5 (3.7)
Writing a proposal	113 (83.1)	19 (14)	4 (2.9)
Evaluation and Assessment	112 (83)	15 (11)	8 (6)

*Multiple responses included .

doctoral education as reported by Maggs-Rapport (2000) which emphasised the ethnography and interpretive phenomenon in qualitative research, some aspects of research conducted by respondents included qualitative and quantitative surveys, clinical experiments/trials, animal experiments, secondary data analysis, interventions, mathematical models, and behavioural surveys. About two thirds of the respondents rated their competencies at about average which complements the expressed need of further training in research methodology. Manathunga and Lant (2006) corroborated this finding as they identified the need for a systematic and strategic appraisal of the higher education system in order to frontally address the developmental and training needs of research higher degree and doctoral students

The major barriers to successful conduct postgraduate research included lack of funding, irregular electricity, lack of access to research materials including laboratory materials and reagents. However, lack of funding for research was the mostly mentioned barrier. This is in line with a previous studies and reports by Sawyerr (2004) and Mutula (2009) in which most of the challenges to higher studies in the universities were inadequate funding and resources including research materials and access to ICT.

Funding has always constituted a major challenge/barrier to successful completion of research based studies; this is supported by the report of by Salako (2014), Ogbogu (2011) and Bamiro and Adedeji (2010), in which inadequate funding was identified as a major limitation to the ability of the universities to effectively and efficiently perform their duties, particularly the traditional roles of teaching and research. Almost all the researchers indicated that they spent their personal funds on research. Lack of information of funding opportunities to respondents (45.6%), lack of funding opportunities (37.6%) and lack of mentoring (34.6%) were mostly mentioned by respondents as barriers to seeking funds for research. Additionally, supervision was identified as a major contributor to successful PhD programmes in University of Manchester (Abiddin, 2007); this supports the challenge related to adequacy of mentoring and mentored supervision.

The research training needs of doctoral research based

postgraduate studies and other categories of professionals in higher institutions are quite varied. As identified in the training needs analysis conducted by Barratt and Fulop (2016) and at UCL, these could range from need for training related to identifying viable research topics, subject knowledge/proposal development, introducing new ideas, handling routine data, critically evaluating published research, interpreting research findings, accessing relevant research literature to inform your work, designing research studies, research methods (discipline and subject specific), language skills, research skills, research environment (especially related to seeking funding, making do with limited resources), writing up the findings of research studies or audits, statistically analyzing your own research data, and research information dissemination, including personal and transferable skills. In line with this, the research needs of the respondents included in this study ranged from identifying viable research topics and proposal development, research methods, seeking funding and institutional support, grant writing and research evaluation. The mostly mentioned training needs included developing research proposal seeking institutional support, grant proposal writing, and research evaluation.

Limitations

The main limitation of this study is related to its generalizability. Most of the research students in the study area were on part-time study, since they had to keep a regular job to support their self-funded research. Thus, the data collected were taken from only those students who were on ground at their departments during the 3-months period of the data collection.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The study documents the challenges of research students in tertiary institutions in Nigeria which are quite varied and multifaceted. These included inadequate research infrastructures (facilities, equipment and electricity) and funding. The research students also

expressed need for further training in the research methodology at their different levels to enhance their knowledge and build their capacity for advanced research.

It is therefore recommended that the research institutions in Nigeria establish well-structured channels of meeting and solving research needs of students. This could be in form of provision of basic research infrastructures. It is also very important that workshops and capacity building and mentoring programmes be mainstreamed into the curriculum of these students. Funding and research grants should be made available to research student via competitive proposal writing and institutional research granting schemes. The results of this research could also serve as a baseline in design and prioritisation of research need intervention plans by research institutions.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors of this paper wish to express deep appreciation to the respondents for consenting to participate in this research and the research assistants whose patience, thoroughness, and tenacity contributed to the success of the data collection.

REFERENCES

- Abiddin NZ (2007). The role of an effective supervisor: Case studies at the University of Manchester, United Kingdom. *Eur. J. Sci. Res.* 16(3):380-394.
- Adebisi TA (2014). Higher education and skills development: An overview of Nigerian National Policy on Education (NPE). *Int. J. Dev. Sust.* 3(12):2218-2227.
- Aderinto AA, Adediran O, Alarape AI (Eds) (2015). *Higher Education and National Development*. University of Ibadan, Postgraduate school interdisciplinary Discourse Series. Ibadan University Press. 1-173.
- Adeyemo B (2000). Public School Funding; The case of community mobilization and effective management. *J. Edu. Dev. J.* 1(2):27-28.
- African Economic Research consortium (AERC) (2014). *Enhancing Capacity for African Agricultural Research: selected Models and Lessons*.
- Aina OI (2007). Alternative modes of financing Higher education in Nigeria and implications for university governance. In Babalola, J.B. and Emunemu B.O. (Eds.) *Issues in higher education: Research evidence from sub-Saharan African*. Bolabay Publications.
- Akinsanya OO (2007). Financing higher education in Nigeria. *Int. J. Afr. Am. Stud.* 6:1.
- Bamiro OA (2012). Tertiary Education in Nigeria and the Challenge of Corporate Governance. Speech at the TETFund Year 2012 Strategic Planning Workshop, held at the Idris Abdulkadir Auditorium, National Universities Commission, Maitama Abuja, 7th to 8th August, 2012.
- Bamiro OA, Adedeji OS (2010). *Sustainable financing of higher education in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Ibadan University Press.
- Barratt H, Fulop NJ (2016). Building capacity to use and undertake research in health organisations: A survey of training needs and priorities among staff. *BMJ Open.* 6:12 doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2016-012557
- Bates MJ (1999). *The role of the PhD in a Professional Field*. Department of Information Studies. University of California, Los Angeles.
- Cyranoski D, Gilbert N, Ledford H, Nayar A, Yahia M (2011). Education: the PhD factory. *Nature* 472:276-279; doi:10.1038/472276a
- Johnstone OB (2005). The costs of higher education: World- wide issues and trends for the 1990s. Paper presented at the Pennsylvania state university sesquicentennial celebration.
- Kehm B (2006). Doctoral education in Europe and North America: A comparative analysis. In *The formative years of scholars*, Edited by: Teichler, U. London: Portland Press.
- Maggs-Rapport F (2000). Combining methodological approaches in research: ethnography and interpretive phenomenology. *J. Advanced Nursing.* 31(1):219-225. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10632812>
- Manathunga C, Lant P (2006). How Do We Ensure Good PhD Student Outcomes? *Edu. Chem. Engineers.* 1(1):72-81. <https://doi.org/10.1205/ece.05003>
- Mutula S (2009). Challenges of doing research in sub-Saharan African universities: digital scholarship opportunities; *Inkanyiso, Jnl Hum. Soc. Sci.* 1(1).
- Nigeria Higher Education Foundation (NHEF) (2014). Importance of higher education to National economic development. September 2014
- Ogbogu CO (2011). Modes of Funding Nigerian Universities and the Implications on Performance Obafemi Awolowo University, Nigeria. A paper presented at the 2011 Barcelona European Academic Conference Barcelona, Spain.
- Salako CT (2014). Challenges facing university education in Nigeria: The way forward. *J. Edu. Foundation.* P 4.
- Salmi J (2001). Tertiary Education in the 21st Century: Challenges and Opportunities. *Higher Education Management. J. Programme on Institutional Manage. higher Educ.* 13(2):120-129
- Sauermann H, Roach M (2012). Science PhD Career Preferences: Levels, Changes, and Advisor Encouragement. *PLoS ONE.* 7(5):36307. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0036307
- Sawyer A (2004) African Universities and the Challenge of Research Capacity Development. *JHEA/RESA.* 2(1):211-240.
- The Economist (2010). Why doing a PhD is often a waste of time. Doctoral degrees: the disposable academic. Available online from <http://www.economist.com/node/17723223>.
- Tight M (2012). Academic Staff in UK Higher Education Institutions: Are They Fit for Purpose? In Grove, J. *Proportions of Academics with PhDs.*
- Times Higher Education (2012). <http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/news/proportion-of-academics-with-phds-2012/421657.article>.
- Times Higher Education (2017). <http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/news>.
- UI Annual Report (2013). Office of the Vice Chancellor, University of Ibadan.
- Yee JSR (2010). Methodological innovation in practice-based design doctorates. *J. Res. Pract.* 6(2):15. Retrieved [date of access], from <http://jrp.icaap.org/index.php/jrp/article/view/196/193>

Full Length Research Paper

A look at mother tongue education in the context of the right to education

Idris Şahin

Buca Faculty of Education, Dokuz Eylul University, Division of Educational Administration, Izmir, Turkey.

Received 30 January, 2018; Accepted 14 April 2018

In Turkey, education in state schools can be delivered in foreign languages such as German, French and English. However, mother tongue education cannot be provided in the languages of minorities or local groups other than those officially accepted as minorities (that is, according to the Treaty of Lausanne). In this regard, the primary aim of this study was to reveal the views of postgraduate students (Masters (MA)/PhD) studying at a graduate school of educational sciences on mother tongue education and the applicability of mother tongue education in Turkey. The study was conducted with a total of 46 students, 28 MA and 18 PhD students. The data were gathered through semi-structured open-ended questions in November 2017. According to the findings, most of the participants viewed mother tongue education as one of the basic human rights. Moreover, while some of the participants thought that the country was not yet ready to provide education to non-official minorities or local communities in their mother tongues, some objected to mother tongue education with the concern that it would cause division within the country.

Key words: Education, minorities, mother tongue, right to education, human rights.

INTRODUCTION

The Republic of Turkey (TR) is a unitary state run in accordance with the principal of central government. The curricula are set as common in all schools across the country and implemented by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE). However, Turkey is a country in which many ethnic groups including the Kurdish, Laz, Circassian, Arab, Greek, Armenian, and Jewish live alongside the Turkish majority, and thus, a variety of languages are spoken. On the other hand, according to the constitution of the TR (1982, Art 42), "no language other than Turkish can be taught to Turkish citizens as

their mother tongue in educational institutions." In this respect, mother tongue education, which represents an important problem in the country, is discussed at various levels in terms of the administrative structure, strengthening of democracy, human rights, decentralisation policies, citizen demands, and local languages being taught as elective courses in schools.

With the many minorities group and local communities that live together in Turkey, the primary criteria for the concept of minority are ethnicity, language, and religion. Yet, in the 1923 Treaty of Lausanne, the TR established

E-mail: sahinidris@gmail.com.

Authors agree that this article remain permanently open access under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 International License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/)

that only non-Muslim citizens were minorities, and thus, only they could benefit from international minority protection law (Oran, 2015). Based on this treaty, the official state policy has failed to recognize minority groups other than the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews (Gökçen and Öney, 2008). In this way, the TR, since its foundation, has used its education system as one of the main tools for actualising its nation-state ideology. In the constitution and legislation related to education, the purpose of education has always included ideological references, and loyalty to Turkish nationalism has been put ahead of children's best interests, including their pedagogical development (Kaya, 2015).

Sufficient data regarding ethnic groups could not be collected because citizens were not asked about their "mother tongue" and "the second language they speak" in the censuses in Turkey after 1965. For this reason, the size of the ethnic groups living in the country and their proportions within the total population are not known exactly (Mazlumder, 2011). In addition, tensions between the state and the minorities or local groups that are not assimilated into the "Turkish identity" have forced most of these groups to hide or even deny their own cultural origins completely. Despite this, the tense interactions that sometimes emerge between the minorities or local groups that could not be assimilated to the "Turkish identity" and the state have pushed most of these groups to hide, or even deny completely their own cultural origins. Yet, almost none of the ethnic groups in Turkey see themselves as "minorities" (Gökçen and Öney, 2008). Turkish society and the state have always identified themselves as highly tolerant to differences, helping those in need, and being distant to racism. However, ethnic and religious tensions have at times become commonplace often appeared in the country, and many individuals have been exposed to discrimination. The primary role of making minorities adopt the Turkish identity is attributed to the national education system.

The facts that the Kurds are the largest local community in the country after the Turks and that the region most dominated by this group is economically deprived reduce the impact effect of the education system for this group. Despite the state's pressure to make the Turkish language the official spoken language, traditional practices such as refusing to educate girls by not sending them to school have contributed to the preservation of Kurdish as their mother tongue (Gökçen and Öney, 2008). The current President of Turkey, Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, has stated that "denial, rejection and assimilation policy" had been following a certain political line against local communities until his party, the Justice and Development Party, came to power in 2002 (Aljazeera, 16 November 2013 and Vatan Daily, 17 November, 2013).

On the other hand, it is difficult to say the same for smaller local communities or minorities in the country. For

instance, the number of the Romani people who speak their native language and use it in daily life is decreasing gradually, while the number of those who describe their ethnic identity as Turks is increasing. Although the rate of those who have abandoned their mother tongue is increasing gradually among the Romani people, they have not been active in demanding education in their native language. In the Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger published by UNESCO, the Romani languages are categorized as languages that are clearly in danger of disappearing in Turkey (Alp and Taştan, 2011). Thus, education is of vital importance for the protection of language and culture, and for the transfer of these languages to the next generations. Many international conventions guarantee the right to education for everyone and offer special mechanisms for the protection of minority rights. Learning one's mother tongue, having access to education, schooling in one's mother tongue, and non-discrimination in educational settings are some of the issues that are accepted as important for minorities (Kaya, 2009).

The right to education

Individuals have some indispensable, inalienable, equal and universal rights from birth. One of these rights is the right to education. Education has officially been a human right since the acceptance of Universal Declaration of Human Rights by the United Nations (UN, 2015) in 1948. It was also emphasised in many human rights conventions across the world such as Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960), International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (UN, 1966) and Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1981). The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (UNESCO, 1989) strengthened the concept of the right to education even more. In these documents, it is decreed that all children should be provided with primary education and supported in gaining equal access to high school education. Further, these documents state that fair access to higher education should be ensured, and measures should be taken for individuals who could not complete their primary education. According to these conventions, the purpose of education is to enable personal development, strengthen human rights and freedoms, equip individuals with the ability to effectively participate in a free society, and develop the understanding of tolerance, friendship and consciousness (UNESCO, 2007).

Education, which is a human right and an indispensable tool for actualising other human rights, is necessary for developing individuals' potential, defending human rights, and showing respect to others' rights. It is the primary instrument allowing individuals to overcome poverty and obtain the means to fully participate in societies. The right to education includes learning rights

and responsibilities, civil and political rights, and social and cultural rights (Human Rights in New Zealand, 2010). None of the civilised, economic and social rights can be implemented unless individuals receive a minimum level of education. Education becomes a necessity for the fulfilment of these rights (UNESCO, 2006). The right to education covers not only the access to educational services, but also the obligation to eliminate discrimination in every stage of the education system, set the minimum standards, and enhance quality (UNESCO, 2007). The basic characteristics of the right to education was determined in the General Comment on the Right to Education by the UN International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) in 1999 (Art 13). Four basic principles of the right to education, which are availability, accessibility, acceptability and adaptability, were specified in this General Comment (UNESCO, 2006).

One of the important resources associated with the right to education is the CRC, to which Turkey became a party in 1995, when it came into force throughout the country (Kaplan, 2015). Turkey approved the CRC with reservations to three articles (Art. 17, 29, 30). It reserves its right to interpret the articles that it did not approve based on the constitution and the provisions of the Treaty of Lausanne, and in accordance with their essential intention (Ayata et al., 2010). In these articles, it is mandated that in the states where there are minorities or local populations based on a race, religion and language, children of minorities or local populations cannot be deprived of benefiting from their own cultures and using their own languages with other members of the community they belong to (UNESCO, 1989). In the CRC, the importance of acting for the child's best interest is emphasised, and it is stated that the child should be put at the centre of education. Accordingly, the primary purpose of education is to develop the child's personality, skills and abilities as an individual by taking into account that every child has his/her own unique character, interest, ability and learning needs (Kaplan, 2015).

In Turkey, the Constitution (1982, Art. 42) and the Basic Law of National Education (1973, Art. 7) guarantee the right to education for all citizens. Primary and high school education is compulsory and free in state schools. The state provides scholarships and other aid tools for poor students to continue their education, and takes necessary measures for those who need special education. However, as Alp and Taştan (2011) stated, linking the right to education to citizenship in the Constitution (Art. 42) and the Basic Law of National Education (Art. 7, 23) both contradict the intention of the human rights treaties and may prevent non-citizens from effectively using their right to education.

Discrimination in education

Discrimination refers to when a state or a society

systematically deprives some of its members of certain rights or privileges that are provided to others (Ataöv, 1996). It appears to be a social problem that causes unpleasant results in social life (Demir, 2011). As a social phenomenon, it forms a holistic structure whose individual, social and legal aspects complete each other. It is related to law, justice, equality and especially daily life (Göregenli, 2012). Although it is based on negative feelings, views and judgements about individuals or groups, it refers to a direct "treatment" or "action," which is harmful for individuals. The concept of discrimination needs to be both addressed in the context of social power relations, and associated with the institutional authority of the discriminator. Discrimination gains political meaning by going beyond behaviours such as not behaving fairly, or favouritism due to individual closeness or hostility. It thus includes the treatment based on discriminating between ethnic origins, races, genders, languages, religions, social classes, ages or physical characteristics. Although such treatment is experienced individually, it emerges depending on the rejection or negative perception of a certain collective identity. Those who apply discrimination derive strength from social power relations (Ünal, 2016). In this regard, language discrimination occurs when individuals are treated differently because of their mother tongue or other characteristics of their speech. Institutional discrimination is evident when rules, practices, or understandings of fair treatment systematically provide an advantage or a disadvantage to members of certain groups (Garrett, 2008). Discrimination in education was prohibited in the "Convention against Discrimination in Education" (CaDE) by UNESCO on December 14, 1960. However, Turkey has not yet approved this convention (Ayata et al., 2010).

The most comprehensive regulation on the right to education in international law is the UN "International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights" (UN, 1966) of which Turkey is also a party. The states who are parties of this convention commit to guaranteeing the use of the rights stated in the convention without any discrimination based on race, colour, gender, language, religion, political or other views, national or societal origin, property and birth (Kaplan, 2015). This obligation requires the states to provide educational services without discriminating against certain groups based on national or ethnic identity, birth or any other statuses (Kim, 2013). Therefore, education should be accessible to all, with no discrimination on the basis of any prohibited grounds. In respect to the principle of equality, all individuals are equal in terms of rights and have the right to claim their rights without being exposed to any discrimination. Protective measures should be taken to protect the rights and well-beings of marginal groups (UNESCO, 2007). To this end, education should be designed and made accessible by considering the different characteristics and needs of individual children.

However, once access to school is ensured, inequalities may still exist regarding their access to education. In other words, many children may still not have access to education when policies observing differences such as gender, socio-economic class, disability, language-related and cultural differences, and place of residence are not implemented. When differences are not considered, education may even work to reinforce and reproduce social inequalities for children within the education system (Taşkın Alp, 2016). Discrimination is observed due to reasons such as gender, ethnic origin, language spoken and religion in Turkey (Özen Kutanis and Ulu, 2016). As Demir (2011) also noted, there exists an element of discrimination on application forms, in recruitment, and during the occupational evaluation processes in Turkey.

Language problem in education and mother tongue education

Ethnic groups have a common heritage consisting of the memories of a shared historical background as well as cultural, social and language components (Paulston, 1976). Native language is a key characteristic for membership to a group (Cavallaro, 2005). In this regard, language problems in education become prominent for citizens whose mother tongue is different from the official language, as well as for foreigners. The opportunity to learn one's mother tongue and receive mother tongue education is rights that are guaranteed by international conventions. In addition to ensure that children have equal opportunities in education, mother tongue education also includes factors that can enable the transfer of native languages to next generations, strengthen the feeling of equality in society, and lead to the perception of differences as being positive (Kaya, 2015). No other public institution has the capacity to constantly and meaningfully provide these factors to as many young individuals as schools do (Cook and Westheimer, 2006). Knowing the value of cultural similarities and differences as well as being critically aware of issues of racism are essential elements of developing democratic tendencies in students (Spanierman et al., 2008).

Language-based discrimination is prohibited by various international conventions. Yet, language-related regulations are not limited to the prohibition of discrimination. According to Art. 13 of the ICESCR which regulates the right to education, "No provision of this article can be interpreted in a way to restrict individuals' and organisations' freedoms to found and run educational institutions" (UNESCO, 2006). This provision also includes the freedom of establishing educational institutions that would teach native languages, and in which education would be conveyed in non-official languages (Gül, 2009). According to the UN International

Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), in the states with ethnic, religious or language minorities, individuals belonging to these minorities cannot be deprived of the rights to benefit from their own culture and use their own languages with other members of their groups (UNESCO, 1966, Art. 27). Similarly, according to Art. 30 of the CRC, in the states with language-based minorities or indigenous populations, governments cannot hinder children belonging to minorities or indigenous populations from benefiting from their own cultures and using their own languages with other members of the minority group they belong to (UNESCO, 1989). As is seen, the ICCPR and CRC aim at the use of minorities' or local communities' languages as well as the protection of these languages. It should be noted that a language that is not permitted to be included in the education system would hardly survive (Gül, 2009).

The language-related issues that international conventions touch upon mainly describes "individuals who do not speak their language of instruction" as "not having the opportunity to learn the mother tongue in addition to the official language of instruction" as well as dealing with the "demands for mother tongue education" (Gül, 2009). Studying minority groups' or local communities' receiving (or not being able to receive) mother tongue education has always been seen as a taboo research area in Turkey. For this reason, the scholarly work on mother tongue education has been quite limited. Attempts to provide insights on the issue were mostly made by human rights organisations and non-governmental organisations.

The Kurdish language comes to the forefront with regard to mother tongue education in Turkey. The demand for education in "Kurdish" that intensified in the 2000s turned into a political campaign. Particularly in universities, students submitted petitions and asked for Kurdish education as elective classes. In that period, the actions of those who demanded Kurdish education were not welcomed by the state. While university administrations started disciplinary proceedings for these students, security forces arrested some of them and sent them to courts. For example, 52 of the 69 students who were taken into police custody because of demanding Kurdish education by submitting a petition to Inonu University were released, while 17 of them were sent to the State Security Court for arrest (Avrupa Birliği Bakanlığı, 2002a). A similar situation was also observed with parents. Four of the 15 female parents who were taken into police custody in Batman while trying to submit a petition for "Kurdish education" were arrested (Avrupa Birliği Bakanlığı, 2002b), whereas 29 individuals to 27 of whom were women were taken into custody in Gaziosmanpaşa, Istanbul (Avrupa Birliği Bakanlığı, 2002c). Demanding mother tongue education in this way is usually regarded as damaging to the indivisible unity of the country and nation, providing support to terrorist organisations and participating in terror propaganda

(Human Rights Watch, 2010).

Language is a part of human identity. Inhibiting mother tongue education is perceived as damaging to this identity, and thus, the demand for mother tongue education continues to exist. Therefore, some political parties and organisations have recently called upon boycotting schools in the first week of the school year (Radikal Daily, 2010). On the other hand, legislation was made in 2014 making it possible to open private schools, as subject to the provisions of the "Law on Private Educational Institutions," to provide education in different languages and dialects that Turkish citizens traditionally use in their daily lives (Official Gazette, 19 October 1983, issue: 18196, Additional clauses: 2/3/-6529/Art 11). In the following period, there has been attempts to open schools that provide Kurdish education. Schools were then opened for 60 students in Diyarbakir and 100 students in Cizre (Cumhuriyet Daily, 2014). Yet, these schools did not stay open for long and were shut down by the Governorships within a month (Sözcü Daily, 2016).

Despite this, it was decided that teaching the languages of minorities or local communities under an "elective course" titled "living languages and dialects" in state schools would begin starting from the 2012/2013 academic year. Modifications were made in the middle school curricula in a way to provide elective language courses as two lessons per week. However, in order for these courses to be opened, a minimum of 10 students and an available teacher were prerequisites that had to be met first. In this respect, 53,000 students selected "Kurdish", "Kurmanci", "Zazaki", "Lazuri", "Adyghe language", "Abkhasian" and "Georgian" courses in the 2013/2014 school year, while the rate of the students selecting this classes increased by 45% and reached to 85,000 in the 2014/2015 school year (Hürriyet Daily, 25.01.2015). The open elective courses that were announced by the MoNE in the 2017/2018 school year included "Adyghe language", "Abkhasian", "Kurmanci", "Zazaki", "Lazuri", "Georgian", "Bosnian" and "Albanian" (MoNE, 28 February 2017, document no. 2571505). In spite of this, teachers for these courses are not employed by the schools. For this reason, the elective courses made available are usually determined by school administrators, which prevent students from selecting the course they want.

As explained earlier, mother tongue education cannot be provided in the languages of minorities or local groups that fall outside the ones that are accepted as minorities in the Treaty of Lausanne. In this regard, the primary aim of this study was to reveal the views of postgraduate students (MA/PhD) studying at a graduate school of educational sciences on mother tongue education and the applicability of mother tongue education in Turkey in the context of the right to education. For this purpose, the participants were asked questions on (1) mother tongue education and (2) applicability of mother tongue education in Turkey.

METHODOLOGY

This study is a scientific work that seeks to reveal what postgraduate students think of mother tongue education and its applicability in Turkey. It is a qualitative study conducted by using phenomenological design. In accordance with the nature of qualitative research, phenomenological studies do not reveal accurate and generalizable results. On the contrary, these studies can present examples, explanations and experiences providing results that will help us to identify and understand the phenomenon better (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005). Phenomenologic research also intends to identify experiences of individuals regarding a concept or a phenomenon (Creswell, 2007). Therefore, the researcher preferred to use this methodology.

Participants

The purposive sampling method, which enables in-depth examination of cases that are thought to have rich knowledge of the research phenomenon (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005), was preferred in the selection of participants. In the selection of the participants, studying in the field of educational sciences at a post graduate level (MA, PhD) was the criteria determined by the researcher. So, participants were chosen from postgraduate students at the Graduate School of Educational Sciences in a Turkish university. Forty-six students participated in the study as volunteers. There were 28 MA students and 18 PhD students. 24 of them were female and 22 were male. This study is not interested in the criteria of ethnic origin. In the semi-structured question form, there were not any questions about the ethnic origins of the participants.

Data collection

The data were gathered through semi-structured open-ended questions in November, 2017. A question form including two questions was developed to gather the data. This form was distributed to the participants in person, and the significance of the study was explained so that they would answer the questions sincerely. A question form was developed by referring the literature and the opinions of two faculty members who are experts in qualitative research.

Data analysis

The data analysis was conducted descriptively based on the participants' statements and linguistic usage, characteristics of the expressions, symbolic expressions, and analogies (Kümbetoğlu, 2005). The data gathered were made digital, and the answers to the questions were arranged in a way to form a whole. The data were then read and examined repeatedly, similar and different perspectives were determined, and the statements that were unrelated to the research topic were excluded. The statements that would be directly quoted were selected in the data, and the quotations were presented adhering to their original structures.

Reliability in qualitative research largely depends on the researcher's care during the processes of data gathering and analysis. The researcher showed as much care in gathering the data as was done while categorising the statements based on similarities and differences. Prior to the analysis, every participant was assigned a number (1.2.3...), and letters for gender as male (M) and female (F), and for educational levels (MA and PhD). For example, the quotation from a statement of the male PhD student number 34 was presented as (34M, PhD), and that of the female MA student number 17 as (17F, MA), both in parentheses.

FINDINGS

The findings were presented under three themes and the categories within these themes.

Theme 1: Everybody should be given the opportunity to receive education in his/her mother tongue (n=17)

Mother tongue education as a basic human right

According to the participants who believed that mother tongue education was a basic human right, education is a concept that has a universal value, and is a human right. Mother tongue education would not pose any problems for the state. Citizens belonging to minorities or local communities should be provided with education in their mother tongue in state schools if they request it. Mother tongue education is of great importance for the preservation of languages that are spoken by relatively small communities in a country. In Turkey, individuals belonging to minorities or local communities are not allowed to receive education in their own mother tongue. Not being able to comprehend their mother tongue adequately and to use it effectively causes negative feelings in individuals. One of the participants expressed this situation as follows: *"I see mother tongue education as a natural right, and necessary for the preservation of a language. As a person who can't read and understand his mother tongue competently, I feel the distress and embarrassment of this"* (6M, MA).

Necessity of mother tongue education

According to the participants who believe in the necessity of mother tongue education, language has a prominent function in transferring the culture and values of a society from one generation to another. Mother tongue education is of significance in terms of one's expressing his/her feelings and views, making sense of his/her life, and making information compatible to his/her life. For some of the participants (particularly those who taught in the southeastern regions of Anatolia, where citizens are mainly of Kurdish origin), individuals who did not start education in their mother tongue cannot achieve the desired school outcomes. Through education, they try to learn, or are forced to adopt, a language that is not native to them, which makes it difficult to reach the teaching objectives. Students who do not receive mother tongue education have difficulty in making sense of "information" and expressing themselves, and feel isolated from the school environment. It is viewed as *"necessary and important for students to be taught in their mother tongue especially in the first stages of education in order to prevent all this and the formation of lost generations"* (17F, MA).

Necessity of a mother tongue education policy

According to the participants who viewed education as a human right, not being able to receive mother tongue education can cause social problems at various levels for minorities or local communities. *"These problems can be observed in the form of assimilation-based conflicts, exclusion and racism."* (6M, MA). To avoid such problems, mother tongue education practices should turn into an education policy that is consistent and sustainable. This issue should not be addressed depending on the changing political climates. *"Every individual must benefit from the right to mother tongue education. Mother tongue education should not be turned into a political issue, neither should it be prohibited or freed based on the political conjuncture"* (39M, PhD). In order for education to be effective, individuals need to state their feelings and views openly and comfortably, which is most possible through their mother tongue. Yet, the country's political line and the conditions that should exist in education sometime contradict each other.

Suggestions for ensuring mother tongue education

According to some of the participants, minorities' rights to use and be taught in their mother tongue should not be restricted in Turkey. In this context, it is observed that there is a tendency to leave mother tongue education to private schools, instead of providing it in state schools. This approach is seen as a practice that increases the inequalities experienced in education, and a violation of a human right. Education, which is provided through elective courses, two lessons per week, *"cannot substitute mother tongue education"* (24F, MA). Therefore, practices should be implemented to provide the necessary conditions for mother tongue education in state schools.

Contrary to international conventions, mother tongue education is prohibited by the constitution and other laws. Moreover, schools do not have teachers trained to teach elective courses on minority or local community languages. Many languages spoken in the country are not included in teacher training programs, and thus, teachers cannot be trained to meet the need in these languages. One of the participants addressed this issue as follows: *"Contrary to the universal declaration of human rights, and conventions on children's rights, the Constitution and the Basic Law on National Education close the door to mother tongue education completely. The elective course practice did not solve the problem. New regulations should be made to adopt an equitable approach in education. Competent teachers should be trained in universities, and they should be able to find employment opportunities"* (46M, PhD).

When individuals from minority groups reach the higher education level after receiving mother tongue education, they should not face inequalities or obstacles. The

education they received should not be an impediment for them, and they should not be disadvantaged in professional life. Mother tongue education should not become a disadvantage in accessing public services for individuals and the society. Those who received mother tongue education should not be marginalised in any institutions, and they should be provided with platforms by which they can express themselves. In this respect, *“how the communication between the civil servants who serve in public institutions and individuals who get service... and whether the language of communication would be multilingual”* should be regulated (34M, PhD).

Theme 2: Mother tongue education is a basic human right, but... (n=19)

Mother tongue education is all right, but not now

According to the participants who regarded mother tongue education as a basic human right, all children have the right to benefit from their right to education. All who request mother tongue education should be provided with it. Mother tongue education *“is important for children to feel valuable and accepted”* (10F, MA). On the other hand, according to some of the participants, providing mother tongue education to individuals from minority groups or local communities seems difficult in terms of practice. *“When the conditions are right, we can implement mother tongue education without damaging our national unity and solidarity”* (21M, MA). But, the country is not yet ready for this, and implementing mother tongue education may cause divisions in society. Today, globalisation has created the necessity to communicate in a common language across the world. Students who receive primary education in their mother tongue should be enabled to focus on English, which has turned into a world language. Despite the existence of ethnic diversity and many different native languages in Turkey, the Kurdish language comes to the fore when it comes to mother tongue education. For this reason, *“when mother tongue education is opened up for discussion, issues such as poverty, discrimination, deprivation and terror also come to the fore. Although it doesn't have any negative aspects in theory, mother tongue education would need decades to be implemented”* (41M, PhD).

Mother tongue education hinders individuals' integration into the society

According to some of the participants, minorities and local communities in the country should be taught Turkish first to meet their social needs and ensure their social integration. The mother tongue can be taught as an elective course with the condition that Turkish is learned. After all, *“minorities need to learn Turkish to meet their needs and integrate with the society”* (28F, MA). Otherwise, minorities having education in their mother

tongue would cause many problems in practice. *“The ties between regions may be weakened”* (45M, PhD). Serious problems can be observed in the process of minorities' social integration, and there may be fractures in the centralised governmental structure of the country. One of the participants who emphasised the importance of language unity for the continuity of the state and solidarity of society expressed his view as follows: *“I think that multiculturalism is an advantage, but it is the most basic human right to learn one's mother tongue alongside the common (official) language, and transfer it to the next generation. However, mother tongue education prevents individuals' integration into a larger section of the society. When a local language becomes dominant in certain regions, this facilitates dissolution in society by cutting of the communication with people in different regions”* (43E, D).

According to some of the participants, mother tongue education for children whose mother tongue is not Turkish cannot be put into practice due to economic reasons and the lack of a qualified labour force. Despite this, it is thought that *“teaching languages other than Turkish to all students would make a valuable contribution to social consensus, and strengthen social unity and solidarity”* (44M, PhD).

Languages other than the official language can be taught as elective courses

According to some of the participants, for adaptation to society, all citizens should learn the official language first, and then, they can be taught their native language as elective courses. For mother tongue education, there should be a social consensus, state schools should be made ready in terms of infrastructure, and teachers who can provide education in the target languages should be available. This is because *“providing education to minorities in their mother tongue may cause problems of ethnic differentiation, alienation and failed integration in the society. For the continuity of the nation, Turkish should be learned first”* (18F, MA). Not having ethnic grouping and alienation in the country depends on the solidarity of national consciousness. The language should be made official for the good of national consciousness, and thus, *“education should only be taught in Turkey as the mother tongue. Minorities can receive education in their mother tongue in addition to Turkish”* (16F, MA). There is no objection to minorities receiving education in their mother tongue in the form of elective courses after learning and being able to properly use Turkish.

Theme 3: No to mother tongue education (n=14)

Minority groups' receiving mother tongue education leads to the division of the country

According to the participants who objected to the idea of

providing mother tongue education in state schools, a common language is the most important determinant of being a unified nation. Different cultures and languages form a cultural mosaic in Turkey. Providing education to minorities or local communities in their mother tongue in state schools “*damages the integrity of the society, disintegrates the unitary structure of the state and causes the division of the country*” (23M, MA). Due to the geography where the country is located and the civil wars or political conflicts in the neighbouring countries, providing education to minorities or local communities in their mother tongue is not approved in terms of the country's security and future. One of the participants touched upon this issue as in the following: “*Mother tongue education can be implemented in private schools, but it is not appropriate in state schools. There are many ethnic backgrounds in Turkey. What if everyone wants the same thing? The most important element of being a nation is a common language. It is not the time, especially when there are civil wars in Iraq, Syria, Ukraine and the Middle East. We should seek integration, not division*” (42M, PhD).

The language education should only be Turkish

According to some of the participants who objected to mother tongue education, the official language of a country should be its language of education. The demands of minorities should not be considered in this regard. “*If the language of education was varied, differentiation would increase in the society, and Turkish would no longer be the common language of communication in the country*” (37F, PhD). Therefore, “*there should be an extra focus on Turkish for children whose mother tongue is not Turkish*” (30F, MA). In states that have a centralist style of government like Turkey, providing education to minorities in their mother tongue may cause significant fractures among ethnic groups in the country. In the case of a social consensus, there is nothing wrong with the demand for mother tongue education. Yet, it is perceived as “*a political demand, a means of pressure and blackmail*” (35M, PhD), and thus, is perceived with a negative attitude.

Mother tongue education is not applicable in the Turkish context

Although some of the participants view mother tongue education as a right, they do not find it applicable in terms of the country's level of development, existing situation and professional life. It seems that “*although it is minorities' natural right to demand education in their mother tongue, its applicability in the country is much, much less likely*” (26M, MA).

Mother tongue can be freely used in daily life, but should not be integrated into the education system

Some of the participants believed that inhibiting minorities from using their language in daily life may lead to various psychological and development problems, which can leave a lasting negative impact on people. That is why “*minorities should be able to freely speak their languages in daily life. But, these languages should not be integrated into the education system*” (32F, PhD). Including the languages of minorities or local communities in the education system “*and children's using a language other than Turkish both at school and at home, especially in elementary school period when they are quite open to learning, would cause difficulty for them in the future*” (31F, PhD). Not learning Turkish and not being able to speak the same language would eventually lead to a miscommunication among people.

DISCUSSION

This study reports postgraduate students' personal evaluations and judgements regarding mother tongue education and its applicability in Turkey. Personal evaluations and judgements are the views that form individuals' subjective knowledge about themselves, their environment and what is going on in this environment. These views include affective elements as well as cognitive elements (Şahin, 2014). The results of this study that are limited to the views of a certain group of participants are comprehensive enough to get an overview of the issue from various dimensions. The present study provides merely a window from which to look at the whole picture.

One of the primary findings revealed in the study is that the opportunity of receiving mother tongue education, which is a basic human right, should be provided to all without considering ethnic background. As also reported by various researchers (Cummins, 2000; Diaz-Rico, 2000; Ramos, 2001), one of the factors that affect minority students' education the most is the use of mother tongue in class. Moreover, the use, literacy and development of language are not limited to classroom activities. In the social context, literacy includes not only the basics of reading, writing, and speaking, but also individuals' creating meaning through personal experiences such as asking questions to one's self and others by using the ties between the language and culture (Helmlberger, 2006). Students' experiences in the mother tongue prior to reading and writing affect learning. In this regard, reading instruction in the mother tongue is a key to success in learning to read in a second language (Watkins-Goffman and Cummings, 1997). As Kaya (2015) states, children who are members of a minority or a local community whose native language is not Turkish are more likely to fail compared to those whose mother

tongue is Turkish due to not being provided with sufficient Turkish language education and having to learn Turkish first in the educational process.

In spite of the emphasis on the necessity of mother tongue education, concerns are also expressed regarding children who are members of minorities or local communities and who receive mother tongue education as they may face inequalities or obstacles when they reach higher education and be disadvantaged in professional life. These concerns are not baseless. One of the main problems that individuals encounter in professional life is discrimination (Demir, 2011). If mother tongue education was provided in schools, there would be a need to create new regulations in education and education policy to address these concerns. However, considering that Turkey's administrative system and, accordingly, its education system have an extremely centralized structure, it can be stated that changing the existing situation is a systemic problem, and the political dimensions overshadow the educational aspects. After all, curricula are centrally developed and implemented without considering population characteristics and cultural, social, or economic statuses of different regions (Karan, 2017). Therefore, providing education to minorities or local groups in their mother tongue would be directly parallel to the country's administrative structure and the society's level of democratisation. Consequently, when it comes to mother tongue education, political discussions are mostly encountered rather than educational issues.

The second primary finding revealed in the study is the emphasis that the country is not yet ready to provide education to minorities or local communities in their mother tongue although mother tongue education is seen as a basic human right. Providing mother tongue education in state schools may create problems in the country. It can hinder the integration of individuals belonging to minorities or local communities into the society. For this reason, education in state schools should be delivered in the official language (in this case, Turkish). At the same time, the languages of local or minority communities other than Turkish can be taught as elective courses. These findings show that the language of education poses an important problem. The traditional view on this issue is based on the assumption that being exposed to the education of the dominant language early would speed up minority students' adaptation to the majority culture, and would increase their chance of competition in mainstream society. The staunch advocates of this assimilationist perspective have usually tried to replace students' mother tongue with the dominant language. The clearest and most dramatic examples of this can be found in the education of American and Canadian Indians' children in the history of North America, but it was also experienced in Turkey and many other countries as well. In heritage schools in Canada and the United States of America, children were

reprimanded, publicly humiliated, and even physically punished for using their heritage language. In fact, suppressing children's heritage language and identity was clearly intentional in many residential and missionary schools (Wright and Taylor, 1995). Considering that a strong advocate of the educational right is the middle class, they have an important responsibility in ensuring mother tongue education. According to Palmer (2009b), who points out that social class has an important effect on education, parents' ability to navigate school systems is related to their education levels. Therefore, educated middle class citizens may be invaluable for the implementation of bilingual education, and play a significant role in advocating bilingual educational curricula.

The third primary finding revealed in the study is that minority groups and local communities should not be provided with mother tongue education in state schools. The language of education should only be Turkish. Mother tongue languages can be freely used in daily life, but should not be formally integrated into the education system. If minority groups and local communities are provided with mother tongue education in state schools, the integrity of the society may be impaired, the unitary structure of the centralized state may be fragmented, and eventually, the country may be divided. These concerns and objections regarding mother tongue education are also shared by the state; in other words, it can be stated that the state's perspective is significantly influential on the participants. This situation makes education in local or minority groups' languages an important problem in terms of its effects on language orientation, language policy, and planning objectives. It also supports the view that language can be seen as a problem, a right, and/or a resource (Ruiz, 1984). As Özsoy (2004) emphasises, the fact that the state established an absolute dominance in the field of education caused all demands for rights related to education to turn into a political demand against the state. For this reason, the problem of the right to education has never been perceived as a mere educational problem in Turkey, which can be observed in Turkey's resistance to approve of the conventions that regulate language rights. In fact, these conventions guarantee minorities' right to learn their mother tongue and to be taught in their mother tongue. However, Turkey did not become a party to the UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education, Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities, and The European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages by refusing to sign these conventions (Alp and Taştan, 2011). Furthermore, the TR Constitution (1982) prohibits the use and teaching of any language other than Turkish as the language of education. The prohibition of mother tongue education is a result of the policies towards the assimilation of ethnic groups. This prohibition means discrimination for citizens with different ethnic backgrounds; whereas, "multilingualism is the

norm around the world. The coexistence and access to multiple languages in society invites an examination of how multiple language sources are negotiated in policy and practice” (Ester et al., 2016).

Based on the results of the current study, the following suggestions can be offered. Comprehensive studies should be carried out with regard to the right to education and mother tongue education. The international conventions that Turkey has not approved yet, and that regulate the right to education and language rights should be approved as soon as possible. The reservations of the international conventions that were approved conditionally should be removed. The articles that prohibit mother tongue education in the constitution and in the legal code should be changed. Children's educational rights and best interests should be prioritized and protected while making educational policies.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The author has not declared any conflicts of interests.

REFERENCES

- Aljazeera (16 November 2013). Dağdakiler incek, cezaevleri boşalacak. Retrieved on 12 February 2018 from <http://www.aljazeera.com.tr/haber/dagdakiler-inecek-cezaevleri-bosalacak>
- Alp S, Taştan N (2011). Türkiye’de ırk veya etnik köken temelinde ayrımcılığın izlenmesi raporu: 1 Ocak- 31 Temmuz 2010. İstanbul: İstanbul Bilgi University.
- Ataöv T (1996). Çatışmaların kaynağı olarak ayrımcılık. Ankara: Ankara University Faculty of Political Sciences, İnsan Hakları Merkezi Yayınları, No: 20.
- Avrupa Birliği Bakanlığı (2002a). Kürtçe eğitim talebi. Retrieved on 15 December 2017 from https://www.ab.gov.tr/_24854.html
- Avrupa Birliği Bakanlığı (2002b). Kürtçe eğitim talebi-2. Retrieved on 15 December 2017 from https://www.ab.gov.tr/_24879.html
- Avrupa Birliği Bakanlığı (2002c). Kürtçe eğitim talebi-3. Gaziosmanpaşa’da “Kürtçe eğitim” istemine 29 gözaltı. Retrieved on 15 December 2017 from https://www.ab.gov.tr/_24880.html
- Ayata G, Dilek SE, Oder BE (2010). Kadın hakları uluslararası hukuk ve uygulama. İstanbul: İstanbul Bilgi University Publications, 305.
- Basic Law of National Education (1973). Retrieved on 27 November 2017 from <http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.1739.pdf>
- Cavallaro F (2005). Language maintenance revisited: an Australian perspective. *Bilingual Res. J.* 29(3):561-582.
- Cook S, Westheimer J (2006). Introduction: democracy and education. *Canadian J. Educ.* 29, 2:347-358.
- Creswell JW (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- Cumhuriyet Daily (2014). Kürtçe eğitim verecek olan okullar eğitime başladı. Retrieved on 15 December 2017 from http://www.cumhuriyet.com.tr/haber/egitim/119525/Kurtce_egitim_verecek_olan_okullar_egitime_basladi.html
- Cummins J (2000). Negotiating intercultural identities in the multicultural classroom. *The CATESOL J.* 12(1):163-178.
- Demir M (2011). Discrimination in the working life: a sample of tourism sector. *J. Hum. Sci.* 8(1):760-784.
- Diaz-Rico LT (2000). Intercultural communication in teacher education: the knowledge base for CLAD teacher credential programs. *CATESOL J.* 12(1):145-161.
- Ester J de J, Zhuo L, Aliya MZ, Chiu-Hui W (2016). Language policy in multilingual contexts: Revisiting Ruiz’s “language-as-resource” orientation. *Bilingual Res. J.* 39(3-4):200-212.
- Gökçen S, Öney S (2008). Türkiye’de Romanlar ve milliyetçilik. İçinde, E. Uzpeder, S. Danova/Roussinova, S. Özçelik ve S. Gökçen (Eds.), *Biz Buradayız! Türkiye’de Romanlar, Ayrımcı Uygulamalar ve Hak Mücadelesi*, pp.129-136. İstanbul: Mart Matbaacılık.
- Göregenli M (2012). Temel kavramlar: önyargı, kalıpyargı ve ayrımcılık. İçinde, K. Çayır ve M. Ayan Ceyhan (eds.), *Ayrımcılık çok boyutlu yaklaşımlar*. İstanbul: İstanbul Bilgi University Publications 393. pp,17-27.
- Gül İ (2009). Eğitim hakkı ve eğitimde haklar. İçinde, I. Tüzün (Eds.), *Eğitime erişim: eğitimde ayrımcılık yasağı ve fırsat eşitliği*. İstanbul: ERG. Pp.17-99
- Helmberger JL (2006). Language and ethnicity: multiple literacies in context, language education in Guatemala. *Bilingual Res. J.* 30(1):65-86.
- Human Rights Watch (01.11.2010). Protestoyu terör suçu saymak. Retrieved on 15 December 2017 from <https://www.hrw.org/sites/default/files/reports/turkey1110tuwebwcover.pdf>
- Hürriyet Daily (25 January 2015). Yaşayan diller ve lehçeler dersini 85 bin öğrenci seçti. Retrieved on 27 December 2017 from <http://www.hurriyet.com.tr/yasayan-diller-ve-lehceler-dersini-85-bin-ogrenci-secti-28045465>
- İnsan Hakları ve Mazlumlar İçin Dayanışma Derneği [Mazlumder] (2011). Türkiye’de etnik ayrımcılık raporu. Retrieved on 27 November 2017 from http://istanbul.mazlumder.org/fotograf/yayinresimleri/dokuman/etnik_ayrimcilik_raporu_2011.pdf
- Kaplan R (2015). Birleşmiş milletler belgelerinde eğitim hakkı. *Türkiye Adalet Akademisi Dergisi*, 6(20):329-372.
- Karan U (2017). Görmezlikten gelinen eşitsizlik: Türkiye’de Romanların barınma ve eğitim hakkına erişimi. *Uluslararası Azınlık Hakları Grubu (MRG), Sıfır Ayrımcılık Derneği*. Retrieved on 07 January 2018 from http://minorityrights.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/06/MRG_Rapor.pdf
- Kaya N (2009). Forgotten or assimilated? Minorities in the education system of turkey. *Minority Rights Group International*. Retrieved on 7 January 2018 from <http://minorityrights.org/publications/forgotten-or-assimilated-minorities-in-the-education-system-of-turkey-march-2009/>
- Kaya N (2015). Discrimination based on colour, ethnic origin, language, religion and belief in Turkey’s education system. *Tarih Vakfı, Minority Rights Group International (MRG)*. Retrieved on 07 January 2018 from <http://minorityrights.org/publications/discrimination-based-on-colour-ethnic-origin-language-religion-and-belief-in-turkeys-education-system/>
- Kim E (2013). Smaller steps towards progress in the Dominican Republic: securing equal access to education for Dominico-Haitian children. *Boston Univ. Int. Law J.* 31(1):163-198.
- Kümbetoğlu B (2005). Sosyolojide ve antropolojide niteliksel yöntem ve araştırma. Ankara: Bağlam.
- Ministry of National Education (MoNE) (2017). 2017-2018 eğitim öğretim yılında okutulacak seçmeli derslerin seçimine ilişkin açıklama. Retrieved on 29 December 2017 from <http://tegm.meb.gov.tr/www/2017-2018-egitim-ogretim-yilinda-okutulacak-secmeli-derslerin-secimine-iliskin-aciklama/icerik/431>
- Official Gazette (1983). Yabancı dil eğitimi ve öğretimi ile Türk vatandaşlarının farklı dil ve lehçelerinin öğrenilmesi hakkında kanun. Retrieved on 29 December 2017 from <http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.2923.pdf>
- Oran B (2015). Türkiye’de azınlıklar. İstanbul: İletişim.
- Özen Kutanis R, Ulu S (2016). İşgücü piyasalarında ayrımcılığın kaynakları. *Seçuk University the Journal of Institute of Social Sciences*, 35:359-372
- Özsoy S (2004). Eğitim hakkı: kendi dilini bulamamış bir söylem. *Eğitim Bilim Toplum Dergisi*, 2(6):58-83.
- Palmer DK (2009b). Middle-class English speakers in a two-way immersion bilingual classroom: “Everybody should be listening to Jonathan right now...”. *TESOL Quart.* 43(2):177-202.
- Paulston RG (1976). Ethnic revival and educational conflict in Swedish Lapland. *Comparative Educ. Rev.* 20:179-192.
- Radikal Daily (21 September 2010). İlk ders Kürtçe eğitim talebi. Retrieved on 15 December 2017 from <http://www.radikal.com.tr/turkiye/ilk-ders-kurtce-egitim-talebi-1019957/>

- Ramos F (2001) Teachers' opinions about the theoretical and practical aspects of the use of native language minority students: a cross-sectional study. *Bilingual Res. J.* 25(3):357-374.
- Ruiz R (1984). Orientations in language planning. *NABE: The Journal of the National Association for Bilingual Education*, 8(2):15-34.
- Şahin İ (2014). The ideas of prospective teachers as to how they are trained. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi*, 22(1):241-258.
- Sözcü Daily (10 October 2016). Diyarbakır'da Kürtçe eğitim veren özel okul kapatıldı. Retrieved on 27 December 2017 from <http://www.sozcu.com.tr/2016/egitim/diyarbakirda-kurtce-egitim-veren-ozel-okul-kapatildi-1439001/>
- Spanierman LB, Neville HA, Liao HY, Hammer JH, Wang YF (2008). Participation in formal and informal campus diversity experiences: effects on students' racial democratic beliefs. *J. Diversity Higher Educ.* 1(2):108-125.
- Taşkın Alp Y (2016). ERG, Eğitim izleme raporu 2015-2016: öğrenciler ve eğitime erişim arka plan raporu. Retrieved on 12 November 2017 from <http://www.egitimreformugirisimi.org/egitim-izleme-raporu-2015-16/>
- TR Constitution (1982). Retrieved on 27 December 2017 from <http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.2709.pdf>
- Ünal I (2016). Ayrımcılık. *Eleştirel Pedagoji*, 8(46):57-59.
- United Nations [UN] (1966). International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Retrieved on 17 December 2017 from <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CESCR.aspx>
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (1989). Convention on the rights of the child. Retrieved on 12 December 2017 from <http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/ProfessionalInterest/crc.pdf>
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2006). Convention against discrimination in education (1960) and articles 13 and 14 (Right to education) of the international covenant on economic, social and cultural rights: a comparative analysis. Retrieved on 13 December 2017 from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001459/145922e.pdf>
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2007). A human rights-based approach to education for all. Retrieved on 17 December 2017 from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001548/154861e.pdf>
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (1960). Convention against discrimination in education. Retrieved on 12 December 2017 from http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/DISCRI_E.PDF
- United Nations (UN) (2015). Universal declaration of human rights. Retrieved on 23 December 2017 from http://www.un.org/en/udhrbook/pdf/udhr_booklet_en_web.pdf
- Vatan Daily (2013). Erdoğan bu kelimeyi ilk kez kullandı! Retrieved on 12 February 2018 from <http://www.gazetevatan.com/erdogan-bu-kelimeyi-ilk-kez-kullandi--584506-gundem/>
- Watkins-Goffman L, Cummings V (1997). Bridging the gap between native language and second language literacy instruction: a naturalistic study. *Bilingual Res. J.* 21(4):380-394.
- Wright SC, Taylor DM (1995). Identity and the language of the classroom: investigating the impact of heritage versus second language instruction on personal and collective self-esteem. *J. Educ. Psychol.* 87(2):241-252.
- Yıldırım A, Şimşek H (2005). Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri. Ankara: Seçkin.

Related Journals:

