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Full Length Research Paper

The effect of literature on personality development of individuals using some variables

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The aim of this work is to investigate whether literature has effect on the personality development of individuals or not. This work aims to provide answers to the following research questions: "Does literature have effect on individuals' general harmony level, their social cohesion levels, personal harmony level, self-actualization level, emotional stability level, neurotic tendencies, psychotic symptoms, family relations, social relations, compliance level of social norms and antisocial tendencies? This research was carried out on the students studying in secondary schools located in Kırşehir City, Turkey during 2009 to 2010 academic years. Disproportionate cluster sampling was used to take the sample from 12 different schools. 14 students were randomly selected from each school; a total of 168 students participated in the survey. "Hacettepe Personality Inventory" published by Özgüven and "Personal Information Form" were used as measurement materials. According to the research findings, literature does not have a significant influence on the general, social and personal harmony of individuals, their self-actualization, emotional stability and harmony levels of social norms, neurotic and anti-social tendencies, psychotic symptoms and family relationships; however, literature has a significant influence on their social relations.

Key words: Harmony, adolescence self-actualization, emotional stability, neurotic tendencies, psychotic symptoms, Hacettepe Personality Inventory.

INTRODUCTION

In the formation of the man's personality, which is the combination of social, moral, mental and physical features, education and schooling have a significant role as well as many other factors like heredity, culture and psychology (Yağışan & Koca, 2010). Apart from all these arguments, the facts that many new methods and applications contribute to the personal development of all ages of children, adolescents and adults, provide them self-confidence, clear up their behavioral problems and help them cope with their communication problems reveals the social and psychological aspects of literature.

Harmony can be defined as the ability of individuals to establish and maintain good relationships with themselves

and with their surroundings, which begins with birth and develops to the end of life. Harmony concept has been discussed and defined in different ways. Özgüven (1992) defines harmony as, a situation whereby an individual can establish good relationship with himself and people around him as well as sustainability of the relationship. Çağlar (1981) defines harmony as, a process where individuals reconcile with all creatures and environmental conditions to maintain their lives and existence. Kılıçlı (2006) defines harmony as when an individual meets his needs by himself, by being in harmony with the environment. Morgan (1998) defines it as satisfaction obtained from motivation; it is the sustainability of positive

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relationship which exists between an individual and his social environment.

Individuals show appropriate behavior and attitude based on changes, which occur in them and reconcile their relationship with people, through which they build real harmony. Harmony is not the only way. By interacting with the environment, humans learn the ways of adapting to the environment and also allow the environment to adapt to them. With this, human develops a harmony pattern. The function of human adaptation pattern is to solve problems faced in the interaction with the environment. The level of harmonization is determined by two main factors; one is personal characteristics of the individual and the other is the situation faced in the environment (Yeğen, 2008).

In the literature, the concept of compliance is to be "normal", "psychologically healthy"; on the other hand, incompatibility is to be "abnormal", "psychologically unhealthy"; and these concepts may be interchangeably used (Özgüven, 1992). Geçtan (2006) approached the concept of normality as compliance, competence and ability to cope with stress. Individuals, who are aware of their feelings, deal with negative emotions in a healthy way, psychologically mature, and having high self-awareness are psychologically healthy people. Social cohesion of these individuals and having close relationship has a positive effect on their frame. According to Wayne and Liden (1995), compliance causes less interpersonal conflict, more work and less family conflicts (Erden and Akman, 2004). Individuals experience negative emotions such as grief, sadness, burnout and failure at times during their life. In order to cope with such negative emotions, they need to relieve, calm down and most importantly get over these negative emotions without any damage (Deniz et al., 2008).

The sub-elements of personal adaptation

Self-actualization

The concept of self-actualization was announced for the first time by Jung. According to Jung, the aim of every human is to have self-actualization. According to Maslow (1970), healthy development creates conditions in which people live free throughout their lives. People who have self-actualization have a more intimate and sincere personal relationships more than others. According to Feist and Feist (2008), self-actualization is the process of integrating people opposite polarities (cited by Mürvetoğlu, 2014).

Emotional stability

Personality tends to continuous improvement. The purpose of this development is to develop mature and balanced personalities. This is as a result of interaction between the structural and environmental factors and it is possible

with the change and upsizing of the child's function, through a variety of processes (Kuzgun, 1972).

Psychological maturities, also known as self-realization, are necessary for realization of oneself. Individuals, who have psychological maturity, try to establish relations based on mutual trust and sincerity with other people and may maintain the sustainability and responsibility of these relationships (Kılıççı, 2006). Basically, individuals' emotional states significantly affect their important life events and motivations. As a result, emotional states play an important role in self-motivation and are important factors helping to reach goals and cope with stress, which in turn brings hope to an individual's life (Schette, 1996; Schweizer and Koch, 2001, quoted by Balcı-Çelik, 2008). When individuals feel good about themselves they lead a happy and satisfactory life. However, the state of feeling good, in other words, thinking optimistic varies from person to person (Brown et al., 1996; Scheier and Carver, 1992; cited by Balcı-Çelik, 2008).

Neurotic tendencies

McCrae and Costa (1991) point out that, neuroticism personality is a term that refers to normal personality dimensions which characterize experience of psychological unease as susceptibility. Individuals with high neuroticism tendencies are described as being anxious, angry, impulsive, depressed and insecure, while individuals with low neuroticism tendencies are described as, being calm, confident and emotionally stable (Şendil and Cesur, 2011; Barrick and Mount, 1991; McCrae and Costa, 2006).

People who have the symptoms of neurotic tendencies, suffer from a few or several psychosomatic symptoms such as chronic fatigue, headaches, insomnia, impaired vision, loss of appetite and so on (Mete, 2006). People who are showing neurotic symptoms and behavioral tendencies tend not to perform to full capacity (Knapp, 1965; cited by Mürvetoğlu, 2014). Partial compulsion to unconscious theory is one of the cornerstones for understanding neurosis (Freud, 2006; 2013). Neurotic tendencies indicate some attitudes like denying identity, being perfectionist and disregarding criticism along with psychopathic symptoms such as chronic tiredness and lack of appetite.

Psychotic symptoms

Psychotic symptoms are symptoms related to psychotic disorder, mood disorders, substance abuse and thought, perception, mood and behavior which are seen as some medical conditions (Buchanan and Carpenter 2005; APA, 1994; akt:- Binbay, 2009). In the literature, people who have psychotic features exhibit behavior disorders such as aggression, restlessness and psychomotor agitation (Buchanan and Carpenter 2005; APA, 1994; cited by

Binbay, 2009). Horton and Cruise (2001) and Polat (2001) states that emotional abuse (or psychological abuse) concerns actions that have negative impact on the intellectual and emotional development of the child, leading to deficits in self-sense and in social competence in close relationships, lack of self-trust, a feeling of not being loved and fear of doing wrong (cited by Çeçen-Eroğul and Bilge Türk, 2013). According to Çeçen-Eroğul and Kaya (2013) childhood traumas are negative experiences which can cause complex psychological problems affecting one's whole life. It has a great importance in determining the variables that may be an element of risk in terms of these experiences for the prevention and decrease of abuse experiences.

Sub-Components of Social Cohesion

Family relationships

Mental health, fundamentals of personal and social adaptation level of the child are given attention to first in the family. The family prepares the necessary conditions for the child's social adaptation.

Family helps the child to get oral and social habits, related to behavior which is required for compliance. People who are sociable will require institutions which provide social security, in order to live happily in society. In those institutions it is undoubtedly that the family comes first (Ulutaş, 2011).

Parenthood is a complex process that reflects individual, social and cultural effects. Many authors have expressed that, family is a fundamental institution which provides children with positive mental and physical developments (Kulaksızoğlu, 1999; Sezer, 2010; Stams et al., 2009; Bornstein, 1992; Ulusoy and Durmuş, 2011; Yavuzer, 2001). Family Affairs Low scores suggest that the individual has disharmony and disorder in the relationships with the other family members (Yağışan and Koca, 2010).

Social relationships

An individual goes through different developmental stages: developing life from childhood to adulthood. And in these periods, an individual exhibits physiological and psychological characteristics which are not the same with each other. Another important development dimension is the social development in adolescence period. Personality development continues until the end of adolescence; when a person achieves a consistent and integrity structure in feeling, thoughts and behavior dimensions, then this personality is considered as being formed. This structure shows that, there are less conflicts and more stable situations.

The structure tends to maintain its basic features although it changes with time. This is the period that, sense of identity and social productivity are gained when

the young is preparing for the role of adulthood (Koç, 2004; Atak, 2011). Humans are continuously redefined in their relations. It is impossible to think that there is a human who has no relationship with other people (Cüceloğlu, 2000). According to Fromm, today's human dilemma stems from the conflict between the social and personal needs and difficulties in satisfying them. Learning to adapt to other people is one of the leading problems in human life (Yavuzer, 2001). Parents, siblings, spouses, lovers, friends, teachers, relatives, neighbors and experts are important sources of social support in the individual's life. The important sources of social support for students are listed as a family, friends and teachers (Tayfur and Ulupınar, 2016). Numerous researches have been conducted on attitudes of Turkish adolescents. Özabacı (2011) studies that examined Turkish adolescents' and focused on general social attitudes and values. Telli et al. (2008) and Altıparmak et al. (2012) studies examined specifically about school and Güven and Aslan (2010) concerned adolescent attitudes about the separation-individuation process with their parents. Overall, there were fewer descriptive studies about attitudes, with about twice as many attitudinal studies that focused on predictive and correlational factors as described in the following section (cited by Martina & Alacacı, 2015).

Social norms

Social norms scores signify feeling respect for social rules, moral values and others' rights (Yağışan and Koca, 2010). As a social being, humans like to communicate with other people, like to understand others' thoughts and perspectives, and desire to be with other people. In these cases, they are likely to be some challenges. Social skills mean the ability of people to cope with their own problems without needing any support of others; the ability of people to use their sense in fighting obstacles and ability to manage conflicts with required behaviors (Akkök, 1996; Bacanlı, 1999; Çetin et al., 2003; Sudak and Zehir, 2013).

The most influential environmental condition is the socio-cultural characteristics of the society in which people live. These make people to have standard behavior (Özdemir at al., 2012; Yörükoğlu; 2002). When people begin to define themselves and their surroundings, it is known as interpersonal relationship (Erözkan, 2009).

Anti-social personality disorder

People who have anti-social personality disorder exhibit behavior disorders in their adolescence period and also dangerous and irresponsible socially in their adulthood period (Sardoğan and Kaygısız, 2006). This disorder is known as sociopathic which is a psychological imbalance associated with psychopathy.

Contentiousness, forgery, theft, gambling, irresponsibility in family and social life, perpetration, using psychoactive substance are commonly observed in anti-social personality disorder which is one of the personality disorders (Öztürk, 2002; Yıldırım and Türeli, 2015). The original meaning of the word, personality means "persona" in Latin. The term, 'persona' has been used to explain interpersonal differences (Groesbebeck, 1985; cited by Eroğlu, 2011). Personality has been defined in diverse ways and times. In defining personality, using DSM and ICD classification criteria (Ak, Gülsün and Özmenler, 2009) is more common and practical. Personality in psychology is one of the most extensive covered concepts because it has many features related to human behaviors (Sevi, 2009; Sudak and Zehir, 2013). There are various reasons why people have different behaviors in certain situations. This is one area of interest for behavioral science and behaviourists (Ari, 1991). Many theories have been developed to define and explain personality. Each theory has attempted to identify personality with different perspectives (Deniz and Erciş, 2008; Ordun, 2004; Cüceoğlu; 1991).

According to Morgan (1999), personality is "the behavior characteristics of a person displayed to other people. Burger (2006) defines personality as, the process of consistent behavior patterns and interpersonal behaviors arising from an individual. Yanbastı (1991) sees personality as a relatively immutable characteristic which separates a person from other people, distinguishes and forms the basis of an individual's future behavior. Köknel (2005) defines personality as a product of structural-developmental factors and social experience; it is also a unique life style of a person and determines compliance models, intimidated thought, perception and behavior patterns. According to Senemoğlu (2004), personality separates an individual from others and these are the features a person brings from his birth and gains later.

Literature and human psychology is always considered as one within the other. As a science, literature and psychology are not really far from each other. The most obvious and generalized common feature of literature and psychology is that, they choose an entire population as a target and material. Both literature and psychology intend to catch human soul; to take a closer look into the subconscious processes which shape human's thoughts, behavior and emotions. Finally, these science courses also intend to see man as a "whole" without separating him from his environment (İsmet, 2006).

METHOD

Participant

Relational scanning model was used in this research. General scanning model is a scanning process used for a whole universe or specific group, sample or paradigm in order to take a measure of the universe, which consists of many elements. The universe of this research is the students of formal secondary schools and institu-

tions, affiliated to the Ministry of Education; the schools and institutions are located in Kırşehir city. The sample was taken from 12 disproportionate cluster groups in the universe of the study. Each school represents a cluster.

The sample consists of a total of 168 students; 14 students were randomly chosen from each school. The universe of the study is accessible. The researcher comments on the universe of the study, by observing a sample cluster (Smith, 1975; cited by Karasar, 1995).

Instruments

In this study, "Hacettepe Personality Inventory" and "Personal Information Form" are used to collect data from other variables. Hacettepe Personality Inventory was developed by Özgüven (1976) to measure individual personality characteristics, levels of personal, social and general harmony; to identify clinical and normal cases and to make mental health scanning. According to a study conducted on inventory, the first revision was done in 1978 and the second done in 1982, and Hacettepe Personality Inventory Manual Book was published in 1993.

Hacettepe Personality Inventory has two main sections as "personal harmony" and "social cohesion". There are eight subscales based on these two sections and there is also "validity" scale related to individual's test-taking behavior. Personal harmony subscales are respectively: (1) self-actualization (2) Emotional stability (3) Neurotic tendencies (4) The psychotic symptoms and social cohesion subscales (5) Family relationships (6) Social relationships (7) Social norms (8) Anti-social tendencies (Özgüven, 1994).

Personal information form

In the personal information form, there are questions related to student's age, gender, department, grade level, socio-economic status and health status. In order to determine students' socio-economic status (SES) in the personal information form, "Socio-economic level scale" developed by Bacanlı (1997) was used based on the purposes of the research. Some articles have been updated in the form.

Data Collections

The scale known as "Hacettepe Personality Inventory" developed by Özgüven (1994) was used as a data collection tool. It was used to measure students' personality characteristics, their general, personality and social harmony level. Hacettepe Personality Inventory was applied to a total of 168 students randomly chosen from 12 different schools and each school provided 14 students with disproportionate cluster sample.

All the applied scales were collected. The data collection tools were also examined and 10 of them were declared invalid. 158 data tools were considered as valid from the 168 data tools. The data were evaluated with SPSS 10.00 Statistical Package Program and t test was used, a parametric technique.

Reliability and Validity of the Scale

The reliability coefficient of the scale was measured with KR-21 and episodic repetition inventory method realized by Özgüven and others on different groups. The reliability coefficients for the subscales are between 0.58 and 0.92, and the average is about 0.82. The reliability coefficients of the total scores are 0.93 in personal harmony, 0.84 in social cohesion and 0.92 in general compliance. Correlations between the eight subscales of Hacettepe

Personality Inventory are around 0.38 to 0.43 for "personal harmony", 0.41 for median; the correlations between the subscales of "social cohesion" are around 0.35 to 0.46 and the median is 0.40.

These results show that the subscales are too low to account for the quality inherent in the scale. And on the other hand, the subscales have a highly coherent and homogeneous structure which will bring substantially contribution to the total points. In the research conducted on the "opposite groups" known as "normal" and "incompatible", it has been observed that all subscales of the inventory can distinguish these significant groups. The study results of "spoofing" related to the purposeful answering behavior of individuals show that, they were unable to indicate themselves as significantly "compatible" or "incompatible". In the study conducted with "similar scales validity" method, most of the correlations between the MMPI subscales and Hacettepe Personality Inventory scores have changed from 0.50 and to 0.40 to 0.78. "Nature-concept" and "similar scale validity" work conducted with "SCL-90", "state and constant anxiety inventory", "apperception" scales show that Hacettepe Personality Inventory can distinguish between clinical cases and normal people (Özgüven, 1994).

FINDINGS

In this section, the data collected relating to the sub-problems were analyzed with appropriate statistical techniques as presented in these tables.

As shown from Table 1 to 11 there is no significant difference between, the overall level of compliance of individuals, the social cohesion levels of individuals, personal cohesion levels of individuals, personal self-realization levels of individuals, the emotional stability levels of individuals, the neurotic tendencies levels of individuals, the psychotic symptoms of the individuals, the family relationship of the individuals, the social relationship of the individuals, the social norms of the individuals, being and not being interested in literature and anti-social tendency of the individuals [$t_{(156)}=0.735$, $p>0,05$], respectively. Social relationship of the people who are not interested in literature ($\bar{X} = 13.83$) is stronger than the social relationship of the people who are interested in literature ($\bar{X} = 12.71$).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

According to the relevant literature, interested in literature and not interested in literature affect adolescent's mental and physical health, school attendance, and adaptation, academic achievement, etc. The results of the study show that literature supports the personality development of adolescences positively. In this research, "Personal Information Form" and "Hacettepe Personality Inventory" were used as data gathering tool. As a result of research, if averages of Hacettepe Personality Inventory (HPI) subscale point are analyzed in terms of using different variables it is apparent that points of students who make interest in literature and not interested in literature.

In this study, it has been seen that, literature does not have a significant effect on the general, social and personal compliance of people, their self-realization,

emotional stability and harmony levels of social norms, neurotic and anti-social tendencies, psychotic symptoms and family relationships. On the other hand, literature has meaningful effect on social relationship of people and it has been found that, people who are interested in literature have more social relationship than people who are not interested in literature. Even though, general, social and personal compliance, self-realization, emotional stability, harmony of social norms, neurotic and anti-social tendencies, psychotic symptoms and family relationships are directly involved in people's life, due to an indirect reflection of life, literature seems natural when it does not have an impact in these aspects.

When we take a look at the concept of social relationship, it has a significant relationship between literature, people who are interested in literature and are inadequate in terms of creating social relationship. When we take a look at the cause and effect relationship, does literature affect the social relationship or do people who are insufficient on social relationship try to express themselves in literature? These questions can be debatable issues. The result of people who are interested in literature is insufficient in terms of social relationship, which can be interpreted as people who are insufficient in social relationship and try to express themselves with literature. The use of psychology in a wide range of social life has caused this branch of science to become functional. In addition, intense study and research in the framework of the various sub-disciplines of psychology have resulted in the acquisition of very important information and data in these topics.

Literature psychology is an interdisciplinary, consisting of common psychology and literature field. Literature psychology is a field of science which is trying to become independent by taking advantage of literature, psychoanalysis and psychology science. In social science, literature is one of the fundamental sciences which has direct ties and takes upon the rules of life itself. The most obvious and generalized common trait of literature and psychology is that, they choose the entire population as a target. All in all, both literature and psychology are trying to understand the human soul; to take a close look at the subconscious processes that shape his thoughts, behaviors and emotions; to see human as "whole" without separating him from his environment. This position and view proximity mostly take advantage of each other and behave collectively (Cebeci, 2004; Emre, 2006; Eroğlu, 2011, Özbek, 2007). Some studies indicate that optimist individuals are more successful in schools, have happy, healthy and long lives and marriages, and care about their children (McGinnis, 1998; cited by Kumcağız, Balci-Çelik, Yılmaz, Eren, 2011). We can assume that our findings are supported in this way. The reasons underlie why the social relationship is not stronger for people who are interested in literature than people who are not interested in literature. These reasons must be investigated and necessary measures

Table 1. t Test results relating to general compliance level of individuals in terms of variance in attention given to literature.

Variable	N	\bar{X}	S	Sd	t	P
People interested in literature	121	91.44	21.64	156	0.106	0.236
People not interested in literature	37	91.86	19.07			

P>0.05.

Table 2. t Test results relating to "social cohesion" level of individuals in terms of variance in attention given to literature.

Variable	N	\bar{X}	S	Sd	t	P
People are interested in the literature	121	48.53	10.90	156	0.419	0.815
People are not interested in the literature	37	49.40	11.42			

P>0.05.

Table 3. t Test results relating to "personal cohesion" level of individuals in terms of variance in attention given to literature.

Variable	N	\bar{X}	S	Sd	t	P
People are interested in the literature	121	43.47	12.02	156	0.545	0.051
People are not interested in the literature	37	42.29	9.80			

P>0.05.

Table 4. t Test results relating to "personal self-realization" level of individuals in terms of variance in attention given to literature.

Variable	N	\bar{X}	S	Sd	t	P
People are interested in the literature	121	12.87	3.34	156	0.595	0.193
People are not interested in the literature	37	12.51	2.85			

P>0.05.

Table 5. t Test results relating to "emotional stability" level of individuals in terms of variance in attention given to literature.

Variable	N	\bar{X}	S	Sd	t	P
People are interested in the literature	121	9.42	3.63	156	0.169	0.141
People are not interested in the literature	37	9.54	2.97			

P>0.05.

Table 6. t Test results relating to "neurotic tendencies" level of individuals in terms of variance in attention given to literature.

Variable	N	\bar{X}	S	Sd	t	P
People are interested in the literature	121	10.24	3.74	156	0.686	0.872
People are not interested in the literature	37	10.72	3.71			

P>0.05.

Table 7. t Test results relating to "psychotic symptoms" which is seen in terms of variance in attention given to literature.

Variable	N	\bar{X}	S	Sd	t	P
People are interested in the literature	121	9.25	3.52			
People are not interested in the literature	37	9.18	3.29	156	0.103	0.580

P>0.05.

Table 8. t Test results relating to "family relationship" of the people in terms of variance attention to the literature.

Variable	N	\bar{X}	S	Sd	t	P
People are interested in the literature	121	13.81	4.29			
People are not interested in the literature	37	14.18	4.37	156	0.458	0.786

P>0.05.

Table 9. t Test results relating to "social relationship" of the people in terms of variance in attention given to literature.

Variable	N	\bar{X}	S	Sd	t	P
People are interested in the literature	121	12.71	3.73			
People are not interested in the literature	37	13.83	16.81	156	0.683	0.022

P<0.05.

Table 10. t Test results relating to "social norms" of the people in terms of variance in attention given to literature.

Variable	N	\bar{X}	S	Sd	t	P
People are interested in the literature	121	12.76	2.73			
People are not interested in the literature	37	12.70	2.86	156	0.127	0.819

P>0.05.

Table 11. t Test results relating to "anti-social tendency" of the people in terms of variance in attention given to literature.

Variable	N	\bar{X}	S	Sd	t	P
People are interested in the literature	121	11.28	3.26			
People are not interested in the literature	37	11.72	3.17	156	0.735	0.569

P>0.05.

have to be taken in this direction.

Literature curriculum has to be overhauled in order to contribute to the personality development of people. The same measuring tool must be applied to the wide range of sampling, gender, age type of school etc. Thus, more detailed results will be obtained in these groups. Such a research can be performed with a larger sample group.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The author has not declared any conflicts of interest.

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Full Length Research Paper

Collaborative network management for enhancing quality education of primary schools

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This research aims to study the network and collaborative factors that enhance quality education of primary schools. Different methods were used in this research work: (1) Related approaches, theories, and research literatures and (2) Scholars were interviewed on 871 issues in the form of questionnaire, and the collaborative network factors were verified by 10 experts. Confirmative factor analysis was used for the data analysis. Findings revealed that there were 8 major network factors: (1) reciprocal interaction; (2) common vision; (3) participation; (4) trustworthiness; (5) common awareness development; (6) commitment development; (7) common activity participation, and (8) common decision making. These will be used by educators for planning and collaborative network management in schools.

Key words: Primary school, collaborative network, factors analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Quality education can be achieved in schools by giving students equal opportunity to learn, and ensuring every aspect or sector of a society participates in educational management (Office of Education Commission, 2009). Every sector in the society should strive for quality education collectively, because knowledge, which is dynamic, will lead to complex condition that is related and connected in various dimensions especially socially and economically (Kirirat, 2009). Continuous quality education is a process that could be implemented by schools through interesting approaches and extensive acceptance; for instance, development process involving the use of information intelligently, knowledge management,

development of learning network, and utilization of evaluative findings. These approaches are used in work to develop continuous quality education in school, and not to increase one's work load. They can promote and support schools' system or developmental technique for continuity and sustainability (Office of Basic Education Commission, 2010).

One of the approaches, group work, which causes group success through collaboration, is an important factor for school success (Luthans, 2002). According to research studies, collaboration does not only lead to successful work, but also leads to successful working group such as educational reform, learning reform, and

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teachers' development (O'shea and O'shea, 1997; Southworth, 2000). Consequently, it is necessary to develop collaboration in a person, group, and an organization. Mathews (1996) suggested that this approach promotes the strength of community for development, provides good infrastructure, creates opportunity for meeting place to share and learn together; it promotes cohesion among different divisions, and participation potentiality of community. In addition, Anthony (1978) concluded that the utilization of participatory management would lead to the readiness for potential change, trustworthiness for administrative division in higher level. When employees participate in decision making with administrative division, staff management becomes easier. Since participation management causes employees to accept potential change, administrative decision making would be better. When many persons collaborate or agree on an issue, it becomes easier and they are more careful. A good communication is from bottom- up. Network practice used in problem solving is another alternative which is very important (Kreu-tep, 2014).

The development of collaborative network should be based on the following: love, participation behavior, shared learning, soul and spirit, natural leadership quality, participatory work, assigned work, and shared knowledge. Collaborative role should be extended from educational collaboration to collaboration in developing the strength of other aspects especially in Basic Education Institution. It should organize a person, group, work unit or organization interested in participating or working together under decentralization rationale. This also applies to school administrators, educational leaders so that schools can suitably provide educational management, smooth administration and management (Dul-ya-ka-sem and Ngam-wittaya-pong, 1997). Furthermore, the major factor of collaborative network should be considered including members' participation, shared learning, shared benefit, and common interest (Charoenwongsak, 2002; Metkarunchit, 2004; Suwan-acha-riya, 2006; Greenberg and Baron, 2008). Kangpeng (2010; 2014) indicated the efficiency of collaborative work which makes organizations efficient in solving problem. Walker et al. (2011) stated that administrators should take this issue seriously. Besides, the implementation of multi- alliance work is not only the responsibility of the public sector or private sector only. Work implementation is different from the past. It starts with network establishment, investigation, follow- up, and solving of problems. Network structure, implementation, and problem solving change; they are not a stable pattern. Learning network involves participating in problem solving process or searching for developmental guidelines by using collaborative working rationale and mechanism in searching for solution that can lead to useful knowledge for quality education development congruently with the need of primary schools.

Objective

This work aims to study the factor of collaborative network management for enhancing the quality education of primary schools.

METHODOLOGY

The procedural study was conducted using the following steps: 1) theoretical approaches and related research literatures were studied from documents, textbooks, articles, and research studies both inside and outside of the country, and 2) an in-depth interview of 10 experts about network factors as well as collaborative factors and sub-factors. The instrument used for data collection included: (1) confirmative factor of collaborative network by experts, and (2) confirmative factor analysis. Data were analyzed by classifying the interview data into different issues and groups.

FINDINGS

The research findings are as follows:

The collaborative network management consists of 8 factors as follows:

1. Major factor 1: it includes reciprocal interaction with network members who participated in different activities together; they communicated through writing, talking, sharing one's opinion, and conferences. It has 4 sub-factors as follows:

1.1 Sub-factor 1: Effective communication consisting of 5 indicators: (1) accurate, clear, and straightforward communication, (2) competency in communicating information and news to be understood and practiced by other persons, (3) establishment of good communication culture in network, (4) ability to communicate directly, speak and express oneself with politeness, and good verbal behavior, and (5) flexibility and competency in using various communication levels.

1.2 Sub-factor 2: Care and support consist of 5 indicators as follows: (1) ability to care for other network members, (2) showing love and mercy to other network members, (3) being creative, paying attention, and caring for network members, (4) competency in perceiving other members' feeling, and viewpoint, and (5) giving attention to members, caring for them, and developing them morally.

1.3 Sub-factor 3: Shared learning consisting of 7 indicators as follows: (1) continuous shared learning in the network, (2) continuous development of skill, behavior, attitude, and strength development in the network, (3) continuous sharing and experience, (4) construction of a new body of knowledge for using thinking principle, academic principle, and practice principle that moves the network forward, (5) teaching work among network members, (6) learning facilitation by

promoting positive interaction with network members, and (7) reflection of success in overall work practice in the network.

1.4 Sub-factor 4: Conference/seminar consisting of 4 indicators as follows: 1) emphasis on good relationship, 2) determination of common agreement, 3) attention in working together, and 4) clear objective and planning.

2. Major factor 2: Common vision referring to the overall view of future network goal, perception, and understanding of the same direction consists of 4 sub-factors:

2.1 Sub-factor 1: common vision consists of 10 indicators as follows: (1) repeated or frequent communication of vision as much as possible, (2) communication competency in congruence with network members' responsibility, (3) every member's participation in effecting changes to obtain the network vision, (4) individual's vision adjustment to network vision, (5) the network members' acceptance of their vision, (6) competency in explaining and persuading members to understand and accept the constructed vision, (7) continuous and regular communication, (8) appropriate recruitment of network members based on their knowledge and competency, and willingness to work to accomplish the specified vision, (9) trustworthiness in members' competency, and (10) each member being determined to achieve the network vision.

2.2 Sub-factor 2: Vision communication consists of 6 indicators as follows: (1) usage of specific or comprehensible words, (2) testing other persons' understanding by observing individual's behavior, (3) dissemination of vision for every network member to agree and be willing to participate in activities for accomplishing that vision, (4) appropriate communication of language, (5) development of acceptance and sense of belonging for every network member, and (6) responsibility and support for making the network vision come true.

2.3 Sub-factor 3: Dissemination of vision consists of 2 indicators as follows: 1) small group conference through a two way communication which involves summarizing the document size that indicates the network vision, and 2) promotion of working skill.

2.4 Sub-factor 4: Energetic development consists of 7 indicators as follows: (1) the developing working enthusiasm in members by acting as role models, (2) building trust in every member, (3) careful data collection and study for decision making without error or mistake, (4) development of good team work in members, (6) competency in developing affiliation or attachment in members, and (7) encouraging members to work as a team.

3. Major factor 3: Participation, involving acceptance of

the terms of the network to be part of it as well as participative thinking and decision making, consists of 4 sub-factors as follows:

3.1 Sub-factor 1: The need for change consists of 4 indicators as follows: (1) need for self-reliant and participation in network development, (2) competency in utilizing members' potentiality, (3) readiness for potential change, and (4) competency in communicating with understanding which leads to attachment or affiliation in the network.

3.2 Sub-factor 2: Awareness consists of 10 indicators as follows: the whole practice of network, (2) selection of appropriate technique, (3) and appropriate practice, (4) practice focusing on morality, religion, and ethics in order to maintain social life order, (5) conduct based on good tradition, (6) practice involving emotion and affiliation in the network, (7) development of learning process, and participative decision making among network members, (8) expression of thought and feeling to participate in network, unity, and collaboration among different divisions in the network, (9) good attitude towards work as well as work satisfaction, and (10) collective expression.

3.3 Sub-factor 3: The meeting and sharing places consist of 4 indicators as follows: (1) opportunity and place of meeting as well as sharing of learning, (2) information and news sharing with each other, (3) the development of commitment to network among network members, and (4) the acceptance of one another's opinion.

3.4 Sub-factor 4: Goal setting consists of 5 indicators as follows: (1) participation in decision making, (2) super ordinates' acceptance of opinion and suggestion provided by the sub-ordinates and giving them opportunity to discuss their problem, (3) network members' leader and leadership, (4) appropriate motivation for members, and (5) good relationship between the administrators and network members.

4. Major factor 4: Trustworthiness referring to a person's behavior to another person or groups expressed verbally, in action, commitment, statement or decision making to act openly consists of 4 sub-factors:

4.1 Sub-factor 1: Trustworthiness or sincerity consists of 8 indicators as follows: (1) confidence and trustworthiness in network members, (2) revelation of important information for network members, (3) competency in developing trustworthiness in network members to conform willingly, (4) trustful rationale, ability to suggest, and willingness to help, (5) empathy, and development in attachment for work in network, (6) ability to cooperate, be opened, and listen to other network members' opinion, (7) promise keeping, being bold to achieve success in work, (8) consistent maintenance of trustworthiness through word and action.

4.2 Sub-factor 2: Honesty consists of 3 indicators as

follows: sincerity, 2) honesty, and 3) trustworthiness.

4.3 Sub-factor 3: Familiarity/openness consists of 3 indicators as follows: (1) development of feeling/familiarity, (2) development of relationship in useful service, and (3) competency to develop friendship based on respect and appreciation of truth as well as joyfulness.

4.4 Sub-factor 4: Trustworthiness consists of 4 indicators as follows: (1) confidentiality for network members, (2) word keeping, (3) trustworthiness in network members as role model, and (4) highest trustworthiness.

5. Major factor 5: Development of common vision in synergy by being aware that one can work successfully in the network, and the body of knowledge obtained by work practice in the network includes 3 sub-factors as follows:

5.1 Sub-factor 1: Synergy consists of 4 indicators as follows: (1) Unity caused by the network members' collaboration, (2) competency to work with members successfully, (3) competency to develop collaborative network by people who know how to do something, and 4) confidence and competency to work by collaborating with network members.

5.2 Sub-factor 2: Common awareness consists of 4 indicators as follows: (1) common awareness of work practice in the network, (2) common awareness of network collaboration for success, (3) confidence in network collaboration for success, and 4) confidence and competency to work by collaborating with network members to achieve collective success.

5.3 Sub-factor 3: The pride factor consists of 3 indicators as follows: (1) ability to develop a body of knowledge through work practice in the network, (2) feeling that one's performance is a part of the network performance, and (3) the feeling that one's own performance leads to the network or team's success.

6. Major factor 6: Development of commitment including the need and search for new approach to work, commitment, relationship between network, unity, equality and support, dedication, and persistence to work consists of 4 sub-factors as follows:

6.1 Sub-factor 1: necessity consists of 5 indicators as follows: (1) awareness of necessity, burden, and duty, (2) attachment closely to work and network, (3) enthusiasm for self-development, (4) ability to use one's power to work creatively in a short time without spending whole power to work, and (5) creativity in searching for new way to work or learn new innovation from network members.

6.2 Sub-factor 2: Responsibility consists of 5 indicators as follows: (1) the sense of one's burden and duty to work, (2) sense of belonging in the network, (3) honesty and dedication to one's duty, (4) attempt to search for resource or opportunity for the network's benefit, and 5) pleasure to work and develop oneself for the success of the network.

6.3 Sub-factor 3: Commitment consists of 3 indicators as follows: (1) commitment, contract, and surrounding were the network commitment, (2) pleasure to work in network, and (3) ability to develop one's own work and network to be successful.

6.4 Sub-factor 4: Unity consists of 6 indicators as follows: (1) learning from one's collaborative thinking and practice by network members, (2) relationship between network members' alliance to develop unity, equality, and support, (3) actively involved in self-development, (4) persistence to work, having a feeling of being a part of the network or teamwork, (5) ability to adjust oneself to changing situation of the network, and 6) ability to collaborate with network members happily.

7. Major factor 7: Participation in activity including implementation based on specified plan, evaluation of outcome and impact consists of 2 sub-factors as follows:

7.1 Sub-factor 1: Implementation consists of 2 indicators as follows: (1) work plan implementation or work assignment according to specified plans or goals, and (2) implementation of goal accomplishment.

7.2 Sub-factor 2: participative evaluation consists of 2 indicators as follows: (1) investigation of work plan progress, and (2) evaluation of outcome or impact.

8. Major factor 8: Common decision making including classification of work practice delimitation, and decision making to solve problem from working together consists of 2 sub-factors as follows:

8.1. Sub-factor 1: Participating in determining one's role and duty consists of 4 indicators as follows: (1) participation in determining one's role and duty in the network, (2) determination of work practice delimitation in the network, (3) one's responsibility in the network, and (4) responsibility in outcome caused by work practice in the network.

8.2 Sub-factor 2: Common decision making consists of 3 indicators as follows: (1) decision making based on general agreement, (2) participation in network decision making, and (3) consensus decision making.

Each expert's interview analysis findings are shown in Table 1. In Table 1, the analysis of second-order confirmative factor of collaborative network management for enhancing quality education showed that when the congruence of model was adjusted, there was congruence with empirical data as Chi-square value was = 78.79, not significant. P value was = .27283, a specified criterion from .05 upward. The values of goodness of fit indicator (GFI) and adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) were = .99 and .98 respectively based on a specified criterion from .90 upward. The root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) was = .010 in which the acceptance level was less than 0.08. In addition, the CN

Table 1. Collaborative network management indicators for enhancing the educational quality.

Indicator	Factor loading b (SE)	Predictive coefficient (R ²)	Factor score coefficient (FS)	Error of indicator (e)
<u>First Order Model</u>				
1. Reciprocal Interaction	0.82** (0.07)	0.67	-	-
Effective communication	0.52** (0.02)	0.68	0.29	0.09
Care/support	0.56** (0.05)	0.70	0.24	0.09
Shared learning	0.30** (0.03)	0.46	0.19	0.08
Conference/seminar	0.38** (0.03)	0.56	0.16	0.10
2. Common Vision	0.86** (0.04)	0.72	-	-
Common vision development	0.59** (0.05)	0.75	0.37	0.19
Vision communication	0.35** (0.03)	0.59	0.29	0.10
Vision dissemination	0.58** (0.03)	0.74	0.61	0.07
Energetic development	0.43** (0.01)	0.65	0.23	0.09
3. Participation	0.85** (0.04)	0.71	-	-
Need for changing	0.60** (0.01)	0.76	0.35	0.09
Awareness	0.61** (0.02)	0.79	0.34	0.13
Meeting and sharing place	0.46** (0.01)	0.62	0.34	0.06
Goal setting	0.43** (0.02)	0.50	0.20	0.09
4. Trustworthiness	0.87** (0.03)	0.76	-	-
Trustworthiness and sincerity	0.57** (0.01)	0.73	0.21	0.08
Sincerity	0.57** (0.01)	0.72	0.30	0.05
Honesty	0.42** (0.02)	0.40	0.25	0.03
Be reliable	0.55** (0.02)	0.70	0.35	0.07
5. Common awareness development	0.83** (0.03)	0.69	-	-
Collaboration	0.57** (0.01)	0.71	0.28	0.06
Common awareness	0.50** (0.01)	0.63	21	0.08
Be proud	0.57** (0.01)	0.72	0.30	0.05
6. Commitment development	0.81** (0.04)	0.66	-	-
Necessity	0.60** (0.01)	0.76	0.27	0.05
Responsibility	0.61** (0.02)	0.78	0.25	0.10
Commitment	0.46** (0.01)	0.62	0.19	0.06
Unity	0.43** (0.02)	0.50	0.16	0.05
7. Participative activity	0.81** (0.05)	0.66	-	-
Participative implementation	0.52** (0.02)	0.70	0.29	0.12
Participative evaluation	0.30** (0.03)	0.46	0.24	0.10
8. Participative decision making	0.80** (0.02)	0.64	-	-
Participation in role and duty determination	38** (0.03)	60	0.17	0.05
Participative decision making	0.56** (0.05)	70	0.18	0.06

**P < .01; Chi-square = 78.79; df = 72; p = .27283; GFI = 0.99; AGFI = 0.98; RMSEA = 0.010.

was = 1135.01; the acceptance level was more than or equal to 200, indicating that the research model was congruent with empirical data as shown in Figure 1.

DISCUSSION

The collaborative network management for enhancing the quality education of primary schools consists of 8 factors as follows: trustworthiness, common vision, participation, common awareness development, reciprocal interaction,

commitment development, common activity practice, and common decision making. It is noticeable that the factors' loadings are from high to low as follows: trustworthiness had the highest factor loading of 0.87; common vision, 0.86; common awareness development, 0.83; reciprocal interaction, 0.82; commitment development, 0.81; common practice development, 0.81; common decision making, 0.80 respectively. The research findings indicated that the experts gave importance to trust-worthiness probably because it is the the key or foundation of team work in which many

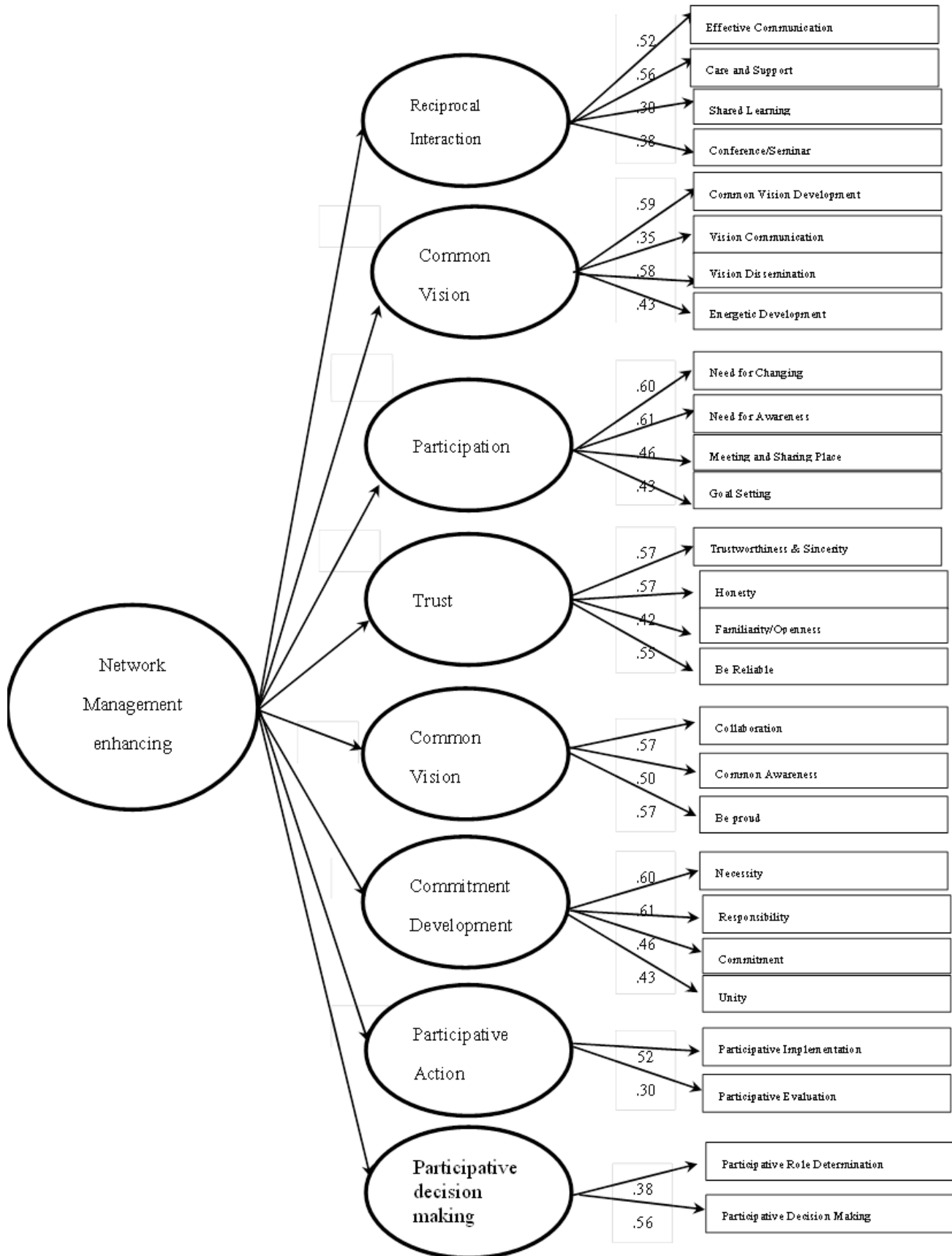


Figure 1. Network management factors.

organizations try to develop team work and encourage collaborative work for work success (Hadjikhani and Thilenius 2005; Moorman et al., 1992; Nlijhuis, 2007). The factors of collaborative network management were congruent with rationales, approaches, and research literatures as follows:

1. Reciprocal interaction consists of 4 sub-factors: Effective communication, caring and facilitating, shared learning and conference/seminar. Charoenwongsak (2002) noticed that interaction needs to be practiced by network members. The network members have to participate in activity in order to develop interaction among themselves. This is supported by Holland and Baird (1968), Wiemann and Backlund' (1980) who stated interaction among members leads to care, flexibility, interaction management, and communication competency. Spizverg (2002), on the development of interpersonal competence theory based on intellectual context, found that competency in interpersonal interaction consisted of communication and verbal competency.

2. Common vision consists of 4 sub-factors: Common vision development, vision communication, vision dissemination, and enthusiasm development. Zimmerman and Tregoe (1997) suggested 5 basic principles of effective vision communication as follows: usage of common language, and understanding of other people's behavior. Ellis and Joslin (1990) viewed that vision development was not as important as an organization's competency to disseminate vision to every member to agree and be willing to participate in various activities in order to accomplish their vision.

3. Participation consists of 4 sub-factors: The need for change, awareness, meeting and sharing places, and goal setting. Walaisatien (2005) said that the need for change and changing direction with common awareness are practiced by a group or on behalf of a group. These behaviors and situations might be understood by one's intelligence based on different approaches, theories, high level of objective, or leaders' value. In other words, some actions might be caused by stimulation. To understand stimulation, one needs to explain the real cause of action because stimulation would be in the actor's deep part of mind.

For the observer, stimulation would be the only appropriate foundation for studying one's behavior. Keith (2011), Judith (1999), and Swansberg (1996) pointed that the significance or usefulness of participation causes one to listen to other people's opinion, leads to high level of trustworthiness, work satisfaction, self-confidence, commitment to organization, and unity. Participation makes everyone or different units to accept changes, obtain new ideas which would be more useful for work development.

4. Trustworthiness consists of 4 sub-factors: Trustworthiness and sincerity, honesty, familiarity/

openness, and reliability. Decharin (2004) viewed that it is our trust on other that would make them behave honestly without taking advantage of us. Keyuranon (2009) stated that every one of us needs to have a reliable friend we meet for counseling; one who would support us throughout whether we are happy or unhappy; one who would help us when we have problem. It is necessary to develop trustworthiness in oneself to make one reliable and know how to rely on others. This will make one happy and successful in life as well as work. Lvinger and Snoek (1972) simulated the ABCDE Steps as: feeling/familiarity (Acquaintance), customers being satisfied with an organization's service, based on first impression. In building up step, if customers use an item or service, their being satisfied or not would depend on an organization's development of first impression. In the acquaintance step, familiarity is made continuously. If customers are not satisfied with an item or service, they would stop using it immediately. This is supported by the findings of Hadjikhani and Thilenius (2005), Moorman (1992), and Ndubisi (2007) that trustworthiness is very important in creating and developing customers' loyalty, trustworthiness and confidence and transferring service quality into the organization.

5. Development of common awareness consists of 3 sub-factors: Collaborated energy, common awareness, and pride. Niraton (2009) stated that the necessity in developing the network is the fact that work practitioners or managers would participate in an organization, would gain or be useful in the network. These might change when the working duration is for a period of time. This was supported by research findings of A-pak-ro (2004) that awareness and network building is a very important step since it is the starting point of a group energy as well as network for managing a situation. The network members and related persons in network development have to understand this step in order to promote self-development in the network appropriately. Schwartz (1995), Cramer (1998), Haskins (1998), and Russell (2002) suggested the power of community collaboration where members would be able to develop a body of knowledge caused by work practice in that community. The awareness is having an attitude similar to one's perception of one's worth.

6. Commitment development consists of 3 sub-factors: necessity, responsibility, commitment, and unity. Tieng-burana-dharma (1998) stated that there were necessity, responsibility, duty, commitment, and contract. Haskins (1998) suggested the approach of participation that the organization would be successful when people have close attachment with each other and their organization. People in organization have to be energetic in self-development and occupational development, dedicated to work, have sense of belonging in organization or team work, be honest and persistent in work. Creativity is used in searching for new way of working or learn new innovation from co-workers. This was supported by

research findings of Quicke (2000) that people would be pleased to work and develop their work and organization; they can adjust themselves to the changing situation of their organization through collaboration or people can collaborate with each other happily.

7. Collaborative participation in activity consists of 2 sub-factors: Participative implementation and evaluation. Erawan (2011) suggested the process of school development based on step 3 of developed program: objective of using the developed program in teacher empowerment includes: (1) group of transformation leaders that collaborated in planning and (2) collaborative implementation of specified plan. Cohen and Uphoff (1980) stated that participation in decision making does not refer to decision making only, but also decision making based on action. Participation in practice consists of the support of resource as well as service and request for cooperation. Shaffer (1992) specified activity of participatory process which could be applied in context of educational management as follows: practice following the work plan, investigation of work plan progress, and 3) evaluation of outcome and impact. This is supported by the research findings of Graham and Wright (1999) that collaborative work consists of participation in planning and sharing activity, and the accomplishment of the activity.

8. Common decision making consists of 2 sub-factors: Collaborative determination in role and duty, and collaborative decision making. Chansiri (2011) gave importance to the development of working climate or creating a supportive environment; this consisted of promotion of working climate in acceptance, recognition, and rewarding, efficient team working, support for team work in determining and finding the necessary resource for accomplishing the team goal, being the coach and trainers for team members intentionally and patiently. For team building, it was the first step for different work projects, duty and responsibility of managers or team leaders who are determined to achieve their goals using informal communication as well as listening to feedback, being attentive to other people's feeling, and having close relationship with others. Cohen and Uphoff (1988) stated their participation in decision making does not mean the decision making only, but is also based on action. Besides, it relates to peoples' benefit as well as evaluation in development activity. Decision making is almost related directly to practice as well as benefit and evaluation. The benefit is caused by decision making. Sood and Pattison (2012) pointed that social communication in F2F on Facebook, Twitter, Google Plus, LinkedIn, and You Tube, can increasingly help society in online communication. There are many kinds of activities including returned interaction, information service, adjustment, and intensive data. In addition, social media is used for sending signal and information and online conversation.

According to the research findings, it can be concluded that every factor of collaborative network management had the highest value of factor loading. It is congruent with the above rationales, approaches, theories, and related research literatures.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

An investigation of lexical progress of teaching foreign languages (TFL) learners in terms of part-of-speech

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In the related literature, it has been discussed that issues related to foreign language lexicon have been ignored; therefore, a solid theory of foreign language lexicon has not been constructed yet. In the framework of Turkish as a foreign language, the literature lacks both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. To this end, this longitudinal study tries to find out the lexical progress of learners of Turkish as a foreign language. 20 teaching foreign languages (TFL) learners from a variety of nationalities participated in the study which lasted about a year. The participants started at A1 level of language proficiency and were certificated with C1 proficiency level. The learners were asked to write compositions at two-month intervals. The topics for the compositions were chosen from the Common European Framework of Reference. The compositions were analyzed and the word contents were categorized based on their part-of-speech as verbs, nouns, interjections, adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions and pronouns. Each category was converted into ratios taking into account the total tokens in each composition. As the measures were taken from the same group at different intervals, Friedman's test was used. The results revealed that, among the part-of-speech categories, the ratio of nouns to the total tokens in the compositions decreased significantly while the ratio of verbs increased. In addition, there were statistically significant differences in the ratios of all the other part-of-speech categories.

Key words: Turkish as a foreign language, foreign language writing, part-of-speech, interlanguage.

INTRODUCTION

Any foreign language that is studied resembles a system and this system is generally known as interlanguage. Learners of Turkish as a foreign language (henceforth TFL) also create interlanguages for the Turkish language and these interlanguages involve aspects of the structures available in Turkish. The term interlanguage was coined by Larry Selinker in 1972 and it refers to an interim stage in which language learners are close to the

language that they are trying to learn and not far away from their native language. This stage is often referred to as a system on its own and Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005:54) describe this stage as follows:

A learner's interlanguage:

1. knowledge constitutes a system;

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2. consists primarily of implicit linguistic knowledge;
3. is permeable;
4. is transitional;
5. is variable;
6. is the product of multiple interacting factors, and
7. may fossilize.

Interlanguage is a system on its own, therefore problems that emerge during this stage are different from that of the first and the target language. From this point of view, Hinkel (2005:617) establishes micro and macro differences between first language (henceforth L1) and the target language (henceforth L2) writing. Textual features refer to those with a function of marking discourse organization and aiding the development of cohesion and coherence, and the macro features are global aspects of texts such as discourse construction, arrangements of ideas, cohesion, and coherence.

These micro and macro features of interlanguage are critical in terms of language pedagogy because without a clear understanding of these features, what language practitioners do in their teaching will go no further than intuition.

There have been numerous studies concerning different aspects of L2 writing. Unfortunately, most of these studies are predominantly related to learning English as a foreign or second language (Reichelt, 1999), and it has been discussed that two stances have been taken in terms of the nature of L2 written productions. The first stance sees L2 writing as a system on its own. For example, in a meta-analysis, Silva (1993) analyzed 72 reports that involve a direct comparison of L1 and L2 compositions, and the participants were from different language backgrounds such as Arabic, Chinese, Japanese and Spanish as L1s. The comparisons were based on fluency, accuracy, quality, structure, morphosyntactic/stylistic and lexicosemantic features. According to the results L2 writing is different from and less effective than L1 writing. L2 compositions appear to be more constrained, more difficult and less effective. L2 writers appeared to be doing less planning and having problems with setting goals, as well as generating and organizing materials. Their transcribing was more laborious, less fluent, and less productive. Reviewing, rereading and reflecting were less common, but they revised more. Naturally, they were less fluent and less accurate. In terms of lower-level linguistic concerns, L2 writers' texts were stylistically distinct and simpler in structure. Their sentences included more but shorter t-units, fewer but longer clauses, more coordination, less subordination, less noun modification, and less passivation (Ünalı and Kırkgöz, 2011).

The second point of view sees L2 written production as a process through which L2 writers transfer their L1 writing habits or strategies into the target language. According to Matsumoto (1995), for example, "L2 research paper writing process is perceived as virtually

equivalent to their L1 counterpart, which suggests that already existing L1 writing strategies transfer to L2 writing." (p. 17). It has also been put forward that writing in general has nonlinguistic and cognitive-strategic aspects that, when missing, lead to ineffective written productions (Taylor, 1981).

The findings of numerous studies actually are more in line with the first stance mentioned above. Naturally, to find clear evidence to back up this stance, L2 writers from different L1 backgrounds must be compared. With this motive, Hinkel (2001) compared native English speakers with speakers of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, and Indonesian in terms of the frequency rates of overt exemplification markers in essay texts, listed in full, (as) *an example, for example, for instance, in (my/our/his/her/their) example, like, mainly, namely, such as ..., that is (to say)*. 1,087 essays were analyzed, and the analysis showed that, compared to the native speakers, nonnative speakers employed more example markers (conjunctions), first person pronouns, and past tense verbs in their academic texts. The overuse of personal pronouns at this point is noteworthy; Biber (1995), after the analyses of large English-language corpora, points out those first person pronouns serve as markers of interpersonal discourse and direct involvement of the writer, and they are usually more characteristic of spoken rather than written registers. From Hvitfeldt's (1992) pragmatic point of view, the idea of truth results from everyday experience, and personal examples can be just as valid as the information obtained from literary sources, which may be why language learners make use of personal pronouns more than necessary to consolidate their *truths*. In line with this insight Hinkel (2001) concludes that speakers of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, and Indonesian who have completed their training in ESL and writing courses rely on accounts of personal experiences and stories as a means of thesis support in formal essays significantly more frequently than native speaking students do.

In another similar study Hinkel (2002) analyzed 68 lexical, syntactic and rhetorical features of texts written in a foreign language. The participants were advanced learners of English from six different first language backgrounds: Arabic, Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese, Korean and Vietnamese. Hinkel stated that, even after years of study in English, language learners still lack some aspects of the target language that native speakers have. The results of this study indicate that L2 writers have a limited lexical and syntactic repertoire. This led the learners to produce simplistic texts which are rooted in conversational discourse in English language. The results reveal that there appears to be a big gap between L1 and L2 texts in terms of basic academic writing. The summary of the results of this study is presented as follows (Hinkel, 2002:530).

Micro features of L2 writing: compared to L1 prose, L2 texts:

1. exhibit less lexical variety and sophistication;
2. contain significantly fewer idiomatic and collocational expressions;
3. have smaller lexical density and lexical specificity, and more frequent vocabulary misuses;
4. rely on shorter sentences and clauses (aka T-units) with fewer words per clause and fewer words (e.g., nouns and modifiers) per verb;
5. involve high rates of incomplete or inaccurate sentences (e.g., missing sentence subjects or verbs, incomplete verb phrases, sentence fragments);
6. repeat content words more often (that is, nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs);
7. provide twice as many simple paraphrases or avoid paraphrasing altogether with a preponderance of referential pronouns (e.g., *this, that, it*);
8. use shorter words (fewer words with two or more syllables), more conversational and high frequency words (e.g., *good, bad, ask, talk*);
9. incorporate fewer modifying and descriptive prepositional phrases, as well as a higher rate of misused prepositions;
10. employ less subordination and two to three times more coordination.

L2 texts also employ 11 fewer passive constructions:

1. fewer lexical (e.g., adjectives and adverbs) and syntactic modifiers (e.g., subordinate clauses) of sentences, nouns, and verbs;
2. inconsistent uses of verb tenses;
3. more emotive and private verbs (e.g., *believe, feel, think*);
4. significantly higher rates of personal pronouns (e.g., *I, we, he*) and lower rates of impersonal/referential pronouns (e.g., *it, this, one*);
5. markedly fewer of abstract and interpretive nouns, and nominalizations (e.g., *rotation, cognition, analysis*);
6. fewer adverbial modifiers and adverbial clauses;
7. fewer epistemic and possibility hedges (e.g., *apparently, perhaps*) and more conversational hedges (e.g., *sort of, in a way*);
8. more conversational intensifiers, emphatics, exaggeratives, and overstatements (e.g., *totally, always, huge, for sure*);
9. fewer downtoners (e.g., *almost, hardly*);
10. more lexical softening devices (e.g., *maybe*).

These features are apparently related to learners of English as a foreign language, and we need to see these aspects for other foreign languages, and in our case the same framework that has been mentioned so far is applied to the TFL context. Although the number of TFL learners has been on a steady rise, the number of studies concerning these learners are surprisingly low (Göçer and Moğul, 2011). What makes studies concerning

Turkish might be that the Turkish language is classified as an agglutinative language (Elder and Davies, 1998). In agglutinative languages, words are made up of a linear arrangement of different morphemes; morphemes *glue together* with a high rate of affixation and a relatively low level of irregularity.

There are certain problems in TFL contexts because several aspects of the process such as the native languages of learners, their ages, and their sociocultural backgrounds are disregarded. In addition to these, the use of out-of-date methods and materials is another factor affecting the learning/teaching process negatively. According to Alyılmaz (2010:729) people in Turkey, even after years of study from primary school to higher education in their native language, cannot reach to an ability to make effective use of their native language, and when the issue is TFL, it is a fact that a satisfactory level has not been reached yet. Moreover, its script, and several idiosyncrasies available in the Turkish language make it a difficult language to master (Er et al., 2012).

In terms of function/content word distinction, Turkish is not different from other languages. Content words are nouns and verbs, and function words are postpositions, conjunctions and interjections. Content words have meanings on their own while function words are meaningless as such words gain meaning in sentences. However, like in many languages, in Turkish there are transitions among different types of words. For example, in the following sentence 'Kırmızıyı çok severim.' (*I love red very much.*) kırmızı (*red*) is a noun while in this sentence 'Kırmızı kazağımı çok severim.' (*I love my red jumper very much.*) the same word kırmızı is an adjective. While the meaning of the word stays the same, because of the context in which it is being used, its type changes from noun to adjective (Korkmaz, 2009).

From a pedagogical point of view, according to the Common European Framework of Reference (henceforth CEFR), there are three main proficiency levels for foreign languages in general namely, the basic level as A1 (Breakthrough) and A2 (Waystage); the independent level as B1 (Threshold) and B2 (vantage) and the proficient level as C1 (Effective Operational proficiency) and C2 (Mastery) (MEB, 2013).

The focus of the current study is the lexical development of TFL learners in terms of word types or part-of-speech; that is, our main concern is to see the changes of word type ratios in TFL learners' written texts across proficiency levels. For these learners, the most important factor affecting the part-of-speech ratios in written production might be related to the learning outcomes for their proficiency levels and their lexicon to be used to reflect these outcomes. At A1 level of proficiency, for example, concrete needs of the learners are at the center. Therefore, introducing oneself and others, the place of living, the things owned and the acquaintances are all related to this level of language

proficiency. At A2 level, a language learner is supposed to provide and understand information related to family, shopping, work and close environment (MEB, 2013).

According to CEFR, depending on their language proficiency levels, expectations from language learners in terms of written register are gradual and varies as follows:

A1 Can write simple isolated phrases and sentences.

A2 Can write a series of simple phrases and sentences linked with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'.

B1 Can write straightforward connected texts on a range of familiar subjects within his field of interest, by linking a series of shorter discrete elements into a linear sequence.

B2 Can write clear, detailed texts on a variety of subjects related to his/her field of interest, synthesizing and evaluating information and arguments from a number of sources.

C1 Can write clear, well-structured texts of complex subjects, underlining the relevant salient issues, expanding and supporting points of view at some length with subsidiary points, reasons and relevant examples, and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.

C2 Can write clear, smoothly flowing, complex texts in an appropriate and effective style and a logical structure which helps the reader to find significant points (Council of Europe, 2001).

When these learning outcomes are analyzed, we can see that what is expected from learners is, as they move forward in terms of proficiency level, to be able to write compositions involving some kind of variety moving from concrete to abstract.

Language learners' written productions have been studied from various aspects. However, although it has been long known that the most serious errors for the language learner are related to the target lexicon and they outnumber any other type of error (Politzer, 1978: 257), lexical features of language learner productions, either spoken or written, have been ignored for a long time (Meara, 2002). In addition to this, the related literature lacks studies concerning the types of part of speech in language learners' productions, and when the topic is learners of Turkish as a foreign language, the related literature is definitely nonexistent. As was mentioned before, studies concerning L2 written productions have been predominantly related to teaching and learning the English language, and more studies concerning L2 written productions in languages other than English are needed to fill this gap. Therefore, the current study tries to answer the following research questions:

Research question 1: What are the ratios of types of part

of speech to the total number of words used in compositions written by learners of Turkish as a foreign language at different proficiency levels?

Research question 2: Do the ratios of types of part of speech to the total number of words used in compositions written by learners of Turkish as a foreign language change significantly from A1 to C1 proficiency levels?

METHODS

In the current study, within a scientific survey model, content analysis technique was used. The basic aim in content analysis is to reach concepts and relationships which will help the researcher to make interpretations concerning the data at hand. The primary focus in content analysis is to gather data with similar aspects together through the use of framework of certain concepts and themes and then to organize and interpret them so as to make them clear to the audience (Şimşek and Yıldırım, 2011:227).

Participants

20 TFL learners participated in the current study during the academic years 2014 to 2015. They started the TFL course at A1 and were certificated at C1 level of language proficiency. Demographic data related to the participants and their gender distributions are provided in Table 1.

Table 1 provides gender distributions of the participants. As can be shown in the table, 11 of the participants (55%) were females, and nine of them (45%) were males. In addition to gender distributions, nationalities of the participants can be examined in Table 2. The table provides demographic information concerning the nationalities of the participants: Five of the participants are from Afghanistan, three of them from Kenya and Pakistan, and one from Chad, Palestine, Gambia, Ghana, Ruanda, Somali, Tunisia, and Zambia. In the following table, participants' total time spent in Turkey can be analyzed.

Information concerning how much time the participants spent in Turkey is provided in Table 3. In addition to the information provided in Table 3, it should be noted that all the participants arrived in Turkey around the same time and that the participants' periods of stay in Turkey are the same with their periods of TFL education. As for the academic levels of the participants, Table 4 can be checked.

Academic levels of the participants are given in Table 4. 15 of them (75%) are undergraduate students while four of them (20%) are graduate students, and one of the participants is a PhD student.

Data collection and analysis

Data were collected from compositions written by 20 TFL learners at one of the Turkish Teaching, Application and Research Center (TOMER) at a state university in Turkey. The compositions were written in examination settings and the following prompts were provided to the learners at A1, A2, B1, B2 and C1 levels. The prompts included the followings:

A1. Write a letter to your family (Where are you living right now? What kind of a place is it? What is in this place and around it?)

A2. A friend of yours is coming to visit you as your guest. How would you spend a day with him/her? Write a composition about it.

B1. Today, technology makes people's lives easier. How would our

Table 1. Gender distributions of the participants.

Gender		%
Female	11	55
Male	9	45
Total	20	100

Table 2. Nationalities of the participant.

Country	f	%
Afghanistan	5	25
Chad	1	5
Palestine	1	5
Gambia	1	5
Ghana	1	5
Kenya	3	15
Pakistan	3	15
Ruanda	1	5
Somali	1	5
Tunisia	2	10
Zambia	1	5
Total	20	100

Table 3. Total time spent in Turkey by the participants.

Proficiency level in Turkish	Total time of visit (months)
A1	0-2
A2	2-4
B1	4-6
B2	6-8
C1	8-10

Table 4. Academic levels of the participants.

Academic level	f	%
Undergraduate	15	75
Graduate	4	20
PhD	1	5
Total	20	100

life be if we did not have any technological devices like refrigerators, computers or cell phones? Write a composition to express your ideas about this matter.

B2. Write a composition about the pollution caused by technology today.

C1. It has been nine months since you have left your country. What has changed during this period? Write a composition about these changes.

The participants produced compositions by using the prompts given

above. The total number of words used in the compositions changed from A1 to C1 level of proficiency as was expected. Table 5 provides the mean number of words used in learners' compositions according to their proficiency levels.

The compositions written by the participants were analyzed in terms of parts of speech. All the parts of speech available in these written productions were converted into percentages by taking into account the total number of words in each composition. Then, the results were compared through the use of SPSS to see if there

Table 5. The mean number of words in the compositions across proficiency levels

Proficiency level	Mean number of words
A1	81.3
A2	122.6
B1	116.1
B2	133.8
C1	132.4

Table 6. Friedman test results concerning the ratios of nouns to the total number of words.

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean rank	X ²	DF	p
A1	20	52.34	9.59	4.10			
A2	20	42.92	6.48	2.50			
B1	20	48.81	7.70	3.23	31.29	4	0.00
B2	20	49.64	6.30	3.60			
C1	20	38.21	4.32	1.58			

Table 7. Friedman test results concerning the ratios of verbs to the total number of words.

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean rank	X ²	DF	p
A1	20	8.08	3.27	1.65			
A2	20	15.72	3.64	3.80			
B1	20	15.41	6.33	3.55	31.12	4	0.00
B2	20	11.23	3.84	2.25			
C1	20	15.25	5.82	3.75			

were any statistically significant differences. A non-parametric test was used because the number of the participants were relatively low ($n = 20$) and the data was not normally distributed. For these reasons, Friedman Test was used to measure the significance of the results obtained from the same study group in intervals (Field, 2009:573).

FINDINGS

Part of speech types available in the participants' written productions during examinations were analyzed, and total number of each part of speech type in a composition was compared to the total number of words in the same composition, after this process these ratios were compared among proficiency levels. These ratios and their comparisons across proficiency levels are analyzed in the following eight tables. First of all, the ratios of nouns to the number of the total words in each composition were examined and the results are exhibited in Table 6.

A quick look at Table 6 will reveal that the difference of the ratios of nouns to the total number of words from A1 to C1 proficiency level is statistically significant ($X^2_{df=4, N=20} = 31.29, p = 0.00 < 0.05$). While the ratio of nouns to the

total number of words is 52.34% at A1 proficiency level, this ratio appears as a decrease to 38.21% at C1. In addition, this decrease is stable throughout proficiency levels, which means that the ratio of nouns to the total number of words in learners' compositions decreases constantly at each proficiency level. The next aspect to be examined was the ratios of verbs to the total number of words in each composition, and Table 7 shows the related results.

Table 7 reveals the Friedman Test results about the ratios of verbs to the total number of words, and the difference of the ratios of verbs to the total number of words at A1 and C1 level appears to be statistically significant ($X^2_{df=4, N=20} = 31.12, p = 0.00 < 0.05$). It is clear that the ratio of verbs to the total number of words is 8.08% at A1 proficiency level and the same ratio is 15.25% at C1 with a considerable increase. An interesting point about this result is that, the ratios of nouns to the total number of words at A2, B1, B2 and C1 level are quite similar to each other as 15.72, 15.41, 11.23 and 15.25%, respectively. Next, the ratios of adjectives to the total number of words were analyzed as can be seen in Table 8.

Table 8. Friedman Test results concerning the ratios of adjectives to the total number of words

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean rank	X ²	DF	p
A1	20	14.26	5.74	3.30	10.20	4	0.04
A2	20	13.63	4.33	2.75			
B1	20	11.42	3.79	2.15			
B2	20	14.07	4.69	3.20			
C1	20	16.16	4.82	3.60			

Table 9. Friedman test results concerning the ratios of adverbs to the total number of words.

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean rank	X ²	DF	p
A1	20	8.28	5.32	2.70	21.60	4	0.00
A2	20	8.49	3.07	3.05			
B1	20	8.18	4.92	2.75			
B2	20	6.51	2.79	2.15			
C1	20	13.19	4.36	4.35			

Table 10. Friedman test results concerning the ratios of pronouns to the total number of words.

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean rank	X ²	DF	p
A1	20	9.58	4.57	3.65	37.08	4	.00
A2	20	10.26	4.01	4.40			
B1	20	3.99	2.69	1.80			
B2	20	4.43	2.56	2.10			
C1	20	6.56	3.08	3.05			

In Table 8, a difference of the ratios of adjectives to the total number of words at A1 and C1 level can be observed, and this difference is statistically significant ($X^2_{df=4, N=20} = 10.20, p = 0.04 < 0.05$). The ratio of adjectives to the total number of words is 14.26% at A1 proficiency level and 16.16% at C1. Another related issue was the ratios of adverbs to the total number of words in each composition, and the results are displayed in Table 9.

Table 9 reveals the Friedman test results about the ratios of adverbs to the total number of words. A quick analysis of the results will show that the difference of the ratios of adverbs to the total number of words at A1 and C1 level are statistically significant ($X^2_{df=4, N=20} = 21.60, p = 0.00 < 0.05$). At A1 level the ratio is 8.28%, and at C1 level of proficiency it increases to 13.19%. The next part of speech type in the analysis process was pronouns as shown in the following table.

The ratios of pronouns to the total number of words and related Friedman test results are provided in Table 10. It is clear from the table that the ratio changes from A1 to C1 is statistically significant ($X^2_{df=4, N=20} = 37.08, p = 0.00 < 0.05$). This ratio showed an unstable change from A1, A2, B1 to C1 as from 9.58, 10.26, 3.99, 4.43% to

6.56, respectively. As the next variable, the ratios of conjunctions to the total number of words in each composition can be examined in Table 11.

Table 11 shows the results of Friedman test on the ratios of conjunctions to the total number of words according to participants' proficiency levels. There is an obvious change from A1 level to C1 and this change is statistically significant ($X^2_{df=4, N=20} = 14.40, p = 0.01 < 0.05$). This ratio appears to have changed in the following order 5.89, 7.30, 8.06, 9.82, 8.18 at A1, A2, B1, B2 and C1 in that order. The next variable is the ratios of interjections to the total number of words are shown in the next table.

Friedman test results concerning the ratios of interjection to the total number of words are given in Table 12. According to the results, there is a statistically significant difference among proficiency levels in terms of interjection use ($X^2_{df=4, N=20} = 12.82, p = .01 < .05$). The use of interjections decreased from 0.77 at A1, to 0.46 at A2, to 0.08 at B1, to 0.32 at B2, and finally to 0.25 at C1. This change, like that of pronouns, seems to exhibit an unsteady nature. As the last point concerning the ratios of type of part of speech is the prepositions, and the next

Table 11. Friedman test results concerning the ratios of conjunctions to the total number of words.

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean rank	X ²	DF	p
A1	20	5.89	3.18	2.25			
A2	20	7.30	2.11	2.65			
B1	20	8.06	4.09	2.95	14.40	4	.01
B2	20	9.82	2.67	4.05			
C1	20	8.18	3.50	3.10			

Table 12. Friedman test results concerning the ratios of interjection to the total number of words.

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean rank	X ²	DF	p
A1	20	0.77	0.825	3.70			
A2	20	0.46	0.685	3.20			
B1	20	0.08	0.363	2.43	12.83	4	0.01
B2	20	0.32	0.625	2.85			
C1	20	0.25	0.405	2.83			

Table 13. Friedman Test results concerning the ratios of postpositions to the total number of words.

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Mean rank	X ²	DF	p
A1	20	0.41	0.60	1.23			
A2	20	2.30	1.59	2.80			
B1	20	4.34	2.53	4.00	40.35	4	0.00
B2	20	3.93	2.70	3.90			
C1	20	2.22	1.22	3.08			

table presents the related results.

In Table 13, we can see the results of Friedman Test revealing the ratios of postpositions to the total number of words according to each proficiency level from A1 to C1. There seems to be a statistically significant difference among proficiency levels in terms of postposition use ($X^2_{df=4, N=20} = 40.35, p = 0.00 < 0.05$). The use of postpositions changed from 0.41 at A1 level to 2.22 at C1 level.

DISCUSSION

The results of the current study showed that the ratios of nouns to the total number of words in each composition decreased from A1 to C1 level of proficiency and this appears to be a statistically significant change (Table 6). The use of nouns by the participants was considerably high at A1 level and it steadily decreased throughout A2, B1, B2 and C1.

When the learning outcomes mentioned in CEFR are analyzed, the aim is a general comprehension and production of concrete concepts, and these concepts dominantly overlap with nouns, and this could be

associated with this decrease. On the other hand, the next variable in the study, the verbs, exhibited an opposite trend. The ratio of verbs to the total number of words in the compositions increased significantly from A1 to C1 level. Actually, among the variables nouns and verbs seem to have a direct and negative relationship as exhibited in Figure 1. In the figure, a comparison of noun (represented black) with the verb ratios (represented in grey) can be seen. It is clear that at A1 level of proficiency the participants made considerable use of nouns in their compositions, and this usage decreased steadily at every proficiency level reaching to the lowest level at C1. On the other hand, when the ratios of verbs are checked at every proficiency level, the same trend can be observed but the other way around; the usage of verbs increases throughout proficiency levels. Obviously, in order to reach to a certain amount proficiency, language learners need to make use of verbs as they are used to talk about actions, states or processes (Banguoğlu, 1995). This increase in verb use could be related to the higher possibility of making mistakes with verbs at low levels of proficiency because in the related literature there are studies whose results state that TFL

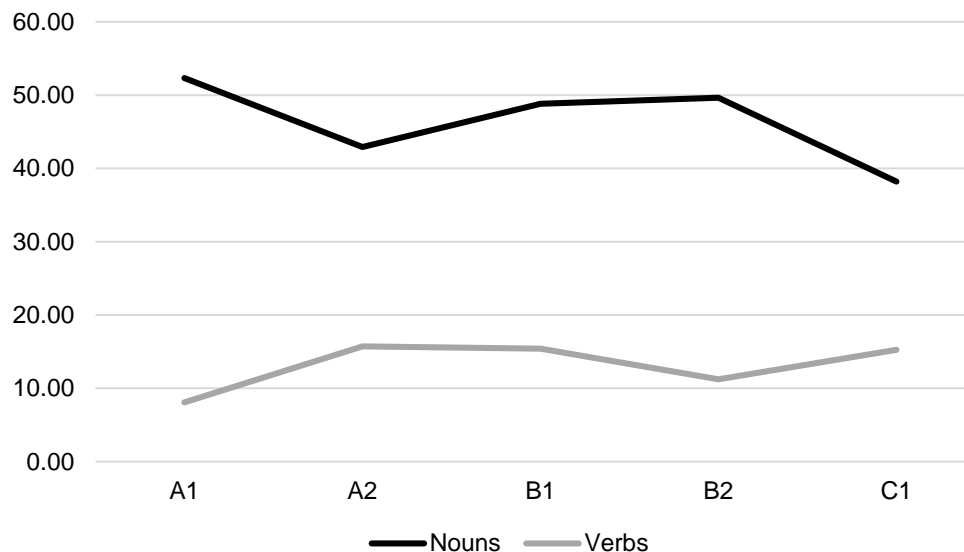


Figure 1. Comparison of noun and adjective ratios throughout proficiency levels.

learners' errors/mistakes are mostly related to verb conjugations (Şahin, 2013). It could be argued that decrease of noun usage is being compensated with the verb usage. However, this interaction between the nouns and the verbs could also be argued from a learner-strategy point of view. In other words, the participants could somehow be *avoiding* the use of verbs at beginning levels not to make mistakes because of the highly agglutinative nature of the Turkish language. In general terms, avoidance strategy refers to the process of substituting the required form or structure in a target language with another (Faerch and Kasper, 1983). Language learners find particular aspects of target languages difficult to deal with and by avoiding their usage they *dodge* possible mistakes and errors, which is somewhat different from total ignorance. Some researchers claim that this strategy is related to the interlanguage created by the learners while some other relates it to the learners' L1 backgrounds. It has been discussed that there are three potential cause of structural-lexical avoidance in adult L2 learning, and two of these are cross-linguistic and the third intralinguistic, which are LI-L2 difference, LI-L2 idiomatic similarity, and inherent L2 complexity (Laufer and Eliasson, 1993). Our point of view on this matter is that, as was mentioned previously, the inherent complexity of Turkish might be one of the most triggering effects which cause avoidance. The first two cross-linguistic causes for avoidance should be eliminated in our study because the participants in our study come from a variety of L1 backgrounds (Table 2). Therefore, intralinguistic factors seem to be at play in the process.

The use of adjectives by the TFL learners who participated in the current study is another point worth mentioning. It is clear that adjectives need nouns to

operate (Ergin, 1993), so it could be argued that adjectives should be acting in line with nouns. Therefore, the expectation would be that in TFL learners should be making use of adjectives with a similar ratio of nouns. However, the results of the current study show that at C1 level, where the ratios of nouns are the lowest, the ratio of adjectives is relatively high. It could be argued that the learners are starting make effective use of adjective phrases, which could be interpreted as a sign of high language proficiency. As was mentioned before, according to the CEFR, description skills of language learners are supposed develop in accordance with proficiency level.

The same rationale with adjectives could also function with the adverbs. Adverbs are directly related to adjectives and prominently to verbs (Ergin, 1993). Again, the expected scenario is an increase in adverb use in parallel with verbs, which is in line with the results of the current study. The results concerning pronoun ratios across proficiency levels are similar to nouns. Pronouns are used as replacements of people or objects, hence all kinds of nouns (Banguoğlu, 1995). The results revealed that in the compositions of the participants there is a certain amount of increase in the use of pronouns at C1 level of proficiency. The reason for this could be related to the personalization of the writing prompt by the learners. As was mentioned before, Biber (1995) sees personal pronouns as markers of interpersonal discourse and direct involvement of the writer, and holds the opinion that they are usually more characteristic of spoken rather than written registers. In addition, Hvitfeldt's (1992) sees this fact as a strategy used by language learners to consolidate their truths. An interesting point worth mentioning is that Turkish is a prodrop language, which means that, depending on the context, dropping

the subject pronoun is allowed, but this kind of drop is highly context-bound and it is difficult for a nonnative to decide when to leave the subject pronouns out and when to emphasize them; however, this process is qualitative rather than quantitative, so the use of subject pronouns by TFL learners is a concern of a qualitative study as well.

The ratios of pronouns, conjunctions and interjections were also analyzed in this study. The results indicate that their ratios to the total number of words used in learner compositions are very unstable. Generally, these word types do not bear meanings as their meanings depend on the sentences in which they are used (Korkmaz, 2009). They construct relations among phrases and sentences and cause changes in meaning; they act over and above sentence level, which means they also need to be analyzed through a qualitative approach.

The results presented in the current study cannot be regarded as conclusive, and it is also not free of criticism by any means, yet it surely is the first attempt to analyze TFL learners written productions in terms of lexical structures. The results indicate ineffective use of these structures by TFL learners, but an argument worth mentioning at this point is related to the needs of TFL learners in terms of writing in Turkish. It seems that trying to teach writing in a foreign language without solid needs analysis will make little sense and as a solution “rather than adopting wholesale the practices of LI and L2 English composition, FL writing might instead borrow the concept of needs analysis by investigating FL students’ needs for writing in the target language” (Reichelt, 1999:194). The concept of needs analysis in English language teaching might not be a new one, but in the TFL context it sure needs to be taken into consideration because there seems to be no discussion concerning TFL learners’ writing needs in real life situation. It might be the case that the intended writing skill outcomes in the related curriculums that are imposed on these learners are ‘wholesale’ approaches to pedagogy of writing in a foreign language.

There are many more aspects of TFL written productions to be analyzed. From the basic word counts, type/token ratios and word frequency counts to more complex aspects like syntactic, morphological and discourse structures of these productions seem to be open to discussions. Nevertheless, corpus based studies of the Turkish lexicon are beginning to appear (Bardaççı et al., 2016).

Conclusion

The results of the current study indicate that, on one hand, learners of Turkish as a foreign language, no matter what their first language background is, start off writing with a lexical repertoire that is rich in nouns and poor in

verbs. As they become more proficient in Turkish, they start using more verbs and less nouns. On the other hand, the other lexical structures such as adjectives, postpositions, adverbs and conjunctions exhibit quite unstable distributions across proficiency levels making it difficult to reach to related conclusions. One of the main reasons for this, the researchers believe, might be due to the agglutinative nature of the Turkish language, which puts crucial roles on verbs and indirectly on nouns as their complements. This deduction makes intralinguistic studies more to-the-point compared to cross-linguistic ones.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Investigation of critical thinking attitudes and reading habits of teacher candidates

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This study aims to define reading habits and critical thinking levels of pre-service teachers, who study at departments of classroom and physical education and sports teaching, and presenting the differences between these. The variables of the research were designed in accordance with descriptive research model. In 2016 to 17 academic year fall semester, the universe of the research consists of 250 students. All of these students study at Mugla Sitki Kocman University, and their departments are Classroom and Physical Education and Sports Teaching. The variables of the present research were tested for normality, and it was found that the variables were non-normally distributed. The differences between variables were tested ($p=0.05$) by using Mann-Whitney U test is one of the nonparametric tests. In order to define their reading habit and critical thinking levels, the attitude scale towards reading habit and California critical thinking dispositions inventory (CCTDI) were employed. As a result of this study, pre-service classroom and physical education teachers have medium level critical thinking; pre-service classroom teachers' level of critical thinking have higher than pre-service physical education and sports teachers; and significant difference among genders from the point of reading habit levels of teacher candidates were found.

Key words: Teacher candidates, pre-service teachers, physical education and sports teaching, reading Habits, critical thinking

INTRODUCTION

The profession of education is getting more difficult everyday depending on the multitude and variety of human needs, and every new acquired skill requires the acquisition of one or several new skills right after it is acquired. The importance of educational institutions today is increasing with the education becoming a life-long process.

Additionally, the requirements of the modern world necessitate that teachers today have thinking skills. Instead of transferring knowledge, learning to think is

more important now in education. Accordingly, modern schools try to raise individuals who can think, criticize, produce and know the ways to access knowledge, and educational programs are designed in a way to make students acquire thinking skills (Seferoglu, Akbiyik, 2006). The English word "critical" was gotten from the Greek word "kritikos". It means judging and differentiating, and was borrowed by Latin as "criticos" and then spread to other languages. Criticizing refers to evaluating something with its good or bad aspects. The concept of critical

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thinking occurred many ages ago, in fact that it dates back to Socrates.

Whilom, this concept referred to logical thinking with the purpose of guiding our behaviours through philosophy. The concept of critical thinking, which was considered as the defining of incidents correctly from time to time, started to be defined in a more comprehensive manner afterwards (Kaya, 1997).

The process of critical thinking has been named by different terms in the related literature. For instance, Aydin (2003), used the term “the stages of critical thinking”, Cuceloglu (1995) preferred “critical thinking for problem solving”, Ennis (1985) called it “the process of making decisions on what to believe in or what to do”, while Nosich (2012) named the process as “the components of logical thinking”, Paul and Elder (2006) said “what needs to be known while reasoning” and Starkey (2010) called it as “the conditions for critical thinking”.

Related literature provides many definitions for critical thinking. Many researchers, in their variety studies, focus on dimensions of critical thinking. According to Watson and Glaser (1964), “critical thinking is defined by the assumptions, values, attitudes and beliefs of the individuals. Almost all of these approaches handle critical thinking as a process starting in the mind and ending as a behaviour”. Based on it, the dimensions of critical thinking are handled at five points as; inference, realization of the theories, deduction, interpretation and evaluation of discussions (Carter, 1973).

The process dimension of critical thinking is highlighted by Ennis (1985), and he makes a mention of three different aspects of critical thinking as; development of information, questioning, and judgement, and offers that it is reflective and logical thinking. Hudgins and Edelman (1986) emphasize the critical thinking’s dimension of finding proof before accepting some consequences. Similarly, variety researchers, like Halpern (1989), Paul (1988), Kazanci (1989), Cuceloglu (1993) and Mcknown (1997) have spoken of critical thinking’s dimension in their studies.

Karaduz (2010), Sen (2009) and Cetinkaya (2011) have also showed that there was a relationships between linguistic skills and critical thinking. On the other hand, they tried to define Turkish language teacher candidates remarks on critical thinking dispositions, and tried to find out whether critical thinking levels varied by some variables.

Turnuklu and Yesildere (2005) studied the critical thinking dispositions of teacher candidates, besides some researchers like Ekinçi (2009) and Dutoglu and Tuncel (2008) investigated the relationships between critical thinking dispositions and some variables. Additionally, Demirkaya (2008) studied the use of critical thinking in lessons, Cokluk et al. (2005) in their study on university students, investigated the relationships between anxiety

and critical thinking, Akbiyik (2002) studied the correlations between critical thinking and academic achievement, and Sacli and Demirhan (2008) defined and compared the physical education teacher candidates’ critical thinking levels.

The present researches have showed that the use of standardized tests has little contribution to in-class assessment processes. Therefore, teachers need to make use of different methods to assess and develop their students’ critical thinking skills in in-class assessment processes. This process starts with the qualified programs for courses. Guzel and Berberoglu (2013) reported that a common language should be developed for a well sampling of mental processes used for expressing attainments in course programs, pre-service teachers, who study at faculties of education, should be well-informed and equipped about the thinking processes, and therefore the content of pedagogical formation courses should include activities on the theory and the practice of mental processes.

By reading books, humankind increased their knowledge and culture, mapped out new routes with the information obtained from the books, developed new methods and techniques, in short created a new world. In this context, even there are numerous ways and methods to access information in the modern worlds, most of these are based on reading, which is the basic way of obtaining information (Keskin, 2015).

Individuals, who can achieve the process of reading, which is a necessity in order to keep up with the modern world, and maintain life-long learning, are those who can think critically, establish effective interpersonal relationships, and study, understand and interpret the outer world (Aciyan, 2008). The primary objective of educational systems is creating a society formed of the individuals with these qualities (Bayansalduz, 2012; Akpinar et al., 2012; Toros et al., 2010).

The joy and habit of reading should be developed first in order to develop these skills at desired levels (Akca, 2008). Reading is defined as a complex process creating new thinking in the mind, and involving various development stages (Gecgel and Burgul, 2010). Habit is a form of learnt characteristic behaviour reinforced to occur in any case automatically. When reading, which is the basic way to access knowledge, becomes a habit, the concept of “reading habit” occurs. Reading habit indicates as individuals’ realizing the act of reading in a life-long, constant, regular and critical manner, as a result of considering reading (Yilmaz et al., 2009).

METHODOLOGY

The present research employed descriptive method in order to define critical thinking levels of two different departments’ students. The universe of the research consists of 250 students. All of these students study at Mugla Sitki Kocman University, and their departments are Classroom and Physical Education and Sports

Teaching in 2016 to 2017 academic years fall semester. The present research was designed in accordance with descriptive research model. As the variables of the present research were found to be non-normally distributed, the differences between variables were tested by using Mann-Whitney U being one of the nonparametric tests, and the significance level was determined as 0.05. The following scales were used in order to identify reading habit levels and critical thinking levels of teacher candidates.

California critical thinking disposition inventory (CCTDI)

The California critical thinking disposition inventory is the premier scale for measuring the dispositional viewpoints of critical thinking, and it was developed in 1990 by American Philosophical Association. The CCTDI is designed for use with the general adult population, and it is specifically prepared to make decisions using critical thinking and measure the disposition to connect problems. It must be in tendency to think critically as well as have the skills to do so. The original form of the CCTDI is an inventory while the Turkish form was organized as a scale. The scale has seven sub-scales (maturity, critical thinking, truth-seeking, inquisitiveness, self-confidence, and open-mindedness, as well as dispositions to analyze and systematize) that were defined hypothetically and tested psychometrically, and consists 75 items (Kokdemir, 2003; Facione et al., 1994; Chen and Lin, 2003). The validity-reliability studies of the CCTDI, with its original form in English, were conducted on 913 students, who studied in Ankara, Turkey. During Turkish adaptation studies, 24 items were foreclosed from the scale, as the remaining 51 items were considered to be more representative (Kokdemir, 2003).

The attitude scale towards reading habit

Gomleksiz (2004) developed the attitude scale towards reading habit, and it consists of 30 items scored on five-point Likert type scale. The scale was developed based on related literature, student remarks and expert opinions. Data obtained from 197 students, who studied at Firat University, Faculty of Education, were analysed with factor analysis method. According to the analyses, the total of 30 items, 21 positive and 9 negative, were selected, and the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was calculated as 0.88. KMO value of the scale was found as 0.83, and Bartlett test value was 2202.200. The attitude scale towards reading habit is a single dimensional scale, and measures students' characteristics related to reading habit.

FINDINGS

Among the participants of the present research, 63.6% of the physical education teacher candidates were female, and 35.8% were male; while 54% of classroom teacher candidates were male, and 46% were female.

In terms of the participants' place of settlement before university education; it's shown that the pre-service physical education teachers lived 18.7% in villages, 21.9% in districts, 15% in cities and 44.4% in metropolitans. As for the pre-service classroom teachers, 7.9% lived in villages, 33.3% in districts, 42.9% in cities and 15.9% lived in metropolitans. The participants were asked whether they chose the profession willingly and

81.8% of the physical education teacher candidates stated that they chose willingly, while 18.2% didn't. As for the pre-service classroom teachers, 93.7% stated that they chose willingly, while 6.3% didn't.

According to the perceptions of participants, 1.1% of the pre-service physical education teachers had very low, 10.2% low, 62.6% medium, 24.1% good and 2.1% have high incomes. As for the pre-service classroom teachers, 1.6% had very low, 6.3% low, 61.3% medium, 22.2% good and 7.9% had high incomes. Table 1 has shown that both departments similarly have medium level of critical thinking.

Table 2 has shown that there is a significant difference between classroom teacher candidates and physical education teacher candidates in critical thinking levels ($p < 0.05$). Besides, Table 2 has also shown that there is a positive correlation ($p < 0.05$) between reading habit levels and critical thinking levels of physical education teacher candidates. That is, reading habit levels of teacher candidates increase as their critical thinking levels increase.

In the Table 3, it has shown that there is a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in reading habit levels of pre-service teachers according to their genders. Table 4 has shown that any significant differences about critical thinking levels of pre-service teachers was unseen between their genders ($p > 0.05$).

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Many previous researches have reported that critical thinking education should be skill-based. As a result of this study, there is a significant difference between critical thinking levels of pre-service classroom teachers and physical education teachers. Accordingly, pre-service classroom teachers have higher levels of critical thinking than pre-service physical education and sports teachers. Similarly, Kirmizi et al. (2014) found that pre-service classroom teachers had higher levels of critical thinking dispositions, which is in agreement with the related finding of this study.

According to the obtained findings, pre-lesson preparations of especially the male teachers should include the use of interactive materials, the study of teacher resource books, the use of visuals, the study of attainments, the use of secondary resources, and the agenda and the contemporary.

Ozcan (2007) reposted a significant difference between critical thinking scale scores of control and experiment groups, in favour of the experiment group, and Canturk et al. (2009) also reported that there was a significant difference in critical thinking skills of two student groups, one of which was taught with problem-based learning method, and the other with traditional method, in favour of the first group.

Table 1. Critical thinking levels of pre-service classroom and physical education teachers.

Variable	Pre-service physical education teachers	Pre-service classroom teachers
N	187	63
A. Average	166.0642	175.4444

Table 2. Mann-Whitney U test results of critical thinking levels of departments.

Department	Critical thinking level			
	N	μ	Z	p
Pre-service physical education teachers	187	117.59	-2.979	0.003
Pre-service classroom teachers	63	148.97	.	.
Total	250	.	.	.

Table 3. The difference in reading habit levels of pre-service teachers across genders.

Gender	N	Mean rank	Mann-Whitney U	p
Female	63	79.34		
Male	73	61.22	1989.3	0.007
Total		136		

Table 4. The difference in critical thinking levels of pre-service teachers across genders.

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney u	p
Male	73	65.71		
Female	63	71.73	2096.0	0.374
Total		136		

Bagdat (2009) observed such skills as taking the text from different aspects, interpretation, accepting or rejecting the suggested idea among students, who acquired critical thinking skills. Additionally, they used pre-test data for the group, who acquired critical thinking skill, and reported that they developed analysis, synthesis and evaluation skills.

Scientific researches on the subject matter reported that skill-based teaching of critical thinking resulted in significant differences between other teaching methods. Accordingly, critical thinking skills of pre-service physical education and sports teachers can be developed through problem-based education.

On the other hand, pre-service physical education and sports teachers and classroom teachers will encounter differences and difficulties in critical thinking teaching practices when they start their service, due to differences

in critical thinking levels, branches, classes, and the educational models at the institutions they will serve at. For this reason, they should be aware that the function of teaching is not only providing information, but also teaching thinking, or critical thinking more accurately. Critical thinking levels of teachers will affect their students. For this reason, it will be beneficial that reading habit is adopted and reading is loved at primary education period, parents are provided with seminars on the benefits of reading, and students are encouraged to read.

In order to develop critical thinking at faculties of education, in class activities can include discussions, expressing opinions, writing projective essays, debates on a selected topic, ordering and choosing between different opinions in discussion processes, inferring, defining objectives and designing exercises for attaining

the objectives, detecting subject-verb disagreements in opinions and designing activities for correcting these disagreements, practicing on main and supportive ideas, and developing visual reading.

Besides these activities, creating concept maps, discussing on created concept maps, drawing opinion flow charts, creating decision trees, comparing between the advantages and disadvantages of different opinions, organizing brainstorming activities, making use of six-thinking-hats, comparing cases, organizing holistic and detailed evaluation activities, organizing outline and key word activities, designing problem solving activities, attending in summarizing and drafting activities, comparing between costs and benefits can contribute to observing and developing of the critical thinking styles which can be in the blind spots of standard tests.

Further studies should be conducted on broader samples with different variables, in order to obtain more data to be used to develop critical thinking skills among pre-service physical education and sports teachers and classroom teachers.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and information literacy self-efficacy

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The purpose of this study is to determine the correlations between prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and their information literacy self-efficacy. It is also to find out if such properties differed significantly in terms of gender, grade, computer usage skills, achievement perception, and willingness to pursue an academic career and workplace belief in achievement. Participants in this study were 200 prospective teachers from Hacettepe University, Faculty of Education in Ankara, Turkey. Data were gathered through Lifelong Learning Tendencies and Information Literacy Self-efficacy Scales. The findings revealed that prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and their information literacy self-efficacy were quite high. Their lifelong learning tendencies did not differ in terms of their computer usage skills whereas a significant difference was found in terms of their gender, grade, achievement perception, willingness to pursue an academic career and achievement in workplace. No differences were found in the prospective teachers' information literacy self-efficacy in terms of gender and grade; however, significant differences were found in terms of computer usage skills, achievement perception, willingness to pursue an academic career and belief in achievement in workplace. A moderate but significant positive correlation was found between their lifelong learning tendencies and information literacy self-efficacy.

Key words: Lifelong learning, lifelong learning tendency, information literacy, information literacy self-efficacy, prospective teacher.

INTRODUCTION

Society demands information that individuals can get to prepare for a future characterized by change. It is almost obligatory for any individual to become acquainted with the current economic, social and technological developments. Individuals who fail to keep up with the

change are likely to fall progressively behind, become less employable and less competitive as well. An existing and static body of knowledge is no longer enough to handle information explosion, changing work patterns, rapid growth of technologies and globalisation (Candy,

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2002). While providing countless opportunities, constant changes have dramatically altered the knowledge and abilities individuals need to live productively. Rapid changes occurring in technology and job environments require more people to have high-level of skills and receive education during their whole lives (OECD, 1996). There has been a pressure for learning across the lifespan. Learning how to learn is fundamental to economic and personal success in the information age and it is the best way to meet the challenge of change (Doyle, 1994). The ability to acquire how to learn is a key characteristic of those who are information literate. To acquire lasting information, societies need confident, independent and self-regulated learners equipped for lifelong learning (Kumaresan, 2008).

Lifelong learning

The concept of lifelong learning gained great popularity after the report issued by Faure et al. (2007). In this report, it was stated that lifelong learning would be the basic concept of educational policies for both developed and developing countries. Lifelong learning refers to the acquisition, renewal and change of all sorts of information and skills, if necessary, throughout an individual's life. The concept of "lifelong learning" become a slogan from time to time, but in recent years has come to be a point which greatly focuses on state development plans, strategic plans and policies relating to the future in many countries. For example, European Union declared the year 1996 as lifelong learning year; strategies and projects were developed through negotiations with member and candidate countries; and lifelong learning memorandum reporting the previously conducted studies which covered the ten-year future targets was issued in 2000 (Sarma, 2002). Similarly, the UK government established the ministry in the field of lifelong learning in 1997 for the first time in its history. Then, in 1998, it established an advisory committee responsible for developing policies in order to increase demand for learning among adults and also improve the educational opportunities intended for them (Field, 2006).

As lifelong learners the students should possess the following skills in their life.

1. Reasoning and analytical skills,
2. The ability to integrate information from diverse disciplines to synthesize new concepts upon which to draw and carry out reasonable action plans,
3. Effective communication, suited to the message and the audience,
4. Ability to use computers and even other devices still to be invented,
5. Social skills to communicate and work with people of diverse cultures and expertise.

Candy, Crebert and O'Leary (1994) also developed a profile for a lifelong learning person in higher education, as follows:

1. He/she has an inquisitive mind with a motivation for learning; he/she is curious and he/she follows his/her own learning,
2. He/she is information literate, he/she obtains information from different sources which he/she evaluates and uses,
3. He/she learns information profoundly but not superficially,
4. He/she has a positive attitude towards learning and organizational skills.

Individuals living in the information society will continue lifelong learning by acquiring the skill of "learning how to learn". As mentioned before, learning how to learn is fundamental to economic and personal success in this information age and the best way to meet the challenge is change (Doyle, 1994). The ability to learn how to learn is a key characteristic of those who are information literate. Societies of information age need confident, independent, self-regulated learners equipped for lifelong learning.

Information skills are basic skills essential to the success of lifelong learning, success in school, workplace and home (Hancock, 1993). Information literate individuals are well prepared for challenges and changes that arise in their careers and personal lives. In other words, they are well prepared for lifelong learning.

Information literacy

Information literacy in fact shares features with traditional literacy. Having "literacy" traditionally refers to an individual's ability to read and write in a language shared in a specific culture. The word "literacy" is an evolving and developing concept and is being used in a much broader, metaphorical sense, to refer to other skills and competencies, such as "information literacy", "visual literacy", "media literacy" and "scientific literacy" (Condy et al., 2010; UNESCO, 2006). The meaning of these concepts tends to be diverse and shifting, ranging from the view of literacy as a set of largely technical skills. These skills should be applied in critical ways for the examination of one's surroundings (e.g. the workplace and the media) and as well push for social change (UNESCO, 2006).

Information literacy is one of those knowledge that broadly refers to the ability to access and use a variety of information sources to solve an information need. There are numerous definition of information literacy. Rader (1991) defines information literacy as acquiring and evaluating information effectively with the aim of solving

problems and making decisions. Information literacy is defined by Shapiro and Hughes (1996) as a new discipline extending from the use of computer and access to information, social, cultural, philosophical content and even influence on information. Information literacy is defined by AASL/AECT (1998) as the skill of accessing and using information.

Information literate people are defined as individuals who are aware of the need for information, who know how to access information and how to evaluate and use the obtained information efficiently. Information literate people are also regarded as individuals prepared for lifelong learning (American Library Association, 1989). It is thought that information literacy will develop learning experiences of each student, and thereby increase lifelong learning of the students. Moreover, Lau (2006) describes information literacy "as a series of skills" which can be learnt; he/she argues that these skills include having a particular attitude towards learning, using online tools such as educational tools, and using techniques such as working in groups. He mentions that lifelong learning is a good habit, which must be acquired; and beneficial pre-conditions of lifelong learning include a desire for change and curiosity for information. Briefly, information literacy and lifelong learning mutually impact and strengthen one another. These two concepts are very important for the success of individuals, institutes and societies. Therefore, educational institutions have a great responsibility in enabling individuals to acquire lifelong learning and information literacy skills. One of the purposes of an education is to train individuals in accordance with the needs of the society. For that reason, today educational systems are responsible for turning out of individuals who have the attributes appropriate for the information age and who can meet the expectations of the information society. It is vital to note that lifelong learning and information literacy are very significant to any country especially developing countries such as Turkey.

Information literacy are critical to achieve any potential economic, social and political empowerment for the development of the countries. Information literacy shapes and changes the way citizens in the country think, feel and react to various circumstances in the sense that it builds or strengthens the sense of pride, self-esteem and self-confidence in the people. Dewan et al. (2005) argued that it is important to have information literate people in order to accelerate the rate of development in the country. It plays an important role by contributing positively to the spheres and dimensions of national development such as economic, social, political, environmental and cultural development.

Lifelong learning is a prominent concept in education policy reforms, ranging from preparation in early education to adult basic education and continuing education. Therefore, lifelong learning is an essential part

in any country's development process, where individuals acquire their life skills, soft skills and vocational skills throughout their lifespan in order to take part in their social, cultural, vocational and professional life. As mentioned before, developing countries such as Turkey should give more importance so that all people will have access to lifelong learning, education and training opportunities, which will, in turn, contribute toward improving the quality of life and building of a peaceful, prosperous and democratic country. The lifelong learning and information literacy components should be in those countries' agenda to help close the digital division and promote social inclusion.

Within today's information society, being able to function as independent lifelong learners is the most important learning outcome. The essential enabler to reaching that goal is information literacy. Therefore, teaching individuals information literacy skills is an important step in developing lifelong learners (Iannuzzi et al., 1999). Teachers should firstly have the necessary skills so that information literacy program can be included and applied in educational institutes (Breivik et al., 1998; Akkoyunlu and Kurbanoglu, 2003).

Information literacy and self-efficacy

Possessing information literacy skills is essential to be equipped for lifelong learning. Feeling confident and competent in using these skills is also necessary. According to Bandura (1994), success is not only based on the possession of necessary skills, it also requires the confidence to use these skills effectively. In other words, learning certain skills is not enough, so individuals should also develop confidence in the skills that they learn. Hence, despite possessing information literacy skills, teachers of today's societies must also feel competent and confident in the use of these skills. Therefore attainment of high sense of self-efficacy is as important as possessing information literacy skills. Self-efficacy is one of the central concepts of the social-learning theory developed by Bandura (1995). It is defined as "beliefs of individuals in their capacities for organizing activities and actions which are necessary to display a particular performance and the realization of the performance in a successful way" (Bandura, 1995). It is a well-known fact that individuals with high self-efficacy in a topic are more willing to participate in activities relating to this topic and have higher expectations from those kinds of practices. When these individuals encounter any difficulty, it becomes easier for them to deal with it. Strong self-efficacy has effects such as voluntarily choosing of a domain, being motivated, making efforts to achieve a task, spending time addressing a task, and being resilient to failure. Self-efficacy also determine how much effort individuals will put on an activity, how long they will

persevere and how resilient they will be in the face of difficulties, and adverse situations. Self-efficacy is a critical determinant of self-regulation which is a key component of both information literacy and lifelong learning. Bandura underlines that people who develop a strong sense of self-efficacy are well equipped to educate themselves when they have to rely on their own initiative (Bandura, 1986). If individuals feel competent and confident about their information literacy skills, they will be willingly to undertake lifelong learning activities. Because high level of self-efficacy leads to a desire and willingness to act and to risk trying a new behavior, it therefore becomes important to use information literacy skills to accomplish lifelong learning.

Given the range of learning the needs people face daily, and the ever continuing expansion of available information, educational institutions can never directly meet all the learning needs of their graduates throughout their lifetimes, but they assume significant responsibility for ensuring that their graduates can learn outside of formal learning situations (Breivik, 2000). They can assume significant responsibility for creating generations of independent learners by equipping their students with the information literacy skills and helping them to improve their information literacy self-efficacy. As Tavil (2014) mentioned in her study, teachers' self-efficacy have a powerful impact on their teaching abilities. A strong sense of efficacy enables teachers to have positive teaching behaviors and attitudes in the teaching and learning environment. Therefore, teachers cannot prepare their students to be information literates, in other words to be lifelong learners, unless they themselves possess information literacy skills (Carr, 1998).

Purpose of the study

This study examines the relations between prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and their information literacy self-efficacy. To this end, the following research questions were formulated:

1. What is the level of prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies?
2. Do prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies vary significantly by their gender, grade, computer usage level, perceived academic achievement, willingness to pursue an academic career, and beliefs on achievement in workplace?
3. What is the level of prospective teachers' information literacy self-efficacy?
4. Do prospective teachers' information literacy self-efficacy vary significantly by their gender, grade, computer usage level, perceived academic achievement, willingness to pursue an academic career, and beliefs on achievement in workplace?

5. Is there a statistically significant relationship between prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and their information literacy self-efficacy?

METHODS

The present study uses a relational descriptive model, allowing determination of the relationships between two or more variables. A descriptive study aims to give snapshot from a certain perspective in order to clarify the nature of a specified phenomena, while a relational study aims to observe a certain phenomena rather than manipulate it.

Participants

Participants of the study consisted of 200 prospective teachers in the department of Elementary Education at Hacettepe University in Ankara, Turkey. 69% were female ($n = 138$) and 31% were male ($n = 62$). 48% of the participants were first grade ($n = 96$) and 52% of them were fourth grade ($n = 104$) students. 8.5% ($n = 17$) of the participants have stated computer usage level poor, 46% ($n = 92$) barely acceptable, 41% ($n = 82$) good, 4.5% ($n = 9$) very good. 2.5% ($n = 5$) of the participants have perceived academic achievement very poor, 3.5% ($n = 7$) poor, 38.5% ($n = 77$) barely acceptable, 51% ($n = 102$) good, 4.5% ($n = 9$) very good. 41.5% ($n = 83$) of the participants have willingness to pursue an academic career, however 33.5% ($n = 50$) do not thinking about pursuing career. Undecided participants are 25% ($n = 50$) of the study group. 94.5% ($n = 189$) of the participants have a belief on achievement on workplace. Just 1.5% ($n = 3$) of them have a belief on failure. 4% ($n = 8$) of the participants stated their indecision.

Instruments

Personal inquiry form, the Lifelong Learning Tendencies Scale (Coşkun, 2009) and the Information Literacy Self-Efficacy Scale (Kurbanoğlu et al., 2006) were used to collect the data. Personal inquiry form is composed of six questions concerning gender, grade, computer usage level, perceived academic achievement, willingness to pursue an academic career, and beliefs on achievement in workplace.

The Lifelong Learning Tendencies Scale (Coşkun, 2009) is a 6-point likert scale with 27 items. In Coşkun and Demirel's (2010) study, the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was calculated as 0.89. The lowest score on this scale is 27 and the highest is 162.

The Information Literacy Self-Efficacy Scale (Kurbanoğlu et al., 2006) is a 7-point Likert scale with 28 items. Cronbach's reliability coefficient for this 28-item scale was found as 71, The lowest score on this scale is 28 and the highest score is 196.

Data analysis

Four statistical procedures, which run on the data collected through the scales, were used in data analysis:

1. Prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and their information literacy self-efficacy were analyzed by using descriptive statistics;
2. t-test was used to find out if there is a difference between mean scores of prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and

their information literacy self-efficacy;

3. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was implemented to examine the differences between the prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and their information literacy self-efficacy about gender, grade, computer usage skills, achievement perception, willingness to pursue an academic career, and belief in achievement in workplace. Besides, the homogeneity of group variances was tested in order to determine the groups between which there was difference at the end of the ANOVA. When group variances were homogenous, the least-squared difference (LSD) test was utilized. However, if group variances were not homogenous, Tamhane multiple comparison tests were utilized (Köklü et al., 2007).

4. A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to find significant correlations between prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendency and information literacy self-efficacy.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following section presents the findings relevant to the research questions respectively.

First research question

The first research question is "What is the level of prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies?". Prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies' mean score was calculated. The mean score of the prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies was 123.91. Compared to the highest score ($\bar{X} = 162$) on the lifelong learning tendencies scale, this value seems quite high. A primary objective of universities is to develop skills such as curiosity, searching and questioning which thereby develop individuals' abilities to access and produce information. Prospective teachers should be provided with environments that allow them to develop individually and socially in order to produce students and researchers who are able to engage in lifelong learning (Knapper and Cropley, 2000). It can be said that the tendency towards lifelong learning among prospective teachers is influenced by their learning experiences in this kind of learning environment. Demirel and Coşkun (2009) found in their study that students at a faculty of education have had high levels of curiosity. In a study conducted by Coşkun (2009), the mean score of students' ($n=1545$) lifelong learning tendencies was found to be 89.09. This was interpreted as an indication that students make insufficient use of opportunities to voluntarily participate in lifelong learning and in activities relating to lifelong learning.

Second research question

The second research question is "Do prospective teachers' the lifelong learning tendencies vary significantly by their gender, grade, computer usage level, perceived academic achievement, willingness to

pursue an academic career, and beliefs on achievement in workplace?". Prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendency in terms of their gender was compared by the use of t test at the level of 0.05. One conclusion that can be drawn from these results is that female prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies self-efficacy mean score ($\bar{X} = 127.64$) is significantly higher than male prospective teachers' self-efficacy mean score ($\bar{X} = 115.60$) and ($t=3.84, p=.000$). t test was also calculated to compare the mean scores of participants' lifelong learning tendency according to their grades, and the results revealed a significant difference in favor of senior prospective teachers ($\bar{X} = 129.35, t=3.92, p=0.000$).

According to the findings, the mean score of female prospective teachers relating to lifelong learning tendencies are higher than those of male prospective teachers. These findings are similar to those reported by Coşkun (2009) and Jenkins (2004). Jenkins (2004) reported that the concept of lifelong learning is a feature needed particularly by women. The fact that women have to change jobs, quit jobs or take long breaks due to their roles and responsibilities in family life and social life increases their efforts to acquire different qualities. In this sense, lifelong learning has a very important role for women. Evaluation of scores according to grade showed a significant difference in favor of senior students. Coşkun (2009) also found that senior students have higher lifelong learning tendencies compared to 1st grade students.

ANOVA was performed to show differences between the mean scores of prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendency in terms of their academic achievement perception. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the means of three or more independent (unrelated) groups. The results of the ANOVA was statistically significant ($F = 3.20, p = 0.01$). LSD multiple comparisons test was used for further analysis of group differences to identify where the differences reside for achievement perception. The achievement perception of prospective teachers rose from very poor to very good. Results of the further analysis indicated that there were significant statistical differences in prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies mean scores in favour of prospective teachers having good and very good achievement perception ($p < 0.05$).

ANOVA was also used to compare the differences between prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies in terms of their willingness to pursue an academic career, belief in achievement in workplace and their computer usage skills. Findings showed that lifelong learning tendencies differ according to the willingness to pursue an academic career ($F = 16.87, p = 0.000$). The highest mean score belongs to the group willing to pursue an academic career ($\bar{X} = 127.64, p = 0.000$).

While group variances were not homogenous, Tamhane multiple comparison tests were utilized for further analysis of group differences to identify where the differences reside for willingness to pursue an academic career. The Tamhane multiple comparisons test results showed a significant difference in favour of prospective teachers who have the willingness to pursue an academic career.

Findings revealed that their lifelong learning tendencies differ in terms of their belief on achievement in the workplace ($F = 8.10$, $p = 0.000$). LSD multiple comparisons test was used for further analysis of group differences to identify where the differences come for belief on achievement in the workplace. According to the result of the LSD multiple comparisons test, a significant difference was found between groups who believe that they will be successful in their business life ($\bar{X} = 20.17$, $p = .000$).

Briefly, the lifelong learning tendencies of prospective teachers differ significantly in terms of achievement perception, willingness to pursue an academic career and belief on achievement in workplace. It can be concluded that as the achievement perceptions of prospective teachers increase; their lifelong learning tendencies also increase, indicating that the achievement perceptions of prospective teachers positively impact their lifelong learning tendencies. However, the findings indicate that the lifelong learning tendencies of prospective teachers do not differ according to computer usage skills ($F = 1.27$; $p = 0.28$). These findings are similar to those reported by Coşkun (2009).

Third research question

The third research question is "What is the level of prospective teachers' information literacy self-efficacy?". Prospective teachers' information literacy self-efficacy mean score was calculated. The mean score of the prospective teachers' information literacy self-efficacy was 146.34 which indicates a high level on the scale which in turn is quite satisfactory. These findings are similar to studies of Akkoyunlu and Kurbanoglu (2003); Demiralay (2008) and Smith (2013).

Fourth research question

The fourth question is "Do prospective teachers' information literacy self-efficacy vary significantly by their gender, grade, computer usage level, perceived academic achievement, willingness to pursue an academic career, and beliefs on achievement in workplace?". Prospective teachers' information self-efficacy in terms of their gender and grades were compared by the use of t test at the level of 0.05. The

results stated that the information literacy self-efficacy mean score of female prospective teachers ($\bar{X} = 148.68$, $sd = 23.56$) is higher than those of male prospective teachers ($\bar{X} = 141.09$, $sd = 30.80$) however, there was no significant difference in terms of their gender ($t = 1.90$, $p = 0.06$). Similarly, even though the mean score of 4th grade prospective teachers ($\bar{X} = 149.43$, $sd = 24.57$) are higher than those of 1st grade prospective teachers ($\bar{X} = 142.98$, $sd = 27.55$), the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant ($t = -1.75$, $p = 0.08$). In the studies conducted by Usluel (2007), Demiralay (2008) and Chu (2012), the information literacy self-efficacy of female students was found to be higher than that of the male students.

ANOVA was used to compare the mean scores of prospective teachers' information literacy self-efficacy beliefs in terms of their computer usage skills, achievement perception, willingness to pursue an academic career, and belief in achievement in workplace. Results revealed that significant differences were found in terms of their computer usage skills ($F = 8.46$, $p < 0.05$), achievement perception ($F = 4.39$, $p = 0.000$), willingness to pursue an academic career ($F = 10.05$, $p = 0.000$) and belief in achievement in workplace ($F = 3.53$, $p = 0.003$). LSD multiple comparisons test was used for further analysis of group differences to identify where the differences reside for computer usage skills and achievement perception. The computer usage skills of prospective teachers rose from very poor to very good. The LSD multiple comparisons test showed a significant difference between groups with low computer usage skills and groups with intermediate computer usage skills; between groups with poor computer usage skills ($\bar{X} = 121.12$, $sd = 21.38$) and those with good computer usage skills ($\bar{X} = 152.39$, $sd = 20.83$); between groups with poor computer usage skills ($\bar{X} = 121.12$, $sd = 21.38$) and those with very good computer usage skills ($\bar{X} = 159.11$, $sd = 24.54$); and between groups with intermediate computer usage skills ($\bar{X} = 144.35$, $sd = 28.40$); and those with good computer usage skills ($\bar{X} = 152.39$, $sd = 20.83$). According to the LSD multiple comparisons test, a significant difference was also found between groups with very poor achievement perception ($\bar{X} = 115.00$, $sd = 52.02$); and groups with poor achievement perception ($\bar{X} = 153.43$, $sd = 24.60$); between groups with very poor achievement perception ($\bar{X} = 115.00$, $sd = 52.02$) and groups with good achievement perception ($\bar{X} = 150.89$, $sd = 23.45$); groups with very poor achievement perception ($\bar{X} = 115.00$, $sd = 52.02$) and groups with very good achievement perception ($\bar{X} = 157.67$, $sd = 25.06$). As the computer usage skills of prospective teachers and achievement perceptions increase, information literacy self-efficacy perceptions also increase.

Findings showed that prospective teachers' information

literacy self-efficacy differ according to their willingness to pursue an academic career ($F = 16.87$, $p = 0.000$). The highest mean score belongs to the group willing to pursue an academic career ($\bar{X} = 155.16$). While group variances were not homogenous, Tamhane multiple comparison tests were utilized for further analysis of group differences to identify where the differences reside for the willingness to pursue an academic career. The Tamhane multiple comparisons test results showed a significant difference in favour of prospective teachers who are willing to pursue an academic career and between groups unwilling to pursue an academic career and those indecisive about the matter ($p < 0.05$). LSD multiple comparisons test was used for further analysis of group differences to identify where the differences reside for belief in achievement in their workplace. The LSD multiple comparisons test showed that there was a significant difference between those believing that they will be successful in their future workplace ($\bar{X} = 147.48$, $sd = 24.72$); and those that do not believe that they will be successful in their workplace ($\bar{X} = 119.00$, $sd = 73.61$); between groups believing that they will be successful in their workplace and those indecisive about this matter ($\bar{X} = 129.63$, $sd = 29.37$).

It can be said that the information literacy self-efficacy beliefs of prospective teachers are positively impacted by computer usage skills, achievement perceptions, willingness to pursue an academic career, and beliefs in achievement in the workplace. Demiralay (2008) found that the information literacy self-efficacy of prospective teachers differed significantly in terms of experience of computer usage skills and the level of internet skills. In the present study, it was shown that as prospective teachers' experience in using computers increases, their information literacy self-efficacy beliefs also increase. In Tang and Tseng's study (2013) the results revealed that distance learners who have higher information literacy self-efficacy exhibited higher self-efficacy for online learning. The present study also showed that while prospective teachers' experience in using computer increased, their information literacy self-efficacy also increased.

Fifth research question

The fifth research question set out as "Is there a statistically significant relationship between prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and their information literacy self-efficacy?". The Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the relationship between prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies mean score and their information literacy self-efficacy beliefs mean score. The results showed a significance level of $p < 0.05$ for the Pearson correlation between prospective teachers' lifelong

learning tendency and their information literacy self-efficacy. The research found a moderate but significant positive relationship between prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendency and their information literacy self-efficacy ($r = 0.47$, $p < 0.01$). Breivik (2000) stressed that information literacy skills constitute a basis for lifelong learning in the present world, where information increases very rapidly and technologies used to access that information change rapidly. Breivik (2000) also stated that information literacy is a means to lifelong learning. Information societies can overcome challenges through an information-literate society which adopts the goal of lifelong learning as a principle. Individuals acquiring lifelong knowledge and skills in the present information societies will be the individuals knowing how to utilize the information in different situations. It is seen that lifelong learning and information literacy concepts attract the attention of researchers in different countries at the present time. Dudziak (2007) found out that there has been an increasing interest in the topics of information literacy and lifelong learning as a result of attempts of librarians in Latin America in recent years. In that study, it was concluded that information literacy and lifelong learning are essential factors for a continuing progress of democracy which has to be built on strong foundations in Latin America.

Conclusion

The need to deal with rapid changes in science and technology in the 21st century and adapting to the conditions of information society has led to the need for lifelong learning. The importance of school in promoting a lifelong learning society can never be underestimated. The duration and quality of the education received in schools has a critical importance for the skills and motivation required for successful learning in subsequent years, and so a lifelong learning strategy should cover also the compulsory school years (Demirel, 2009). The basic condition of lifelong learning, whose target population comprises of citizens from every segment and every age group of the society, is information literacy (Candy, 1994; Iannuzzi, Mangrum and Strichart, 1999; Breivik, 2000; Akkoyunlu, 2008).

The present study examined the lifelong learning tendencies and information literacy self-efficacy beliefs of prospective teachers. According to the study findings, prospective teachers have strong tendencies towards lifelong learning and were confident on information literacy self-efficacies. While the lifelong learning tendencies of students do not change according to computer usage skills, a significant difference was found in favor of female students and senior students. In addition, a significant difference was found in favor of students who have high academic perception, who are

willing to pursue an academic career and who believe that they will be successful in their business lives.

No difference was found in the information literacy self-efficacies of students according to gender and grade, but a significant difference was found in favor of computer usage skills, achievement belief, willingness to pursue an academic career and belief in achievement in business life. Self-efficacy beliefs were high among students who have strong computer usage skills, which are willing to pursue an academic career and who believe that they will be successful in their business lives. An intermediate positive relationship ($r = 0.466$) was found between lifelong learning tendencies and information literacy self-efficacy beliefs. According to the findings, it can be said that these features increase together. Individuals acquiring lifelong knowledge and skills in the present information societies will be the individuals knowing how to transfer the information to different situations.

Lifelong learning is a principle that students should develop throughout their life. University education alone is insufficient to achieve this goal. For that reason, the philosophy of lifelong learning should be taken as a basis and particular educational experiences should be constituted in all the educational stages, starting from preschool stage, in order to introduce features such as learning how to learn, information literacy, efficient use of learning resources, setting and achieving learning objectives, and attaching importance to information and personal development. Educational policies and curricula within universities should be structured to promote the tendency to lifelong learning.

The only way of creating a lifelong learner and information literate society is to train teachers who possess both lifelong learning tendencies, information literacy skills and a high level of efficacy for these skills and support their training by the governmental policies. Undoubtedly, realization of these aims will require time, patience, funding, and cooperation among education specialists, librarians, and government authorities. Teachers need to learn new skills and become lifelong learners themselves to keep up to date with new knowledge, pedagogical ideas, and technology. Besides, educational policies in teacher training programs should be structured to promote the tendency towards lifelong learning and information literacy. It is hoped that this research will serve as a catalyst for the teacher training or in-service teacher training programs to seriously initiate discussions around the importance of lifelong learning and information literacy skills for promoting knowledge based societies while taking into account some of the suggestions offered.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

The pedagogical challenges of English for specific purposes (ESP) teaching at the University of Muhammadiyah Malang, Indonesia

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The current study explores the challenges faced by English for specific purposes (ESP) program at University of Muhammadiyah Malang (UMM), Indonesia. As a part of their commitment to improvement, this university is working to better prepare students for employment so that they may function well in their workplaces. Currently, many English Department graduates apply and are accepted as ESP teachers. However, their pedagogical knowledge of ESP teaching is deemed to be less than adequate for such purposes. To do this, classroom observation and interview were undertaken to explore the multiple realities of the three groups of stakeholders at this institution – the management, ESP teachers, and students. The findings showed four aspects which ought to be crucially applied in ESP classrooms but are relatively absent. Those are communication focus, learner-centred, collaborative teaching and practical and authentic materials. Since several aspects of ESP teaching are not quite similar to teaching General English (GE), but GE still can be included to support the ESP teaching, the Director of Language Centre (LC) need to reconsider the type of ESP fits this contexts, and teachers who are willing to deal with these classes need to understand and possibly be given and trained intensively in relation to its pedagogy.

Key words: Stakeholders, ESP (English for Specific Purposes), Pedagogical Challenges, General English (GE).

INTRODUCTION

As an area of instruction, English for specific purposes (ESP) has been steadily growing since its inception in 1960. As a result of globalization influence, ESP has become a key part of English as Foreign Language (EFL) teaching around the world. The idea of adopting ESP in Indonesian classrooms both at schools and universities

cannot be avoided. However, the adoption was not accompanied by understanding the principles of ESP (Marwan, 2009).

Similar to the recent study which focus on looking at how the graduate teachers' at Universitas Muhammadiyah Malang (UMM) respond to ESP class at

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tertiary level, a study by Rajabi et al. (2012) has examined in-service ESP teacher training programs in India. This research was conducted because researchers felt that ESP teachers were not sufficiently trained in all four skill areas. A population of 423 Iranian ESP teachers responded to a questionnaire. This was followed by selecting 120 teachers, and assigning them to four groups, two experimental and two control groups.

The experimental groups participated in a ten week ESP in-service teacher training program. The outcomes of statistical analysis revealed the influential and constructive role of the training program on the beliefs and classroom practices of ESP teachers. The study also found significant difference between the achievements of students who were taught by trained ESP instructors compared to those who were taught by untrained ESP instructors.

Other studies have been conducted to determine how the teaching training context affects the graduates teaching competence. This includes studies in English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English as a Second Language (ESL) and ESP contexts. For example, Gorsev and Volkan (2010) found half of the participating ESP teacher trainers believed that the methods and activities provided in their programs were sufficient, but generally not particularly useful due to the number of students in their classes. Their other findings showed that the teaching strategies were mostly concerned with translating texts; with a heavy emphasis on grammar, accuracy and memorization.

A small scale research conducted by Ali (2015) was looking at ESP Teacher Education Model in Indonesia, and found that some factors were not sufficiently fulfilled by the teachers lead to serious issues in its pedagogical implementation. For example, the ESP teachers did not have any qualification in English teaching. Even though some of them possessed English teaching qualifications, they were mostly inexperienced and new. Consequently, they have insufficient ESP knowledge. This is of course affects their teaching capacity. Furthermore, Paniya (2008) in her research claimed that due to the inadequacy, the ESP instruction in Indonesia has been limited to specialized lexicon and sentence structures and this ignored the learners' interest.

Yet, not many research are conducted to examine the ESP teaching at tertiary level in Indonesia. One of them was conducted by Marwan (2009), and found that the problem lied in students' motivation and unmatched syllabus and students' needs of English learning.

The context of the study

University of Muhammadiyah Malang (UMM) is committed to preparing its students for employment. Upon graduation, students are expected to be able to

function in workplaces, and to be ready to accept the challenges that exist within these. To be able to answer the challenges of the global world, English is deemed to be a crucial skill that should be mastered by all students and staff, both academic and administrative.

To achieve this goal, the University of Muhammadiyah Malang, Indonesia (UMM) established a Language Centre (LC) in 1993. At UMM there are two divisions taking charge of English teaching. The first is English Department (ED) UMM which prepares its graduates to be an English teacher. The primary goal is preparing graduates to teach at primary or secondary schools. However many ED graduates apply for tertiary level teaching position at LC UMM. When accepted, they are expected to handle the ESP classes.

ESP is the LC program for all freshmen enrolled at UMM. During the first year (two semesters) of their study, students in both the English and non-English Departments take different ESP courses depending on their majors. For example, students from the Mathematics Department study English for mathematics purposes. Thus, the ESP program provides English skill development so that students can read and comprehend English text books, journals, and articles in their disciplines. In addition, by undertaking this course, it is expected that students build their spoken and written English communication skills.

However, several complaints were expressed by many including the Director of LC, that ED graduates were not considered capable of taking ESP teaching responsibilities (Bestari, 2010). It is vital that future English teachers develop the competencies needed for the task of teaching, so that they can adapt to the kinds of challenges that will occur in their careers. This is particularly important as there are frequent complaints when they confront the realities of the classroom (Wati, 2011). Clearly, it is important to explore the challenges of ESP teaching using empirical data to inform the policy makers at all levels at UMM in order to take appropriate measurement to improve the situation. Thus, this study seeks the information if the ESP teachers at the LC in which they are also the English Department (ED) UMM have been equipped with the principles of ESP pedagogy?

METHODOLOGY

The present study was designed to examine information if the ESP teachers at the LC have been equipped with the principles of ESP pedagogy. It does so using a descriptive qualitative approach.

The philosophical assumption underpinning this qualitative approach is constructivism. "Constructivism or naturalistic inquiry studies real world situations as they unfold naturally, in unobtrusive, non-controlling ways, and with openness to whatever emerges" (Tuckman and Harper, 2012).

To know the answer, there is a reliance on the voices of the informants through extensive use of quotes, and the interpretation

Table 1. The managements' profiles.

Unit/ Division/ Faculty	Qualification	Overseas experiences	Years of service
Language centre	Doctorate	Yes	23
Faculty of Medical Science	Specialist Doctor	Yes	6
Faculty of Social Politics	Doctorate	Yes	23
Faculty of Agriculture and Husbandry	Doctorate	Yes	23
Faculty of Psychology	Master	No	27
Faculty of Engineering	Master	Yes	27

based on themes that reflect the words used by the participants (Wallen and Fraenkel, 2001). As suggested by Van Maanen (1988) the representation of the participants' views through these closely edited quotations is checked in such a way that they have the final word on the interpretation. Hence, there is a need for collection of intensive descriptive data to allow for interpretation (Wolcott, 1997; Wiersma, 2000).

The data were collected by interviewing the members of three cohorts to construct multiple realities which were explored from the perspectives of the different research participants. This yielded different conceptualizations of challenges of ESP pedagogy. Following Van Maanen (1988) the quotes taken to represent the voices of the participants were checked to ensure their veracity. In this way it was possible in this study to examine the goals, reasons, motives, feelings, perspectives, and assumptions.

Central to this study are tapping the experiences and the expectations those who are directly involved in English language teaching and learning at UMM, namely the management – that is the Deans of Faculties as well as the Director of the LC, the ESP teachers at UMM and students who are enrolled at ESP program. Participants from each of these three groups were selected using Purposive sampling. This sampling technique was chosen since the author believe that participants will provide the data they need (Fraenkel et al., 2014). Even though generalization to the larger population outside of this university is not possible, nor was it the goal of the study, the outcomes may prove useful to other Higher Education institutions, particularly those wishing to improve the English outcomes of their students through programs such as ESP.

The management level is to include primary people involved in the recruitment ESP teachers. The Deans of the Faculties were making decisions about the subjects, skills, and the syllabus for their students. Thus, the Deans and the LC Director's expectations of English include not only the goals of the English syllabus, but also the expectations they have about the level of the teachers' English competence.

Of the possible 12 people, six were willing to take part in an individual interview. This group consisted of the key policy makers from various faculties. The group varied in their teaching experience, academic qualifications, their English backgrounds, and overseas experience. However, most had been a faculty member for more than twenty years. The profile of those participating as representatives of the employer group is outlined in Table 1.

The other key stakeholders in this study are the ESP teachers. Their involvement was considered important since the researcher wants to know the difficulties they encountered in teaching ESP as well as the reasons. Many of these are also graduates of this university the ED in particular. 12 out of 20 them agreed to participate in the study. They were willing individually interviewed. Eight of these were part-time and four were full-time teachers. Nine had three or more years teaching experience. Three had a master's qualification either from Indonesia or from overseas, and nine had a

bachelor degree. The abbreviations of the teachers' names were used to maintain its confidentiality. The profile of ESP teacher group is outlined in Table 2. The next group was the students. Students are the persons who are affected directly by all education policies and decisions. Therefore, their opinions of the program are worth considering.

In this study, this group was drawn from the larger cohort of all freshmen who were enrolled at the target university, and who all study ESP in their first year (two semesters) of study. The students who participated in this study were all volunteers (n=22), and were specifically selected to represent the different majors offered at this university. They participated in focus group discussions. As they were being taught English by teachers from the LC at the time of the study, they were able to offer unique perspectives about delivery of the ESP program. The Focus Group Discussion (FGD) were conducted three times because this is when the saturation point occurred. The students' names were abbreviated to maintain confidentiality (Tables 3 to 5).

The first step of analysis involved reading the text data over and over to gain an initial, but thorough impression of the data. Next the themes that emerged were colour coded by hand in order to get a closer look at the data and to gain a strong feel for it. In doing so the researcher was required to read in depth and to use a 'think-aloud' strategy (Fraenkel et al., 2012) before and during coding of the transcripts.

The development of themes or categories was done through the process of data redundancy. Data redundancy is a method that enables the sorting out of unimportant information so that only information which directly answers the research questions is retained (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

Each of the emergent themes was categorized and named. To do this, the researcher did not directly use those terms frequently mentioned by the participants, but rather identified overarching terms.

RESULTS

In dealing with the issue of ED UMM graduates' teaching capacity, every person involved in this program should be very careful not to focus only on a single factor. Two things need thoughtful consideration: first, how is the notion of ESP defined in this context? And, are the pedagogical requirements of ESP teaching implemented and supported in this context?

The Notion of ESP at UMM context

To define ESP in this context is not quite easy. There are

Table 2. The ESP teachers' profiles.

Initials	Gender	Status	Qualification	Years of service
TA	Female	Part-time	Master of education policy	5
IBW	Male	Part-time	Master of education policy	5
THS	Male	Part-time	Master of English education	5
PE	Female	Part-time	Bachelor of English education	4
KNW	Female	Full-time	Bachelor of English education	4
ZE	Male	Part-time	Master of Education policy	3.5
HA	Female	Part-time	Bachelor of English education	3
FM	Female	Part-time	Master of English education	3
OR	Female	Full-time	Bachelor of English education	3
SI	Female	Full-time	Bachelor of English education	1.5
HDK	Female	Full-time	Bachelor of English education	1.5
LR	Female	Full-time	Bachelor of English education	1

Table 3. Students' profile FGD 1.

Students' Initials	Faculty	Department
WJ	Social politics	International relations
AM	Social politics	International relations
OC	Social politics	International relations
AZ	Economics	Management
TW	Education	English
RM	Education	English

Table 4. Students' profile FGD 2.

Students' initials	Faculty	Department
TP	Economics	Accounting
AM	Economics	Accounting
TK	Economics	Accounting
FL	Education	Math and Computing
GG	Education	Math and Computing
RN	Education	English
ES	Health Science	Pharmacy

Table 5. Students' profile FGD 3.

Students' Initials	Faculty	Department
DA	Education	Math and Computing
RN	Education	Math and Computing
ER	Education	Math and Computing
NV	Health Science	Pharmacy
AR	Engineering	Electro
YD	Engineering	Electro
HR	Engineering	Electro

two factors that merit consideration: students and teachers readiness for ESP.

Students' readiness for ESP

Findings emerge from the teacher data was the students' lack of readiness for ESP. This was due to two factors which are: the freshmen have low levels of English proficiency when they enter UMM, and the teachers lack the capacity to engage fully with ESP teaching. This lack of the capacity in teachers impacted significantly on their classroom management.

According to ESP teachers, many of the students at UMM are not actually ready for the level of instruction incumbent in the ESP program. ESP, as the name suggests, is the teaching of English related to students' majors. It means that students are supposed to already understand and be able to use Basic English. ESP contains specific materials and subject related terminology, however, the teachers were often unable to cover this in the first semester because many students had still not mastered Basic English. However, even when teachers returned to using General English materials, some of which as low as those targeted at the high school level, many students still experienced difficulties with the English learning. An indicative selection of comment included:

My expectation is that teaching of English should be of higher measure than the students of senior high school. However, I still found many errors on WH questions when I was teaching yesterday, so I guess for the next 6 class meetings I will still review that. What I used is actually for senior high school, but they still made mistakes on that. They did not realize they were making those kinds of mistakes (Teacher TAD).

The low quality of the UMM students intake may be a factor contributing to the proficiency level of the students. Unlike state universities which are mostly funded by the government, as a private university UMM is self-financed. Despite UMM being one of the best private universities, UMM accepts a large number of students (five to six thousand per year) who may not be accepted by the State Universities. Thus, such an economic imperative has impacted on the selection process, especially in the less favoured departments and this, in turn, influences the quality of the students.

Specifically, it appears that many students are not really at an acceptable university entry level. As teachers cannot do anything to change this top-down recruitment policy, they adjust their expectations of students' learning outcomes. A further consequence of the recruitment policy is that teachers have to deal with a great range in the students' levels of English competence. Although

there appears to be a number who find English difficult, other students do have sufficient level of English and are more than capable of achieving well in their English course.

Therefore, students' mixed ability appeared to impact the ESP administration in the classroom level. One teacher was concerned that introducing ESP at the beginning of the students' first semester might shock them so much that they would stay away from the ESP classes altogether. She wanted to introduce ESP when she was sure that the students were ready for it. She viewed students' engagement in learning to be far more important and more difficult to grow and so this became her priority. The comment below shows the concern:

Basically, the teachers introduced the language in senior high school. But here I try not to shock them by focusing on their major. I try to take their heart first, and try to attract them by teaching the general English in different ways. After which it will be much easier to put some elements of mechanical engineering into the listening class (Teacher HA).

Teachers' readiness for ESP

As a consequence of the low English proficiency of the majority of freshmen at UMM, most ESP teachers actually focus on General English (GE). However, teaching ESP is not only problematic because of the students' ability, LC teaching staff also admitted their concern about being able to teach ESP effectively. Two teachers admitted that ED prepared its graduates for teaching GE at high school level not ESP at a tertiary level. So there was an obvious mismatch between the curriculum and the prevalence of teachers who had an adequate level of skills and knowledge to teach ESP. Hence, many of the teaching staff expressed the desire for ED UMM to support its teaching graduates more fully. The comment below shows the concern:

I once proposed an idea to the Head of English Department UMM that, English Department students should be trained in the LC in order to be skilful in teaching and handling ESP students. However, this typical skill is different from what English Department students get during their teaching practice in junior and senior high school classes as part of the internship program, which merely requires them to teach general English. They have less background for handling university students. In the English Department, there is actually an ESP course. However, it only covers some theories, philosophy, design, and ESP teaching strategies, without training in practical skills. In my opinion, it remains "homework" for English Department to equip its students with practical skills in teaching ESP

(Teacher IBW).

Three ESP teachers commented that when they were studying they did not learn enough about pedagogy. They maintained that once they engaged in professional teaching they still need to develop themselves and, in fact, they will always need to keep on learning. Despite this they did indicate that they believed that the ED UMM does provide its graduates with sufficient teaching skills, and when they are teaching they can make use of those strategies and techniques to deal with ESP subjects and the specific terminology of the course. Here is the example of comment:

Yes, that's right, because in every meeting I have to really prepare things for the students. I am afraid there will be questions that I cannot answer since every department has its own particular terms (Teacher TAD).

When dealing with ESP teaching knowledge, one teacher suggested the problem lies in the syllabus design which is too general. In addition, she indicated that the syllabus was rarely provided to the teachers at the beginning of the semester, therefore, she had to rely only on the general guidelines that were available, rather than writing specific lesson plans and because of this, it was difficult to implement ESP in classes. She suggested there was a need to develop a different, but specific syllabus for each faculty. Another teacher also suggested having a specific syllabus with alternative teaching materials so that teachers may choose. She called it 'a teaching library'. She added that it would be better if the materials and handouts had already been tested. She suggested that students would be happier and potentially more active in their learning. Such an approach would also assist teachers with preparation. Another suggestion was that LC could have an orientation or make some kind of classroom observation available for new contract teachers. This teacher considered this way could possibly reduce teachers' feelings of anxiety and confusion. The indicative comments below are the example:

All the teaching staffs are from the English Department so as far as the content of teaching is concerned; the material though is beyond their discipline. They did not receive the ESP material during their study in the English Department. The curriculum only covered English teaching... something (is needed) connected to English and methods to teach English as a foreign language. So the teaching staffs probably have difficulties in understanding ESP themselves (Teacher THS).

I got into difficulties and was confused at that time as I didn't understand what was conducive for teaching. I should have known this before teaching real classes. At the least I should be able to observe some teachers who have been teaching here for a while. When I came to this

institution, I got confused about what to do. So I read and asked some colleagues how to deal with the students; how to make a nice lesson plan (Teacher RRR).

ESP, as the name suggests, is the teaching of English related to students' specific language purposes. Underlying this is the belief that students already understand and are able to use English sufficiently at a general level. However, many students at the target University are not actually at this level.

In the broader context of Indonesia, English is not used in daily communication and most people have limited exposure to the language even though they may have studied it at school and at the tertiary level. Therefore, the introduction of ESP in their first and second semester of tertiary study comes as a shock to many students.

Consequently, a number of teachers reported reverting to teaching GE due to students' low English ability. This is similar to the findings of Marwan (2009) study in which he found there was a mismatch between the reality of students' English proficiency and curriculum expectations. He considered this an urgent problem that needs fixing. Students should be taught in a way that addresses their language needs and the lessons provided to them should be within their competency range.

As many of the LC ESP teachers focused on teaching GE in their ESP classes were supported by the facts that even many experts are still in the state of confusion about the fundamental differences between ESP and GE. Given the long debate amongst scholars about ESP and GE this distinction is still using Dudley-Evans and St. John, (1998: 4-5). They describe these characteristics in the following ways:

Absolute characteristics

1. ESP is defined to meet the specific needs of the learners.
2. ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves.
3. ESP is centred on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

Variable characteristics

1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines.
2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English.
3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level.
4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.
5. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of

the language systems.

It should be noted that Dudley-Evans and St. John are not described as an absolute characteristic that 'ESP is in contrast with General English' (1998). In fact, they assert that ESP is not necessarily related to a specific discipline (Gatehouse, 2001).

In contrast, others assert that ESP courses are distinct as they are needs driven (Gatehouse, 2001; Wright, 1992). However, teachers and educators in many institutions now consider that GE should also consider needs of learners. For example, Anthony (1997) states that:

Rather ironically, while many General English teachers can be described as using an ESP approach, basing their syllabi on a learner needs analysis and their own specialist knowledge of using English for real communication (p.2).

Furthermore, in most situations the notion of ESP cannot be completely separated from GE. This is because many workplaces do not only use technical English; instead much communication is done using non-technical language. Even if technical English does predominate in those workforces, the role of GE in clarifying these technical terms cannot be ignored.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987), similarly claim that the teaching of ESP is, in many ways, similar to the teaching of GE although there are features that are typical in different specialized subjects. Similarly, McDonough (1984) states the ESP teaching should not be recognized as a separate development from language teaching in general. Wright (1992) however, does describe one difference: GE is concerned with everyday life and those universal topics (of GE) are socializing, shopping, traveling, eating out, telephoning friends. So when one learns a language, one must be exposed to linguistic items relating to these universal topics.

Therefore, an ESP course may contain material pertaining to a GE course but, according to Wright (1992:1) "when we reach the stage at which any topic constitutes an individual's profession, it becomes crucial that he have mastery of the specialized language pertaining to it." In this way ESP builds upon what has been learnt and studied in earlier GE classes. In other words, ESP and GE are not separate, but rather are two approaches that complement each other.

However, as Brunton (2009) points out, the line where GE courses stop and ESP courses begin has become very vague. On this basis Brunton (2009) propose General English for Specific Purposes (GESP). GESP emerged from the research undertaken by Brunton (2009) which examined the specific attitudes of students toward GE and ESP courses.

A case study was conducted in the five star hotels in

Taiwan with 10 employees. Even though the management of the hotel wanted to concentrate on ESP teaching due to the constraints of time and money, it was found that the majority of participants wanted to learn GE. Hence, Brunton's research supports the claim that GE empowers students within the workplace domain.

At the same time, Brunton (2009) argues that GE teachers must acknowledge that every learner has specific purposes in mind when study English. These drivers may be as broad as being able to communicate for daily interaction on social networks like Facebook, to writing an email to friends or colleagues, to understanding what is being written in a particular manual guide, to being able to create videos or audio files that can be enjoyed by an international audience, or to being able to keep informed of current political, economic, and social aspects locally and globally.

Yu and Xiao (2013) argue that designing an ESP course also requires a considerable amount of GE along with an integrated functional and technical language for the targeted situation. Moreover, the objective of the course must be authentic to meet the needs of students so that they are motivated and their achievement is supported. This is supported by Dörnyei (2001) who argues that having a clear purpose behind materials selection will promote student motivation. This assertion is similar to what Xenodohidis (2002) suggests in an ESP curriculum for Greek students, namely that the goals of learning should be made practical or students will not be engaged in the learning process.

The pedagogical challenges of ESP teaching in this context

Communication as a part of ESP pedagogy

It is important that appropriate ESP pedagogy is incorporated into the curriculum. According to all three groups- management, teachers, and students (to various degrees), developing communicative English should be the priority. To achieve this, many of the teachers described how a key factor for successful language learning is language use.

However, some also described how speaking is the hardest skill to develop since students need to have confidence in order to produce the target language. In response to this, others suggested that students needed to be able to read and to listen a lot because this gives them the type of models of English they need in order to speak well.

Although it was clear from the range of responses that being able to communicate orally in English is a key every student needs, what appeared less clear from the responses is how this might be achieved. Many shared the belief that people should start to learn a language by

speaking it, not simply by developing an understanding of grammatical knowledge. For example:

When I was learning English in junior high school, we just learnt about grammar, and we couldn't speak. It's so difficult to speak if we only learn grammar in the first place. I can speak English; I learnt this first by feeling confident to speak in English (Student RTD)

Other students highlighted the difficulty they had encountered while learning English, particularly during their school years. For example, they indicated that although it is a compulsory subject in Indonesian high schools, their ability to communicate is not well developed. They described how they were required to memorise many grammatical patterns rather than being encouraged to learn how and when to use them. For example, one student described it this way:

I think we have been studying English since we were in elementary school, but we still need to master English. It's an international language.... English is a must do subject. I will feel happy if I am able to speak it, but now I feel frustrated that I can't express particular ideas that I want to say. I really want to be able to speak as fluently as English speaking people (Student HTR).

Clearly there is a need to develop the students' communicative competence, and there was a range of suggestions how this might be achieved. The consensus was that there should not be a focus only on grammar, but rather teachers need to encompass communicative language teaching into their practice. The difficulty at present is that teachers often do not have the skills to achieve this.

Learning-centred teaching

At the target university several ESP classes observed indicate that teacher-centred approach was still used. For example, the teaching strategies used by many during the teaching of reading were translation, text presentation, and jigsaw tasks. In the translation activities, the teachers together with their students, translated a reading text line by line. As each new line was encountered, the teacher would point to a student to read aloud.

During these occasions, the teacher sometimes corrected their pronunciation. In listening classes a different situation was observed. The teacher in this class played very long recordings without stopping. Further, the students were not given a handout, so it was difficult for them to do the exercises. However, the teacher justified this based on previous students' behaviour. Here is the concern:

Yes, I don't give them the handout. Yes, because I want them to focus. What happened when I gave my handout? They copied it from other classes; they not only copied the questions but also the answers so I try not to do that anymore. I changed it from a handout into a slide. Because they were cheating I don't give them a handout anymore (Teacher HA).

The element of trust and freedom for students were missing accordingly when teachers employed very strict controlled-activities which result in fear and not joyful learning.

Collaborative teaching

Collaborative teaching was another teaching strategy suggested by the employers at UMM as a way to overcome some of the current problems with the LC. Collaborative teaching involves two teachers: a language teacher and a content teacher working together in the classroom at the same time. The deans of the faculties agreed that a collaborative teaching approach would help address the problem of the language teachers lacking content knowledge and the content teachers lacking the linguistic background to assist the teachers sufficiently well. Two of the opinions show the concern:

Some technical terminology could be introduced by engineering lecturers. LC teaching staff might find it confusing to introduce this. Those technical terms should be introduced by lecturers in particular majors (Dean 1). I am aware that it is the most crucial challenge in teaching ESP, especially when the ESP teachers have no background in Psychology. They might fail to recognize some technical terminology in Psychology. The ideal condition is when ESP teachers are those with a background in Psychology and are highly-proficient in English. Students could get the most out of them actually. We have tried to assign our Psychology lecturers to teach ESP. However, this was ineffective as the number of Psychology lecturers never sufficed to cover all ESP classes. However, there are apparently no more requests from LC. I hope LC will offer more opportunity for our Psychology lecturers to teach ESP (Dean BY).

Further, the employers also suggested another type of collaborative teaching: namely teacher-student collaborative teaching. For example:

This is my proposed model. In teaching ESP, the teachers could collaborate with a number of students. Teachers and students could discuss certain topics related to Psychology. In this case, teachers are actually learning some technical terminology from our students. An ideal process is when teachers learn from students

and students learn from the teachers. ESP teachers could assist our students in terms of using correct English grammar and sentence construction. Also, ESP teachers could train our students to express their ideas and opinions in English. This two-way-directional teaching and learning strategy is worth implementing for better ESP classes (Dean BY).

The director of LC proposed yet another model of collaborative teaching, one in which the department teachers and the English teachers teach the ESP classes together. This model is considered feasible since some department teachers obtained either their master or doctoral degrees overseas in English speaking countries. See the comment below:

What I mean is this, some of the ESP teachers are not from LC but are from the departments. You know some of them finished studying from overseas. So their English competence is good, that is not questionable so they deserve to share the body of knowledge together with their students. I think later the final outcome or the final effort should be like this. The ESP is not given by ED graduates, but by the lecturers from the departments (Director MDK).

ESP materials development

What have been done by ESP teachers at the target university were developing materials accordance with the things that have been given when they were studying at English Department. This is contradicting with principles of developing ESP material claimed by some scholars. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) claim that sourcing appropriate material is one of the crucial roles for ESP teachers. Such materials should help prepare students to function outside the classroom, such as in their future workplaces.

For example, when some teachers were observed, their favourite material was to find out the main ideas of the paragraphs in the reading passages. Of course, this might be difficult for non-English Department students and could possibly think they did not need this type of materials. Despite the students' difficulty, they continue to use this. In the interviews, when asked about this, the teachers said they had to give their students difficult English materials and push their students. For example:

I have taught them the main ideas, how to find the main ideas, how to find supporting sentences, how to find implicit information through scanning and skimming. So I think inference is hard for them (Teacher FBS).

In another interview one teacher said that she gave higher level materials to her students to challenge them. The example shows the concern:

I was also aware that my students found the activity difficult and confusing. I actually wanted to present the text according to the definition. However, as my students could utilize some keywords from the book and they had a dictionary with them, I challenged them with a more sophisticated task that encouraged them to learn and try (Teacher AKD).

Yet another teacher considered that she needed to equip students with the ability to complete Test of English as Foreign Language (TOEFL) reading tests. She did this as it was used as part of the students' assessment and, on this basis she described teaching for this test as her focus.

One teacher indicated that she taught grammar even though the main goal of the Reading syllabus was to improve students' understanding of texts. She did this because she wanted to make sure that students in her class produced grammatically correct sentences when answering questions. However, when observing the class a number of her students looked disinterested.

In addition, when undertaking a reading lesson most teachers moved to the main content of the lesson after a brief introduction. During this part of the lesson, most teachers explain key content, concepts and theories before students were given a range of exercises to complete, often based on a text that the class was examining together. From the interviews, it appeared that the teachers considered it necessary to provide the students with this initial information to avoid confusion once the students undertook the assigned tasks.

Student participants said that the students' lack of readiness for the ESP program is mainly due to teachers' poor teaching ability and particularly their inappropriate choice of materials. For example, some students indicated that they found that the ESP teachers used teaching materials almost identical to those used by the English Department for teaching general English. The comment below shows the concern:

In my opinion, students think that in the ESP program the material is almost the same as those used in the English Department. So what is the difference between ESP and General English in our class? (Student TW).

DISCUSSION

This study found several issues of ESP teaching which confirm the previous research. First, there are several characteristics of ESP discussed in the literature elsewhere that ESP must be 'carefully delineated and addressed with tailored to fit instruction for specific learners in the specific contexts' (Belcher, 2006). However, to understand specific types of learners is not easy at UMM context. Students at UMM are very diverse

in terms of their needs, motivations of studying at tertiary level, their school experiences, their English achievements, and their priority of life. For example, in regard to students' low English ability, there are some possible factors as well.

Students enrolled at UMM came from different geographical regions- remote areas and capital and big cities- which resulting to different types of English learning experiences. Majority of students from remote and some small cities as well in FGD express a negative experience of English teaching due to its grammar teaching focus. This teaching strategy developed students' rote-learning and memorization so students were missing the pleasant and enjoyable sides of learning. And when students did not feel the enjoyable moment in their learning, their motivation decreased and this will affect their English learning outcomes in the long run.

In fact, their negative learning experiences would never be easily vanished from their memory and they tended not wanting to improve their English. In addition to geographical difference, the mixed students' level of English competence may also the source of problem in ESP classrooms at UMM. However, Language centre as the unit that in charge of ESP program with over six thousand freshmen enrolled seems to employ one program fit for all.

Moreover, at the classroom level many teachers were emphasising more on teaching grammar than focusing on preparing learners 'for chosen communicative environments. Even in communication or speaking classes, many were still trying to focus more on accuracy than fluency. As this is contradictive with what Mohan (1986) has said. Mohan (1986) adds that ESP courses focus on preparing learners 'for chosen communicative environments.' Whilst Lorenzo (2005) reminds us that ESP 'concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures.'

This would bring some serious drawbacks. First, the development in the learner of a capacity to communicate is neglected, and in most ESP materials, the learner is presented with uninspiring content and language exercises which lack any clear communication focus. As a result, ESP is, at present, a rather un-communicative form of language teaching.

These phenomena were also proved true in many EFL and ESL contexts. Teachers were found to continue teaching discrete aspects of the language (e.g., vocabulary and grammar). This was shown by a study undertaken by Yu and Xiao (2013). They found ESP teachers in China did focus on these. This pedagogical approach, according to Gao (2007), ignores the learners' academic and personal interests. This results in low motivation for the students and potentially substandard performance in their communication in which communication skills are crucial for the workforce.

Other pedagogical aspect that should be fulfilled in ESP classroom is Learner-centred. This was barely found in many ESP classrooms at UMM. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) claims that learning centeredness as integral parts of ESP. At UMM even though teachers had employed variety of teaching techniques, this did not automatically change the centrality of the teachers' roles. This is because teacher-centred class instruction is deeply embedded in Indonesian school settings; this type of instruction has become a part in the Indonesian school culture (Bjork, 2005).

Research does show that students prefers learner-centred learning, for example, Eslami (2010), undertaking research in Iran, found that students preferred learner-centred classes and demanded more involvement in class activities. However, teachers' perception of students' proficiency was found to impact their use of learner-centred activities, with a perception of lower ability resulting in lower use. This study also suggested that appropriate institutional support, such as providing professional development for teachers, providing release time, and funds for teachers (Parkhurst and Bodwell, 2005) was needed to help familiarize the teachers with methodologies that lead to greater use of learner-centred approaches. At the same time teachers need to make an effort to keep up-to-date with teaching methods to be able to facilitate interactive classrooms for their students.

Third, the notion of collaborative and team teaching activities in ESP programs become the crucial issue in ESP pedagogy. These have been proposed by many scholars, such as Croker (1981) and Johns and Swales (2002). Quite some time ago Crocker (1981) suggested that ESP teaching would be better implemented by two teachers who focus on different roles, but who also support each other. Although this may be complex it may be more efficient than being undertaken by either English or content teachers alone (Northcott and Brown, 2006; Ghafournia and Sabet 2014). Central to this proposition is closer cooperation between both teachers.

An example of how this could be achieved is provided in a study by Northcott and Brown (2006). They explored the interaction between language translators and law lecturers. They found that due to the complexity of translating and interpreting legal terminology, neither the legal nor language experts could accomplish the tasks appropriately on their own and only when done cooperatively could the most precise translation and learning be achieved. Thus, it is clear that in the context of ESP English teachers cannot work independently and require a close cooperation with content specialists to remove any potential ambiguities.

What was suggested by Northcott and Brown (2006) was relatively difficult to implemented at the LC UMM.

This is because of the contract system borne on ESP teachers' status. Prior to signing contract agreement, staff were aware that they have up to three year contract

position at the LC. The “come and go” system creates further concerns. The common concern is to terminate teaching service of those who were more experienced and replace them with the new and inexperienced ones. Many experienced and senior department teachers refused to have teaching collaboration with inexperienced ones.

To overcome this situation, LC had invited the Department lecturers who were also overseas graduates to teach some ESP classes in their departments, but they usually put priority to teach their department subjects. The department lecturers were given some ESP classes if their departments had fewer students which meant also fewer teaching obligation.

It should be noted, however, that this could be expensive in terms of time and money and raise practical difficulties due to the inherent dissimilarities between English and subject disciplines. In this respect, Early (1981) also suggested that ESP teachers cannot be expected to possess knowledge of subject matter in depth although his or her knowledge about the language of the specialist subject should be adequate. However, such collaboration requires a level of maturity and confidence as otherwise it may cause the teacher to feel insecure (Abbot, 1978) about his or her social status as a teacher. Fourth, what teachers had done in their ESP classroom clearly contradicted with the one of the ESP pedagogy was material development. The ESP material design has been accounted by scholars and ESP pioneers.

According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) materials should be selected so that they address learners’ needs, and have an “emphasis on practical outcomes”. On this basis Gatehouse (2001) and Graves (2000) have explicitly recommended that the material development should be based on Needs Analysis (NA) since it is “the corner stone of ESP, and leads to a focused course” (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

At UMM ESP classrooms themselves, there was variety of English materials from Basic GE to more focusing on terminology of specific disciplines; from grammar-focused teaching to more communication focus. In addition, ESP teachers faced challenges of a great variety of students’ expectations from the needs of being able to communicate in English for daily purposes to securing or surviving either in job competition stage or in the workplaces themselves. Clearly the lack of systematic NA contributes the inappropriateness and the great variety of material selection. Most of new recruited and inexperienced teachers usually used the teaching materials they had learnt during the instruction at ED UMM. The teaching materials such as finding the main ideas in the paragraph and the element of essay writing were considered less practical for non ED students.

In this regard, Gatehouse (2001) states materials should also have a purpose-related orientation

(Gatehouse, 2001). Once again, having a clear purpose behind materials promotes motivation (Dornyei, 2001). Gao (2007) sums up the issues of ESP course design by saying “when designing an ESP course, the primary issue is the analysis of learners’ specific needs”. Other issues to be addressed include: determination of realistic goals and objectives, integration of grammatical functions and the abilities required for future workplace communication.

Conclusion

Clearly the current study provides an answer to the research question above. It is prevalent that ESP teachers at UMM were not sufficiently prepared to handle ESP classes. The teachers seemed ill prepared for the task because of insufficient ESP teaching knowledge and skills resulting in poor teaching capabilities.

There is a need for continuous NA approaches to be undertaken so that the ever-changing gaps between what has been taught and what are the current pedagogical practices in regards to English teaching and learning can be accurately identified. Teachers are more likely to implement new practices well if they receive support while trying them in the classroom. That is why the intensity and duration of the program are important factors to consider when designing a professional development program and these can be planned and achieved when the data about their needs are comprehensive. Further, the professional development needs should be approached from two perspectives:

1. The target language needs that is, to improve and maintain teacher English proficiency and
2. The pedagogical needs that is, to gain knowledge and skills for language teaching.

The employers can play a crucial role in improving the ESP program at UMM. The change from a top-down approach to a more team-work cooperative approach in the construction of the ESP syllabuses would be likely to bring about a positive improvement. It is recommended that such a cooperative approach would involve the Deans of the Faculties or those who represent them, the ED UMM lecturers, ESP teachers, alumni and student representatives. A redesign of this program should offer flexibility for the thousands of freshmen enrolled at this university. A one-size-fits-all approach has long been discredited by research findings (Long, 2005), but is still practiced in many tertiary institutions including UMM.

In order to understand the issues of pedagogical challenges more deeply, the next research should be done by involving the English Department staff. This may be possible exploring further why do or do not academic staff at ED UMM providing ESP principles of pedagogy

as a part of the curriculum in this teaching institution.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

A comparison of burnout levels of preschool teachers in terms of having integration students in their classes or not

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The aim of the present study is to compare burnout levels of preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes and those who do not. The sample of the study consists of 185 preschool teachers working in Isparta city and town centers. The data of the study were collected using the Burnout Inventory developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) and the personal information form designed by the researchers. The data were analyzed with t-Test using SPSS-20. The results of the study showed no statistically significant difference between the burnout levels of preschool teachers' who have integration students in their classes and those who do not.

Key words: Burnout, integration, preschool teachers.

INTRODUCTION

Early childhood education is an educational process which includes the childhood years from birth to elementary school; and is important in terms of providing rich stimulant environmental opportunities suitable with children's development and individual characteristics and supporting children's physical, mental, emotional and social development (MEB, 1993). Preschool period is when the child starts to explore and know his/her environment, communicate with the environment and gain the behaviors and habits that are appropriate for the cultural structure of the society s/he lives in. During this period, when the critical fundamentals of one's personality are formed, the child requires conscious guidance at home, school and in his/her social life (Şahin,

2005). Those who can offer this guidance to children other than their families are preschool teachers. It is considered that fulfilling preschool teachers' tasks effectively and efficiently is significantly influenced by their burnout levels.

Teaching is among the most stressful professions. Burnout that occurs due to job-related stress and the physiological and psychological problems that come out with burnout decreases quality of the profession of teaching (Tuğrul and Çelik, 2002). Stress caused by such factors as disciplinary problems of students, negative student behaviors, crowded classes, lack of support from others, non-willing appointments, role conflict and role ambiguity, criticism to teachers by the public etc. lead to

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burnout in teachers (Farber, 2000). Teachers' burnout affects not only the teachers themselves but also their students and the employer organization. The stress and burnout experienced by teachers is reflected on their students, students' parents, families and administrators as well (Friedman and Farber, 1992).

Burnout is "a syndrome that occurs by the reflection of feelings of physical exhaustion, long-term fatigue, helplessness and hopelessness with negative attitudes towards work, life and others in individuals who are exposed to intensive emotional demands and have to work face to face with other people (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). There are several burnout models that are intended to explain burnout. Scott Meier's Burnout Model defines burnout with four components *namely reinforcement expectations, outcome expectations, efficacy expectations and contextual processing*. In their burnout model, Perlman and Hartman include four stages *as the stressful situation, individuals' perspective of the stress, reaction to the stress and outcome of the stress* (Sılığ, 2003).

Suran and Sheridan's model defines burnout with four stages being *identity-role ambiguity, identity-role ambiguity, competence-incompetence, efficacy-inactivity and reforming-disappointment*. According to Suran and Sheridan (1985), burnout is the consequence of being unable to resolve the conflicts in each of these stages satisfactorily. In Gaines and Jermier (1983, cited by Kaya, 2010) burnout model, the most important dimension of the process is *emotional exhaustion*, which is the first stage of burnout. This dimension forms a sequential process with the others (*depersonalization and decrease in the feeling of personal achievement*). On the other hand, in the Maslach burnout model used in the present study, Maslach and Jackson (1981) define burnout at 3 stages as *emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and decreased personal achievement*. Emotional exhaustion describes the decrease in an individual's emotional and physical resources and being tired and exhausted. In individuals experiencing emotional exhaustion; tiredness and weariness continue when they get up in the morning as if they had no sleep at all (Maslach et al., 1996; Wright and Bonett, 1997). Depersonalization, the inter-individual dimension of fatigue, refers to individuals' indifference to the people they offer services, having negative reactions towards them and unresponsiveness to work. Individuals going through depersonalization appear to use an offensive language to others, develop rigid rules and believe that others will do harm to them (Maslach et al., 1996). Low personal achievement, on the other hand, describes that the person tends to evaluate himself/herself negatively, his/her feeling of individual competence weakens since they have difficulty fulfilling the responsibilities required by the job. In this case, other people around lose trust in these individuals as well (Maslach et al., 1996; Wright and Bonett, 1997).

Burnout results from several factors. These can be classified as individual factors and organizational factors. Individual factors can be listed as whether a person chooses his/her job on his own or not, his/her desire to do reach perfectness in every task, inability to be relaxed to what happens, possible problems in the individual's personal life, perceived competence etc. Organizational factors, on the other hand, include strict rules, role ambiguity, role conflict, heavy work load, too many expectations from work, financial status, problem solving and communication skills, organizational atmosphere, professional experience, residential area of the workplace, being appreciated or not etc. (Karabıyık-Özipek, 2006).

One of the most significant factors affecting teachers' burnout is their relationship with students. Individual differences of students and the effect of these differences on the teacher may influence teachers' state of burnout. When students' development occurs within normal limits, it generally does not pose a problem; however, students, who significantly differ from those that develop normally, may affect their teacher's burnout negatively. These students who are significantly different from normally developing students are called students with special education needs (Akçamete, 2010). One of the educational approaches designed for students with special education needs is integration.

Although different definitions are made in the related literature for integration; the Regulation for Special Education Services (2006) by the Ministry of National Education defines it as a method that allows "Individuals with special education to continue their education with their peers who do not have disabilities by providing supportive educational services at state and private institutions of kindergarten, elementary, secondary and non-formal education.

In accordance with the Item 7 included in the section titled preschool education of the Decree Law No 573 on special education published in the official gazette dated 06/06/1997 and numbered 23011 (repeated); preschool education was made obligatory to be provided at special education schools and other preschool education institutions considering the developmental and individual characteristics of children with special education needs, and children who need special education started to receive integrated education at preschool education institutions. When the integration of children with special needs into preschool education institutions was made obligatory, tasks and responsibilities (such as designing individualized education plans, developing suitable materials for children with special needs etc.) of preschool teachers increased as well, and new factors were added to those affecting teachers' burnout levels.

The review of the studies carried out on teachers' burnout levels in and out of Turkey showed that some studies have examined burnout in teachers at elementary, secondary, high schools and universities

Table 1. Characteristics of the study sample.

Parameter	N
Gender	
Female	181
Male	4
Type of school	
Kindergarten	85
Nursery class	100
Place of duty	
City Center	120
Town Center	65

(Byrne, 1991; Sermon, 1994; Girgin, 1995; Embich, 2001; Gençay, 2007); while others investigated teachers' burnout experiences together with their professional self-efficacy perceptions (Brouwers and Tomic, 2000). Some studies were carried out on the relationship between teachers' burnout levels and student behaviors (Hastings and Bham, 2003), and some looked at teachers' burnout levels and their job satisfaction (Koustelios and Nikolaos, 2005).

When the studies conducted on preschool teachers' burnout levels in the Turkish and international literature were reviewed, on the other hand, it was seen that preschool teachers' burnout levels were examined in some studies (Tuğrul and Çelik, 2002; Kapıkıran, 2003; Noble and Macfarlane, 2005; Deniz-Kan, 2008; Akman et al., 2010; Yılmaz-Toplu, 2012; Rentzou, 2013), some investigated preschool teachers' job satisfactions together with their burnout levels (Öztürk, 2006; Tsigilis, Zachopoulou and Grammatikopoulos, 2006; Akkurt, 2008; Gürbüz, 2008; Teltik, 2009), some others compared levels of burnout and hopelessness in preschool teachers (Yıldırım, 2007) while some studies looked at the relation between preschool teachers' empathic tendencies and burnout levels (Özmen, 2010). One study examined the relation between teachers' burnout levels and their evaluation of undesirable behaviors in children (Demirhan-Harmanda, 2011), one examined the predictive power of teachers' self-efficacy perceptions on their burnout levels (Şenel, 2014) while another study was carried out to determine the relation between teachers' burnout levels and their classroom management skills (Adıgüzel, 2016). However, no study has been found concerning the effect of the integration student on the teacher's burnout level in the literature, which brought about the need for the present study.

Purpose

The purpose of the present study is to compare burnout levels of preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes and those who do not. To this

end; answers were sought for the following questions: Do the preschool teachers': (1) emotional exhaustion levels, (2) depersonalization levels, and (3) less personal accomplishment levels vary by having integration students in their classrooms or not?

RESEARCH MODEL

In order to compare the burnout levels of teachers who have integration students in their classes with those who do not; the present study employed the correlational survey model, which is one of the general survey models that investigates the existence and/or the degree of a correlation between two or more variables (Karasar, 2012).

Study sample

The sample of the study consists of 185 preschool teachers who were working at kindergartens and nursery classes within Isparta city and town centers in the 2011/2012 academic year. The details of the sample are presented in Table 1. According to Table 1, of the 185 preschool teachers, 181 are female and 4 are male teachers; 85 of the teachers work at independent kindergartens while 100 preschool teachers work at the nursery classes of elementary schools; 120 preschool teachers work in the city center whereas 65 of them have their schools in town centers.

Data collection

The data of the study were collected using the personal information form designed by the researchers and the Burnout Inventory developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) from preschool teachers working at independent kindergartens and nursery classes of elementary schools dependent on the Ministry of National Education located within Isparta city and town centers.

The personal information form developed by the researchers consists of two sections. The first section contains questions concerning personal information (gender, age, length of service, educational background etc.) while questions on the characteristics of students with special needs and integration practices are included in the second section.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory, which was developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) and adapted to Turkish by Ergin (1982), was used as the second data collection tool in order to determine the burnout levels of the individuals participating in the study.

In the first reliability study carried out by Ergin (1992) on the scale, Cronbach Alpha coefficients were found as Emotional exhaustion 0.83, Depersonalization 0.65 and Personal Achievement 0.72.

In the second reliability study of the scale, on the other hand, test-retest reliability coefficients were emotional exhaustion.83, depersonalization.65 and personal achievement.72 (Teltik, 2009).

In order to enable the analysis of the data on the SPSS computer program, the present study used grading as 1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = usually, and 5 = always.

The scale presents emotional exhaustion in items 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 13, 14, 16 and 20; depersonalization in 5, 10, 11, 15 and 22 and less personal accomplishment in items 4, 7, 9, 12, 17, 18, 19 and 21. Items of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization are scored directly whereas less personal accomplishment items can be scored either directly or reversely. When this sub dimension is scored directly, it is referred as "personal achievement"; when

Table 2. T-test on emotional exhaustion levels of preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes and those who do not.

Integration students	N	\bar{x}	SD	df	t	p
Yes	53.51	20.43	6.22	183	0.656	0.51
No	132	19.84	5.16			

Table 3. T-test on depersonalization levels of preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes and those who do not.

Integration students	N	\bar{x}	SD	df	t	p
Yes	53	7.35	2.32	183	0.438	0.66
No	132	7.18	2.53			

reverse-scored, on the other hand, it is “less personal accomplishment”. The present study used reverse scoring.

The lowest and highest possible scores on the scale are as follows:

Emotional exhaustion: 9-45

Depersonalization: 5-25

Less personal accomplishment: 8-40

Data analysis

The data obtained from the study were entered into the computer through SPSS-20 (Statistical Packages for The Social Sciences).

The data were tested for normal distribution by looking at the coefficient of skewness. A skewness coefficient within ± 1 limits is interpreted as the data is distributed normally in analyses. The coefficients of skewness of the burnout inventory were found as 0.560 for emotional exhaustion, 1.243 for depersonalization and 0.860 for less personal accomplishment. According to these findings; since emotional exhaustion and less personal accomplishment fall within the ± 1 levels and the score obtained for depersonalization is very close to ± 1 , the data were accepted as normally distributed.

The data obtained were analyzed using t test to see whether the difference between the two correlated sample means was significantly different from zero (each other) or not in order to compare the burnout levels of teachers who have integration students in their classes and those who do not (Büyükoztürk, 2012).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

According to Table 2, of the 185 preschool teachers that participated in the study, 53 had integration students in their classes while no integration student was present in the classes of 132 teachers. When the findings obtained from the study are compared relatively; it can be seen that the emotional exhaustion levels of the preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes ($\bar{x} = 20.43$) is higher than the emotional exhaustion levels of the teachers who do not have integration students in their classes ($\bar{x} = 19.84$). When the difference between the means is examined in terms of statistical significance; it is seen that emotional exhaustion levels of preschool teachers do not show a statistically significant difference

in terms of having integration students in their classes or not ($t_{(183)} = 0.656$, $p > 0.05$).

According to Table 3, of the 185 preschool teachers that participated in the study, 53 had integration students in their classes while no integration student was present in the classes of 132 teachers. The findings show that depersonalization levels of the preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes ($\bar{x} = 7.35$) and those of the teachers who have no integration students ($\bar{x} = 7.18$) are very close to each other. However, when the findings obtained as a result of the study are compared relatively; it can be seen that depersonalization levels of the preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes are higher than those of the preschool teachers who do not have integration students in their classes. When the difference between the means is examined in terms of statistical significance; it is seen that no statistically significant difference exists in the preschool teachers' depersonalization levels in terms of having integration students in their classes or not ($t_{(183)} = 0.438$, $p > 0.05$).

According to Table 4, of the 185 preschool teachers that participated in the study, 53 had integration students in their classes while no integration student was present in the classes of 132 teachers. When the findings obtained from the study are compared relatively, it is seen that less personal accomplishment levels of preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes ($\bar{x} = 15.07$) are higher than less personal accomplishment levels of preschool teachers who do not ($\bar{x} = 14.93$). When the difference between the means is examined in terms of statistical significance; it can be seen that no statistically significant difference exists in the preschool teachers' less personal accomplishment levels in terms of having integration students in their classes or not ($t_{(183)} = 0.236$, $p > 0.05$).

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The aim of the present study was to compare burnout levels of preschool teachers who have integration students

Table 4. T-test on less personal accomplishment levels of preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes and those who do not.

Integration students	N	\bar{x}	SD	df	t	p
Yes	53	15.07	3.50	183	0.236	0.81
No	132	14.93	3.84			

in their classes and those who do not. The study has found that there is no statistically significant difference between emotional exhaustion levels of the teachers who have integration students in their classes and those who do not and that both groups of teachers have moderate levels of emotional exhaustion. In other word, it could be asserted that students with special needs who are included in integration practices do not have any effect on preschool teachers' emotional exhaustion. One finding of the study is parallel with Özmen's (2010) finding stating that preschool teachers who have no integration students in their classes had moderate levels of emotional exhaustion and Teltik's (2009) finding suggesting that emotional exhaustion levels of preschool teachers are at moderate levels. However, this finding obtained from the study differs from the findings presented by Öztürk (2006), Akkurt (2008), Deniz-Kan (2008), Gürbüz (2008), Akman et al. (2010), Demirhan-Harmanda (2011), Yılmaz-Toplu (2012), Şenel (2014) and Adıgüzel (2016), which showed low emotional exhaustion levels for preschool teachers and from Özmen's (2010) finding that revealed low emotional exhaustion levels for preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes.

Another finding of the study is that there is no statistically significant difference between depersonalization levels of the teachers who have integration students in their classes and those who do not and that both groups of teachers have low levels of emotional exhaustion. In other word, it could be stated that students with special needs who are included in integration practices do not have any effect to increase preschool teachers' depersonalization levels. This finding obtained from the present study contradicts with Özmen's (2012) finding which suggests that preschool teachers who do and do not have integration students in their classes have moderate levels of depersonalization while it is parallel with the findings that show low levels of depersonalization for preschool teachers in the studies carried out by Öztürk (2006), Akkurt (2008), Deniz-Kan (2008), Gürbüz (2008), Teltik (2009), Akman et al. (2010), Demirhan-Harmanda (2011), Yılmaz-Toplu (2012), Şenel (2014), and Adıgüzel (2016).

It has also been found as a result of the study that there is no statistically significant difference between less personal accomplishment levels of the teachers who have integration students in their classes and those who do not and that both groups of teachers have low levels of less personal accomplishment. In other word, it could be stated that students with special needs who are

included in integration practices have no effect on preschool teachers' less personal accomplishment levels. This finding obtained from the study is parallel with the findings revealed by the studies conducted by Akkurt (2008), Deniz-Kan (2008), Gürbüz (2008), Teltik (2009), Akman et al. (2010), Demirhan-Harmanda (2011), Yılmaz-Toplu (2012) Şenel (2014) and Adıgüzel (2016), which stated low levels of less personal accomplishment for preschool teachers whereas it contradicts with Özmen's (2010) findings that preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes have high levels of less personal accomplishment and those who have no integration students have moderate levels of less personal accomplishment; and with Öztürk's (2006) study which found that preschool teachers have high levels of less personal accomplishment.

As a result of the study, no statistically significant difference was found in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and less personal accomplishment levels between preschool teachers who have integration students in their classes and those who do not. According to these findings obtained from the study, it has been found that integration students do not increase burnout levels of preschool students.

This is considered to result from the fact that preschool teachers can determine common objectives in such developmental areas as self-care skills, cognitive development, language development, psycho-motor development, social-emotional development for both normally developing students and students with special needs, that students with special needs do not cause extra work load for the teacher and this in turn does not affect the teachers' burnout levels negatively.

Based on the results of the present study the following recommendations can be made for future studies:

1. The relation between the integration student and teachers' burnout can be studied by providing teachers with supportive services.
2. Studies could be carried out on different factors (age, gender, length of service, school of graduation etc.) that affect preschool teachers' burnout in different cities.
3. According to the type and level of disability, the effect of the preschool student on teachers' burnout can be investigated.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Improving the achievement of second year natural resource management students of Maddawalabu University through cooperative learning

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The purpose of this action research is to improve the achievement of students in general and, to examine the perception of students and teachers about cooperative learning, to identify major factors affecting the implementation of cooperative learning and to identify the possible strategies used to improve cooperative learning in Maddawalabu University, School of Biodiversity and Natural Resource Management, particularly Department of Natural Resource Management. Descriptive case study design and both qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed. Quantitative data were collected from 23 students through observation and focus group discussion. In the selection of the sample population, available sampling was employed, and data were analyzed by using percentage, mean grand mean and t-test. The findings of the study revealed that students' participation was low concerning cooperative learning, and the practice of cooperative learning was challenged by different problems like lack of awareness and motivation both from the side of teachers and students, dependence of lower achievers on higher achievers, unequal sharing of work among group members, inappropriate group organization, uncomfortable seating arrangement of students, insufficient support and follow up from teachers before the implementation of action plan. Nevertheless, by utilizing the proposed actions like creating awareness about the importance of cooperative learning, re-organizing group arrangement, providing different responsibilities for each member of the group and providing the required support for all the groups, there is the improvement on achievement of students. Therefore, cooperative learning can improve the achievement of students if it is conducted in a well-organized way by using different strategies that help learners to take responsibility by themselves.

Key words: Achievements, cooperative learning, improving, students.

INTRODUCTION

Learning is generally defined as cognitive changes, that is, some addition to a learner's knowledge structures or

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re-organization and reconstruction of existing knowledge. This change occurs as connection is made between new material and prior knowledge, and then integrated into the learner's existing knowledge base. The more complex the learning, the more complex those cognitive changes are. According to socio-cognitive learning theory (Vygotsky, 1978), cognitive change is strongly influenced by interaction and activity with others. Because of this reason, today various college and university students are increasingly being asked by faculty to work co-operatively and learn collaboratively. This increased emphasis on group learning is partly a reaction to societal changes including a new emphasis on team work in the business sector (Millis and Cottell, 1998) coupled with a realization that in a rapidly changing information society, communication skills are increasingly important (Hansen and Stephens, 2000).

At the tertiary level of education, the reasons include an increasingly diverse student population who need to develop ways of learning together in order to achieve (Millis and Cottell, 1998), the increased use of teaching and learning that emphasizes learner-driven approaches such as peer learning (Hansen and Stephens, 2000). Researchers have shown that group learning leads to academic and cognitive benefits. Group learning promotes students' learning and achievement (Zakaria et al., 2013; Kamuran and Fikri, 2008), increases the development of critical thinking skills, and promotes greater transfer of learning (Brandy and Tsay, 2010). Group learning also aids in the development of social skills such as communication, presentation, problem solving, leadership, delegation and organization (Zakaria et al., 2010). These days, Ethiopian public schools starting from primary to tertiary level implement cooperative learning in the name locally called 'one-to-five' organization even though the implementation is at its infant stage. The method was implemented with the objective of enhancing students' educational achievements in particular and improving quality of education in general. Therefore, it is sensible conducting action researches in the area of cooperative learning in order to facilitate better learning environment for students who engage in it and to enhance outcomes of the cooperative learning.

Statement of the problem

Cooperative learning is an approach to group work that minimizes the occurrence of those unpleasant situations and maximizes the learning and satisfaction that result from working on a high-performance team. A large and rapidly growing body of research confirms the effectiveness of cooperative learning in higher education. It is relative to students taught traditionally that is, with instructor-centered lectures, individual assignments, and

competitive grading. Cooperatively taught students tend to exhibit higher academic achievement, greater persistence through graduation, better high-level reasoning and critical thinking skills, deeper understanding of learned material, greater time on task and less disruptive behavior in class, lower levels of anxiety and stress, greater intrinsic motivation to learn and achieve, greater ability to view situations from others' perspectives, more positive and supportive relationships with peers, more positive attitudes toward subject areas, and higher self-esteem (Mabrouk, 2007).

There are several reasons why cooperative learning works as well as it does. The idea that students learn more by doing something active than by simply watching and listening has long been known to both cognitive psychologists and effective teachers and cooperative learning is by its nature an active method. Beyond that, cooperation enhances learning in several ways. Weak students working individually are likely to give up when they get stuck; working cooperatively, they keep going. Strong students faced with the task of explaining and clarifying material to weaker students often find gaps in their own understanding and fill them in. Students working alone may tend to delay completing assignments or skip. The term cooperative learning (CL) refers to students working in teams on an assignment or project under conditions in which certain criteria are satisfied, including that the team members be held individually accountable for the complete content of the assignment or project.

The proven benefits of cooperative learning notwithstanding, instructors who attempt it frequently encounter resistance and sometimes open hostility from the students. Bright students complain about being held back by their slower teammates; weak or unassertive students complain about being discounted or ignored in group sessions; and resentments build when some team members fail to pull their weight. Knowledgeable and patient instructors find ways to deal with these problems, but others become discouraged and revert to the traditional teacher-centered instructional paradigm, which is a loss both for them and for their students (Mabrouk, 2007). This action research tries to find criteria for effective implementation of cooperative learning, challenges of CL applications and outlines proven methods for implementing CL and overcoming common obstacles to its success. Then altogether, when they know that others are counting on them, they are motivated to do the work in a timely manner (Mabrouk, 2007).

Recently, implementing cooperative learning strategies started in Ethiopian education system from lower grade level to higher institution to enhance student learning. However, the implementation is not successful compared to the desired objectives. This is because of different factors. "Questions like what do students gain from

cooperative learning? Why do we need cooperative learning? Is cooperative learning appropriate for all students? How does cooperative learning improve students' achievement? What types of cooperative learning structures are more successful in the classroom?" are some of the fundamental questions raised by different people in various educational institutions in Ethiopia. To clear the above confusion, the researchers were motivated to improve students' achievement using cooperative learning strategies because the cumulative GPA (CGPA) of second year students in the department of natural resource management (NRM) was low compared to that of first year students, even if the teachers working in the department of NRM are trying to implement cooperative learning. Therefore, the major purpose of this action research is to improve students' achievement by addressing the above issues. The researchers designed the following basic questions to investigate the problems and made proper intervention to improve students' achievement. This action research project sought to answer the following basic questions:

1. What is the status of students' participation in cooperative learning?
2. How can we improve students' achievement through cooperative learning?
3. What are the factors contributing to low participation of students' in cooperative learning?
4. What are the possible strategies that help to improve students' cooperation learning?

Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this action research is to improve students' achievement through cooperative learning. In addition to this, the following specific objectives are treated:

1. To improve students' positive interdependence and social skills (social relations within and between groups) in the department, awareness about cooperative learning.
2. To improve students' achievement through the application of cooperative learning.
3. To reduce the major challenges that hinders the implementation of cooperative learning.
4. To apply possible strategies that help to facilitate cooperative learning.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Description of research area

This action research is part of an experimental research that aimed at improving the achievements of the students of second year NRM department of the students at Madawalabu University, Ethiopia.

Research design and methodology

This part deals with research design, source of data, population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection instrument, procedures of data collection, and methods of data analysis. Descriptive case study research design was used. This design was selected because it enables one to obtain data about practice and challenges of cooperative learning, and based on the finding, it helps to improve students' achievement and implementation of cooperative learning at Madawalabu University School of Biodiversity and Natural Resource Management, Department of NRM. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were applied for the study. The major methodological concern of the research was descriptive analysis and interpretation of the responses for the given questionnaires, observation and focus group discussion (FGD) in reference with the theoretical and practical framework of cooperative learning. The analysis and interpretation were mainly emphasized on the role of cooperative learning to improve students' achievement.

Source of data, sample population, sampling techniques and data collection instrument

The required data were collected both from primary and secondary sources. The primary data sources were teachers and students, through questionnaires, direct observations of the real situations related to the practices of cooperative learning process in the classroom and FGD with NRM Students. In addition to primary data, secondary data were collected from related research works, documents at different lines, students' achievement in the previous semester and social interaction changes. With the available sampling techniques, 23 students participated in the research. Educators have advocated for the use of multiple methods of data collection, because by selecting complementary methods, a researcher can improve the weakness of one method with the strength of another. In line with this, Patton (1987) and Yemane (2005) stated that the use of a single data collection technique has both strengths and weaknesses. The use of more than one data collection techniques in a single study helps the researcher to substantiate the strength and correct the defect of any one source of data. Based on this idea, the researchers employed variety of tools to gather information about the practice and challenges of students' cooperative learning. Observation, FGD and questionnaire were the common instruments used in data collection. The instruments are used to assess teachers' and students' perception about cooperative learning, the role to improve students' achievement and social interaction, challenges and possible strategies to improve students' cooperative learning. Questionnaire containing both close ended and open-ended types was used to collect data from students about their perception, roles and problems encountered in the effectiveness of cooperative learning. The questionnaire was preferred as instrument of data collection because it is the most

flexible tool and possesses a unique advantage over others in collecting both qualitative and quantitative information (Kumar, 2006).

Direct classroom observation was conducted to see the extent of students' cooperative learning organization, their support of teachers, and participation in cooperative learning in the entire classroom. As a method for collecting qualitative data, group discussion emphasizes learning of the thoughts and experiences of others. When the participants take part in a group interview, they can demonstrate interest in the discussion topic. When the participants are mutually interested in the discussion, their conversation often takes the form of sharing and comparing thoughts about the topic (Victor, 2006). Based on this assumption, FGD was used to elicit data regarding the teachers' and students' perception towards the implementation of cooperative learning, challenges and possible strategies to enhance cooperative and collaborative learning in Ethiopian higher institutions.

Procedures of data collection and methods of data analysis

The researchers informed both the school and the department about the issues, and also the research group made the idea clear to the students for them to engage freely in the project. From the beginning of data collection to the intervention made by teachers in the classroom to improve the achievement of student's information was accountably communicated. The researchers analyzed quantitative data through percentage, mean and frequency. Percentage was utilized to analyze and determine different characteristics and personal background of the respondents. The frequency was utilized to analyze and describe the extent to which cooperative learning affects students' achievement. Independent sample t- test at $P < 0.05$ was also utilized to check whether there is significant achievement difference between pre-test and post-test students' achievement. The data obtained through observation and FGD were analyzed using narrative description (qualitative methods of analysis).

Analysis and interpretation of data

This part of the paper has two sections. Section one deal with the background information of respondents while section two deals with the overall result of the analysis of the issue under investigation (views of respondents about cooperative learning). From 23 questionnaires dispatched to students, 100% (23) questionnaire items were filled properly and returned. Therefore, the analysis part presents the data obtained from these 23 students. Regarding the sex of students, 9 (39.13%) were males

and the remaining 14 (60.87%) were females. In terms of age, all the respondents aged between 19 and 23. This indicates that, the respondents were matured enough to understand and fill the questionnaire dispatched to them (Table 1). Table 2 contains questionnaire designed to collect data on the attitude and interest of student in cooperative learning. Questions were carefully designed and administered in such a way that the participants of the study choose the idea that most appropriately match with their feelings; very high (5) and high (4) to show their agreements with the ideas of the questionnaire and low (2) and very low (1) to disagree and (3) undecided when they face difficulties to agree or disagree with the ideas of each questionnaire. Accordingly, each item of the questionnaire was analyzed as follows.

From Table 2, for item one 39% of respondents had chosen scale number 4, which indicates the largest response for this particular question. Even though significant numbers of the participants (27%) were reluctant to decide on this issue, vast majority of the students have interest in cooperative learning. 18% respondents indicated that students' interest in cooperative learning is very low and 13% indicated that prevalence of low interest in cooperative learning among students. From this, one can conclude that there is a variation of interest in cooperative learning in the classroom. This also showed the prevalence of gap on students' knowledge about cooperative learning, even though majority (45%) of them responded that students have knowledge/ understanding of cooperative learning.

The second item of the questionnaire was designed to collect information on students' participation in cooperative learning. As indicated in the table, 18 and 13% participant had low and very low participation and 36% indicated high participation. This indicated that significant numbers of students are reluctant to participate in cooperative learning. The role of cooperative learning in improving academic achievement and social interaction among students is one of the questions presented to the students. Even though, the significant number (27 and 40%) of the respondents scaled very high and 27 and 22% respondents scaled high, 13% respondents scaled low and 13 and 9% of respondents scaled very low. This indicated that there is no uniformity among students about the role and importance of cooperative learning in improvement of academic achievement and social interactions among students.

Another important question is about students' awareness of cooperative learning practices. As indicated in the table, 13 and 36% participants scaled very high and high and 9 and 13% of participants respond low and very low. This indicates that significant number of students did not have awareness about cooperative learning. Even though majority of students have good understanding and better awareness on cooperative learning, there is no uniformity of understanding among

Table 1. Background information of the respondents.

Sex	No	%	Age	<18	19-23	24-28
Male	24	80	No	0	30	0
Female	6	20	%	0	100	0

Table 2. Analysis of data obtained through questionnaire on students' perception about cooperative learning.

S/N	Items	Responses Scale									
		5		4		3		2		1	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
1	Students' interest in cooperative learning	1	4	9	39	6	27	3	13	4	18
2	Students' participation in cooperative learning	1	4	8	36	5	22	4	18	3	13
3	Students sharing of different responsibility in group at Different time	4	18	5	22	6	27	2	9	3	13
4	Received feedback from instructors about cooperative Learning group work	7	31	6	27	4	18	3	13	1	4
5	Students' knowledge about importance of cooperative Learning	1	4	10	45	6	27	2	9	2	9
6	Instructors' support of cooperative learning if necessary	7	31	7	31	4	18	2	9	2	9
7	Role of cooperative learning in improving achievement	6	27	6	27	3	13	3	13	3	13
8	Role of cooperative learning in improving social interaction	9	40	5	22	3	13	3	13	2	9
9	Cooperative learning creates common understanding among Students	3	13	14	63	3	13	1	4	1	4
10	Students' awareness of cooperative learning practices	96		8	36	7	31	2	9	3	13
11	Students' motivation to participate in cooperative learning Fully (assignment & project work)	4	18	4	18	4	18	3	13	6	27
12	Cooperative learning creates positive inter-dependence Among students in the class room.	6	27	2	9	5	22	5	22	4	18

students about cooperative learning. Some students are reluctant or do not fully participate in cooperative learning. There is a gap in practicing cooperative learning among students in the classroom. A significant number of students did not clearly know what cooperative learning is and the implication is that there is the need for awareness rising program for the students in the classroom to help all learners have common understanding of cooperative learning.

As indicated in Table 3, the overall mean score for all items is 3.3. This indicates that the factors are highly affecting the participation of students in cooperative learning in general. Among all, factors indicated in item numbers 2, 8, 9, and 11 have high effect in hindering student's participation. This means lack of students' motivation to work in groups (mean=3.97), dependence of lower achievers on higher achievers (mean=3.9), unequal sharing of work among group members (mean=

4.07), and problem of grouping/ organization structure (mean=3.83) are highly affecting the participation of students in cooperative learning. In similar manner, lack of students' awareness about the benefits of cooperative learning (mean=3.43), uncomfortable seating arrangement of students (mean=3.1), insufficient support and follow up from teachers (mean=3.1), shortage of time given by instructors to deal with the given issue (mean=3), domination of some group members (mean=3.37) and lack of reinforcement by teachers (mean=3.23) are highly affecting the participation of students in cooperative learning even if their effect is a little bit lower than those identified earlier.

Analysis of data obtained through focus group discussion

In the group discussion conducted with 2nd year NRM

Table 3. Respondent's views for items related with factors affecting the participation of students on cooperative learning.

S/N	Item/Indicator	N	Mean
1	Lack of awareness about the benefits of cooperative learning	23	3.43
2	Lack of students motivation to work in group	23	3.97
3	Uncomfortable seating arrangement of students	23	3.1
4	Insufficient support and follow up from teachers	23	3.1
5	Lack of teachers motivation to use cooperative learning	23	2.43
6	Shortage of time given by instructors to deal with the given issue	23	3.0
7	Domination of some group members (higher achievers)	23	3.37
8	Dependence of lower achievers on higher achievers	23	3.9
9	Unequal sharing of work among group members	23	4.07
10	Lack of reinforcement by teachers	23	3.23
11	Problem of grouping/organization structure	23	3.83
12	Relating cooperative learning with politics	23	2.17
	Grand mean		3.3

Scales <1= Very Low, 1.01-2= low, 2.01-3= Undecided 3.01 – 4=highly, 4=Very Highly.

students, we have identified the following major challenges that hinder successful implementation of cooperative learning:

- a. Lack of awareness about the advantage of cooperative learning.
- b. Problem of organization or group structuring.
- c. Lack of continuous support from the instructors.
- d. Lack of materials to conduct project and different assignments.
- e. Some students develop dependency on higher achiever students.
- f. Shouldering all the responsibility up on group leader.
- g. Problem of providing different responsibilities to group members.
- h. Absence of rotating the responsibility and re-organizing the group.

Based on these findings, the research team proposed different actions to be taken in order to improve the participation of students in general and their academic achievement in particular under the next section. From the practical experience of students the following possible solutions were identified from to improve the effectiveness of cooperative learning that promotes students' social interaction, positive interdependence, confidence, self-esteem and achievement.

- a. Improve the awareness of all stakeholders about cooperative learning.
- b. Re-organize students into groups for a particular topic and rotating responsibility.
- c. Give clear instructions, and explain how they work together and assess effectively.
- d. Each member of the group will have a specific task to

complete within the group.

- e. Assign different tasks like facilitator, note taker, timekeeper, leader, observer, reporter or tasks specific to the topic.
- f. The group is responsible for the outcomes, which are evaluating against agreed criteria.
- g. Provide material and academic support to the students to improve their self-esteem and confidence to reduce dependence.

Action plan, implementation and evaluation

When we conducted this action research, the researchers developed strategies that clearly identified the role of teacher and the role of students. The teacher's role in cooperative learning is fundamentally different from that in a more traditional model. It is vital that the teacher first provides the supportive classroom ethos to encourage cooperative learning and opportunities for team building. Alongside, this is the necessity for developing interpersonal skills as part of a planned programme. The teacher plays indispensable roles for the success of the programme among the fundamental roles undertaken by the teachers. See the following action plan table. The role of the students in cooperative learning is different from that in traditional classrooms; it includes student-to-student interaction over subject matter as an integral part of the learning process. In contrast, the traditional classroom consists primarily of teacher-fronted lessons, independent work, and competition. Student practice is usually independent, independent problem solving or worksheet work. Often, student interaction is discouraged: 'keep your eyes on your own paper', 'No talking.' In addition, there is often a competitive component in the

traditional classroom when students respond to teachers by answering their review questions. Cooperative learning is characterized by frequent student cooperation (Spencer, 2009). See Table 4 on the role of students in cooperative classroom.

Implementation of the action plan

Activity-1- Creating Awareness about Cooperative Learning For Students.

Lack of awareness about cooperative learning is one of the major factors affecting the participation of students in cooperative learning and hence, it has been one of the causes for low achievement of students in the department of NRM. As a result, awareness creation discussion was held with students for two periods (2 h) on Monday 04/04/2016 and Thursday 07/04/ 2016.

Activity -2- Re-organizing and Re-structuring the group. Since group arrangement of students was found to be one of the factors affecting cooperative learning, re-organization of groups was conducted based on three semesters cumulative GPA of students on April 8, 2016. After this, the research team members developed a model that enhances cooperative learning environment by giving responsibility to each and every member of the group as indicated here under. Student A (Leader), Student B (Facilitator), Student C (Note-taker), Student D (Reporter), Student E (Time keeper) and Student F (Observer).

Activity -3- Based on this model, detailed elaboration about the responsibilities of each member is given on 8 April 2016 as follows:

1. **Leader:** A group leader provides direction, instructions and guidance to a group of individuals, for achieving a certain goal. Based on the major findings of the analysis result, the following action plan is designed for implementation.
2. **Facilitator:** A facilitator of a group helps group members to understand their common objectives and assists them to plan how to achieve these objectives; in doing so, the facilitator remains "neutral" meaning he/she does not take a particular position in the discussion. Responsible for getting the group started, keeping it on task, and involving all members.
3. **Note taker:** A student who takes notes during cooperative learning activities.
4. **Reporter:** A student who is responsible for summarizing group decisions for the larger class.
5. **Timekeeper:** A student who is responsible for keeping group on task and on time particularly with in-class and other activities.
6. **Observer:** A student who pays close attention to

cooperative learning activities. Based on the above model each member of the group was assigned to a specific responsibility. This was held on 8 April 2016. The summary of responsibility given for every member of the group is described as follows. For the sake of consent, we cannot write the name of students.

Activity-4- Monitoring and assisting each group members as needed after providing the task to be performed. The instructor started to provide tasks to be done in cooperative learning groups based on the above newly arranged grouping system. In doing so, the instructors also provided all the necessary support as needed by all group members as much as possible. The instructor conducted this activity for almost one month starting from April 11, 2016 to May 25, 2016.

Activity -5- Evaluating the performance of each group. To evaluate the performance of each group the instructor used two techniques. The first one is by observing the number of students who participate and try to answer the questions raised by the instructor while the instructor is rotating around all groups to provide feedback. The second technique is by providing a post-test from the topics which are totally covered through cooperative learning for one month. The results of pre-test and post-test which were scored out of ten are presented under action evaluation.

Action evaluation

After intervention had taken place, the research team evaluated what change occurred. Some of the major changes observed are briefly presented as follows:

1. After two hours training and interactive discussion with NRM students on their awareness of cooperative learning methods, 17 (73.07%) students rate their awareness about cooperative learning as high and the rest 6 (26.92%) rate their awareness about cooperative learning as medium.
2. Re-organizing and re-structuring of the group: After re-arranging their group, almost all the students became happy and asked the department of NRM if they will continue it as one of their courses to be taken in the next year beyond using it for only this research purpose. Beyond this re-arrangement/re-organization of group members also provided an additional opportunity for students to create and strengthen their social life with new members of the group in which they did not practice such behavior in the past two years even if they are learning in the same class.
3. Providing different roles: Regarding the provision of a specific task for every member of the group most students (>90%) agreed that it enhanced their feeling of

Table 4. Action plan.

S/N	Activities	Role of students and instructors	Time require	Expected out come
1	Creating awareness about cooperative Learning	Instructor provides training for students. Student actively participate in the training	2 h	All student have good understanding about cooperative learning
2	Reorganizing group arrangement	Instructor restructures the organization of group members based on achievement. Student should participate in new group.	2 h	Well organized group will be formed
3	Providing different roles for each group members like facilitator, note taker, leader, observer, reporter, or tasks specific to the topic	Instructor develops cooperative learning models, which comprises different roles. Student should perform their role	1 h	Each group member will feel responsible for his/her roles
4	Plans lessons that decide on: (a) objectives, (b) size of groups (c) how to group pupils, (d) group roles and (e) Materials needed.	Instructors Prepare plan for cooperative learning	2 h	Prepared cooperative learning plan
5	Determine the number of students who will be assigned to each group with a range of levels, mixed by intellectual ability or achievement level.	Instructor Organize students based on achievement and participation	1 h	Create mixed ability group of students
6	Develop a cooperative climate and esprit de corps in the classroom. Develop a positive classroom environment.	Instructor should inspire students about Cooperative learning. Student should develop positive interdependence	5 min eachclass	Create cooperative learning climate
7	Reward students for such social skills as helping others, in different activities	Instructor should provide simple reward to the students	A class per week	Create rewarding Environment
8	Present and clearly explain the Activities that will student take parts to complete.	Instructor should provide clear direction and students should follow the direction	½ h	Student which follow the instruction properly
9	Monitor and assist as needed by providing the task to be performed	Instructor provides the necessary support. Student should ask teacher when they need	12 h	Each group will gain sufficient support from the instructor
10	Evaluate each group's performance/product	Make ready themselves to the exam and done the assignment cooperatively.	3 h	A high student academic achievement

responsibility for their task as it mandates every student to participate in cooperative learning. At the end of taking all the actions discussed above, the research team observed slight improvement in student's achievement (Table 5).

As Table 6 indicates, the number of students who scored below 5 reduced from 7 (22.2%) to 1 (5.6%). In addition to this, the number of students who scored above 8 increased from 3 (11.1%) to 7 (25%). This change indicates that the implementation of the identified actions has great role in improving the achievement of students.

As indicated in Table 7, the mean score of students in pre-test and post-test is 6.16 and 7.47 respectively. This indicates that, planned and well-organized implementation of cooperative learning improves the achievement of students. In supporting this, the analysis of data obtained through observation indicated that, the number of students who participate during cooperative learning at the time of classroom discussion was also high. The result of t- test $t(70) = -3.47, P < 0.05$, indicates that, there is significant difference in the score of students at pre-test and post-test. In some courses, we can observe change in pre and post cooperative learning implementation

Table 5. Provide different role for newly re-organized group.

Group-1		Group-2		Group-3		Group-4		Academic Advisor
Stud-A1	Leader	Stud-B1	Note taker	Stud-C1	Note taker	Stud-D1	Reporter	Mr. x & y
Stud-A2	Note taker	Stud-B2	Observer	Stud-C2	Time keeper	Stud-D2	Leader	Mr. A & Z
Stud-A3	Reporter	Stud-B3	Reporter	Stud-C3	Reporter	Stud-D3	Time keeper	
Stud-A4	Observer	Stud-B4	Leader	Stud-C4	Leader	Stud-D4	Note taker	
Stud-A5	Facilitator	Stud-B5	Facilitator	Stud-C5	Facilitator	Stud-D5	Facilitator	
Stud-A6	Time keeper	Stud-B6	Time keeper	Stud-C6	Observer			

Table 6. Results of students on pre-test and post-test.

Score of students	In pre-test		In post-test	
	n	%	n	%
5 and below 5	7	22.2	1	5.6
Between 5 and 8	13	66.7	15	69.4
Above 8	3	11.1	7	25

Table 7. Values of independent samples t-test for pre & post test.

Group	Number of student	Mean score	SD	Mean difference	P value at $\alpha=0.05$ level
Pre-test	23	6.14	1.74	1.33	0.001
Post-test	23	7.47	1.50		

Table 8. Change in score pre-implementation and post-implementation.

Score of students	In post-test		In pre-test	
	Course name	Range ecology and management in NRM	GIS and Remote sensing	
Test		9.78/15 SD=5.9	8.1/15 SD=5.9	
Assignments and Quizzes		39.7/45 SD=0.69	28.87/45 SD=0.69	
Final		29.7/40 SD=6.54	31.13/40 SD=6.54	
Total		73.08/100 SD=11.85	67.97/100 SD=11.85	

(Table 8). This study is in line with study by Brady and Tsay (2010), Brown and Ciuffetelli (2009) and Ke and Grabowski (2007). Brown and Ciuffetelli (2009) different researches in the perspective of cooperative learning demonstrated extremely positive results. In school situation cooperative learning engage students in group and increase learning, education, knowledge, skills. On the subject of cooperative learning the positive outcomes include: academic attainments, improved relations and increased personal, social and intellectual development. Similarly, Brady and Tsay (2010) describe that students who fully take part in group activities, provide useful feedback and positive behavior which is essential for their academic carrier. Study supports the perception that

cooperative learning is an active pedagogy that promotes higher educational attainment. Cooperative learning increases enjoyment of school and class regarding skill, motivation, behavior, attitude and interdependence.

As we observed from the above table in 1st semester, GIS and Remote sensing course the average score of the student was 67.97/100. However, after the implementation in 2nd semester students score 73.08/100 in Range ecology and management. This indicates that there was a positive change after the implementation of cooperative learning. Cooperative learning actively involves students in the learning process. These findings are consistent with the findings of some previous researchers such as Mohammed (2014); Zakaria et al.

(2013) and Ifamuyiwa and Akinsola (2008).

Conclusion /Action research cycle

Working with others often increases involvement in learning. Sharing one's own ideas and responding to others' reactions sharpens thinking and deepens understanding and achievement.' In the similar manner, the research team had full confidence to improve the achievement of students through the application of cooperative learning. To this end the research team undertakes different actions such as: (1) Awareness creation because Lack of awareness about cooperative learning was one of the major factors affecting the participation of students in cooperative learning and hence, it has been one of the causes for low achievement of students in the department of NRM. As a result, awareness creation discussion was held with students for two periods (2 h) on Monday 04/04/2016 and Thursday 07/04/ 2016. At the end improved the awareness of students. (2) Re-organized the group since group arrangement of students was found to be one of the factors affecting cooperative learning, reorganization of groups was conducted based on three semesters cumulative GPA of students and possible to create working group. (3) Providing different responsibility to all member of the group to reduce dependency each student has one role facilitator, timekeeper, observer, leader, note taker and reporter. At the end, it is observed that student responsibilities are improved. (4) Monitoring and providing feedback, the instructor started to provide task to be done in cooperative learning groups based on the newly arranged grouping system. In doing so, the instructors also provided all the necessary support as needed by all group members as much as possible. Finally, we can observe that student teacher interaction are improved and also their participation. While conducting this action research, the researchers faced some challenges.

One of the main challenges was lack of experience in doing action research, awareness of student and teacher in implementing all activities and managing time to cover all the contents of the course within the specific amount of time and to provide sufficient and timely feedback for all groups. At the end, the research team found out that, there is slight academic improvement of students due to the application of cooperative learning. This indicates that, cooperative learning improves the achievement of students when it is applied in a more organized and well-planned way. In addition, the research teams recommended that all department and schools/colleges across the university should implement and improve the achievement of their students through cooperative learning.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

The current teacher education programs in Ethiopia: Reflection on practice

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This study threw light on the current practice of Postgraduate Diploma in Teaching Program at Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia. The study focused on the enrolment, graduation and attrition proportion of Postgraduate Diploma in Teaching candidates in the year 2011 and 2015. The 2011 and 2015 academic years have been purposively selected because the in-out-in and in-out training modalities were introduced in these academic years respectively. To this end, document analysis and interview were employed as the means of data collection. The enrolment of 427 candidates in 2011 academic year, and 268 candidates in 2015 were considered to view the total number of graduates in the subsequent years. The data collected were analyzed using numbers and percentage for quantitative data, and description was employed for the qualitative data. Finally, it was discovered that the attrition proportion was very high for 2011 and 2015 academic years. For example, the total of 179 candidates (41.92%) graduated from 427 candidates who were enrolled in 2011 academic year. Similarly, in 2015, from the total of 268 candidates, only 118 candidates (44.03) graduated. Consequently, 50.08% and 55.97% of the candidates left the training in 2011 and 2015 academic years respectively. The study also shows that candidates were not interested in the program since most of them joined the program because of lack of any other job opportunities. From the study, further deliberation on the motivation and retention mechanisms of the candidates was implied. Various stakeholders, Ministry of Education, Regional bureaus, universities, etc. need to join their hands so as to further strengthen the current Teacher Education Programs.

Key words: Enrollment, practice, graduation, attrition.

INTRODUCTION

The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE) took over political power from the military regime 'Derg' in 1991. Soon after overthrowing the regime, the FDRE introduced a new Education and Training Policy (ETP) (The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 1994). The policy was introduced in order to expand the

educational infrastructure, access to educational opportunity, and to improve the quality of education (Akbiyik, 2015; Mekasha, 2005).

The policy aimed to achieve four educational goals namely: quality, access, relevance, and equity (The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 1994). The

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training of qualified teachers is also part of the expansion of the education system of the Country (Abebe and Woldehanna, 2013; Ministry of Education, 2010b; Semela, 2014). As clearly indicated in the policy, teachers are expected to be equipped with the “ability, diligence, and professional interest, and the physical and mental fitness appropriate for the profession” (The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 1994).

Following the Education and Training Policy (1994), the Ministry of Education of Ethiopia initiated Education Sector Development Programs (ESDPs, I-V) to meet the educational goals of the nation (Ministry of Education, 1998, 2002, 2005, 2010a, 2015). The ESDP was introduced with the aim to improve the quality and quantity of Education. In the ESDP, it was made clear that the teacher training system should be increased to provide adequate numbers of qualified teachers to address the demands the Country. The issue of upholding the quality of teachers was also another component of ESDP (Ministry of Education, 2010a, 2015).

A policy program called Teacher Education System Overhaul (TESO) was issued in 2003 with the intention to develop the objectives and strategies of the teacher's education (Ministry of Education, 2003). As MOE's description depicts, the TESO policy represents a paradigm shift in line with the international trends of active learner-center training (MOE, 2003). TESO was implemented with great hope to improve the quality of teachers, although the desired results have not been achieved (Ahmad, 2014; Kedir, 2006; Ministry of Education, 2003).

Owing to some dissatisfaction in the content competencies of TESO graduates and the TESO curriculum in general, the Ministry of Education of Ethiopia launched a new direction on secondary teacher education training in Ethiopia (Abebe and Woldehanna, 2013; Semela, 2014). The new direction of secondary teacher preparation was put in a place in July 2011, and the new teacher training program which was known as Post Graduate Diploma in Teaching (PGDT) was implemented by 10 universities in Ethiopia (Kassa and Amdemeskel, 2013; Ministry of Education, 2011).

The main aim of the PGDT program was to fill the content and pedagogical gaps that were remarked in TESO program as observed in teaching and classroom practices in secondary schools (Mekonnen, 2008; Merdassa, 2012; Ministry of Education, 2011). The program requires trainees who completed a three-year BA/BSc program in any subject area such as physics, mathematics, English, etc. and those who are willing to join teaching profession for one-year training as a regular program in teacher education institutes in Ethiopia (Ministry of Education, 2011).

However, the initial designed mode of delivery as the one-year regular session was suddenly changed by Ministry of Education, and a tentative new mode of

delivery was introduced as the country faced a critical shortage of secondary school teachers (Ministry of Education, 2011). The new tentative mode of delivery was in-out-in modality (Merdassa, 2012; Ministry of Education, 2011). Following the new in-out-in modality, the program has been conducted in two summer programs, and one distance program (Geberew and Demoze, 2014; Merdassa, 2012; Ministry of Education, 2011).

In addition to the new in-out-in modality of teaching training, the Ministry of Education introduced the one – year (in-out) regular based training session as of 2015. The training has been conducted on campus for one year and trainees are expected to go through one-month teaching practice after attending the necessary subject area and pedagogy courses (Ministry of Education, 2011).

PGDT trainees' selection criteria

Currently, in Ethiopia, the selection criteria and the training of prospective secondary school teachers has been changed (Deneke et al., 2015). Primarily, those who have graduated from the university with BA/BSc in applied programs will be eligible for the application. Subsequently, those with better cumulative grade point (CGPA), who are willing to join teaching profession and can satisfy the requirement of Ministry of Education will be selected for the teaching profession (Ministry of Education, 2011).

The Ministry of Education of Ethiopia set the criteria of selection: 30% CGPA, 35% entrance exam, 25% interview and 20% high school for those who showed up interest to be secondary school teacher (Akbiyik, 2015; Geberew and Demoze, 2014; Kassa and Amdemeskel, 2013; Ministry of Education, 2011). The criteria were put into practice only for the first round in the year 2011, but recently it was changed, the interview was omitted from the criteria (Kassa and Amdemeskel, 2013).

The researcher's position, working as the Coordinator of Postgraduate Diploma in Teaching Program at College level for 4 years, and working as Associate Dean for undergraduate programs at College of Education and Behavioural Studies inspired him to have a discussion with trainees, and to explore the situation as the member of academia. Hence, this study attempted to reflect on the practice of PGDT program training. The study is believed to highlights the entry stages of the in-out-in modality of 2011, and a one-year modality of 2015 in order to get the broader picture of the trend of training in both modalities at College of Education and Behavioral Studies. The study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the admission, graduation, and attrition trends of PGDT trainees at Addis Ababa University?
2. What are the PGDT trainees' views towards their

profession?

3. What is the implication of the study for teacher education program in Ethiopia?

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study site

This study was conducted at one of the higher learning institutions, Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia. The population of this study included all the prospective trainees enrolled in Postgraduate Diploma in Teaching (PGDT) in Addis Ababa University in the year 2011 for in-out-in modality and in the year 2015 of in-out (one-year) modality. The study employed purposive sampling technique as the study is limited to Addis Ababa University and Postgraduate Diploma in Teaching Program. The study considered only the 2011 and 2015 academic years in order to have the general pictures the two modalities had at the commencement stages.

Sampling

There were 427 prospective trainees enrolled in PGDT in Addis Ababa University in summer 2011 in eight fields of studies: Amharic, English, Geography, Civics and Ethical Education, Math, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Physical Education. In 2015 academic year, a total of 268 trainees were enrolled in the University in 8 fields of study such as Amharic, English, Geography, Civics and Ethical education, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Physical Education. For the analysis, all fields which were offered in both modalities have been considered. Hence, all the trainees from the eight field of studies such as Amharic, English, Geography, Civics and Ethical Education, Math, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Physical Education were considered in order to clearly understand the pattern.

Data gathering instrument

A descriptive survey research design with concurrent mixed (qualitative and quantitative) approach has been employed with the intention of getting the general picture of the current teacher training program in the College of Education and Behavioral Studies, Addis Ababa University.

An interview has been held with the trainees 4, and 5 trainees from the Department of Science and Mathematics Education in 2011 and 2015 academic years were interviewed respectively. In the same way, a total of 7 candidates, that is, 3 and 4 trainees from the Department of Social Science and Language Education were interviewed in the year 2011 and 2015 consecutively.

In sum, 16 trainees were interviewed at College of Education and Behavioral Studies, Addis Ababa University. The interview was documented on researcher's diary for the year 2011 and 2015, and an attempt has been made to probe their responses more deeply in order to get latent information related to the teaching profession (Cohen et al., 2011).

The document analysis, that is, registrar records were used to gather the necessary information on the enrollment and graduation of the target groups, and hence, the lists of trainees who enrolled and graduated from the two departments, the only departments in the college have been collected.

Data analysis

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative analytical procedures

have been used for the analysis. Descriptive statistics, frequency and percentage have been employed to analyze the quantitative data while the data obtained through interviews have been organized and narrated by using descriptive statements. The analysis and discussion of both quantitative and qualitative data have been combined together for the better understanding of the results.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Hitherto, it was mentioned that an attempt has been made to explore the practice of current teacher education programs: in-out-in modality, and in-out modality at the College of Education and Behavioral Studies, Addis Ababa University. The study reflected on only the 2011 and 2015 academic years of the two modalities at the commencement stage in order to view the general trend of the program. The analysis of the two academic years has been presented consecutively as shown in Table 1.

As presented in Table 1, the number of graduates in physics, maths, chemistry and biology is very small. Sadly, from 73 enrolled trainees, only 15 (20.5%) graduated from the physics field, followed by mathematics, 35.6%. A significant number of trainees (83.3%) graduated from the physical education field. When students quit their training, some of them got their clearance from the college. The researcher got the opportunity to interview them when they visited his office to get his signature and stamp for their clearance form. For the question, *why do you quit your training?* Most of them replied that they got a job opportunity. Interestingly, the reasons they wrote on their clearance form were different. They wrote different reasons: *health problem, family problem, diversity visa (DV) lottery, economic reasons, and personal problem*. In fact, what they wrote was totally different from the actual reasons, that is, securing the better job opportunity.

The researcher further asked them, *why they wrote those reasons against their factual reasons for quitting their training*. They replied, if they want to continue their training in the future, they can easily get justification for the reasons they wrote on their clearance form than getting the better job as the reasons for quitting the program. In fact, only the Physical Education graduates who replied they could not easily find a job in other sectors than teaching. If they want to search for a better salary, the only chance they have is to look for a better job in private schools. So, the whole story shows the challenges confronting teaching profession (Table 2).

As compared to the Science and Mathematics Education graduates (Table 1), the number of graduates from Social Science and Language Education is higher, even if, it is not better. As can be further inferred from Table 2, only Geography field has an outsized number of graduates. From the total 28 enrolled trainees, 22 of them, which constitutes 78.57% graduated from Geography field of studies. Other fields, Amharic, English, and Civics and Ethical Education, are relatively

Table 1. Enrolled and graduated trainees in the field of Science and Mathematics Education in the year 2011.

S/N	Field of the study	Total number of enrolled trainees	Total number of graduated trainees	Percentage
1	Biology	44	17	38.64
2	Chemistry	46	14	30.43
3	Maths	45	16	35.6
4	Physics	73	15	20.5
5	Physical education	36	30	83.3
Total		244	92	37.71

Source: Registrar office and Office for the Associate Dean for Undergraduate Programs, College of Education and Behavioural Studies.

Table 2. Enrolled and graduated trainees in the field of social science and language education in the year 2011.

S/N	Field of the study	Total number of enrolled trainees	Total number of graduated trainees	Percentage
1	Amharic	37	17	45.95
2	English	42	17	40.48
3	Civics and ethical education	76	31	40.79
4	Geography	28	22	78.57
Total		183	87	47.54

Source: Registrar office and Office for the Associate Dean for Undergraduate Programs, College of Education and Behavioural Studies.

Table 3. Enrolled and graduated trainees in the field of science and mathematics education, and social science language education in the year 2011.

S/N	Field of the study	Total number of enrolled trainees	Total number of graduated trainees	Percentage
1	Science and mathematics education	244	92	37.71
2	Social science and language education	183	87	47.54
Total		427	179	41.92

Source: Registrar office and office for the associate dean for undergraduate programs, college of education and behavioural studies.

on a similar proportion of graduates, that is 45.95, 40.48 and 40.79% respectively. From the interview, different reasons obtained for quitting their training such as *getting a teaching job in private school with a better salary, transfer to another university, which is near to their home village, further education (pursuing MA studies), getting a better job in other sectors, lack of support, and receiving the scholarship*. These were the major reasons they exclaimed for leaving the training. In general, a significant number of trainees left their training aside in the year 2011 academic year (Table 3).

As can be clearly seen from Table 3, from 183 enrolled trainees, only 47.54% (N=87) graduated from the Social Science and Language Education field of studies. In the same way, 37.71% (N=92) graduates of Science and Mathematics Education field quit the training. In the journey of training, one can imagine the resources devoted to realizing the current training program. This

particular case, if things are going to continue per se, schools may be left empty, which in turn have negative consequences on the quality of secondary schools' students who are expected to join the universities to challenge globalization and play as key actors in the knowledge-based economy in the future. Hence, a wide range of research at the national level needs to be encouraged to view this particular case study further (Table 4).

As it could be inferred from Table 4, the total of 120 trainees was enrolled in four fields such as Biology, Chemistry, Mathematics, and Physics, and each with 30 trainees, and Physical education field with 29 trainees. However, only 50% (N=15), 60% (N=18), 53.33% (N=16), 50% (N=15), and 72.41% (N=21) of the trainees from Biology, Chemistry, Mathematics, Physics, and Physical Education were respectively graduated from the University. A large number of trainees (72.41%)

Table 4. Enrolled and graduated trainees in the field of science and mathematics education in the year 2015.

S/N	Field of the study	Total number of enrolled trainees	Total number of graduated trainees	Percentage
1	Biology	30	15	50.00
2	Chemistry	30	18	60.00
3	Maths	30	16	53.33
4	Physics	30	15	50.00
5	Physical education	29	21	72.41
Total		149	85	57.05

Source: Registrar office and Office for the Associate Dean for Undergraduate Programs, College of Education and Behavioural Studies.

Table 5. Enrolled and graduated trainees in the field of social science and language education in the year 2015.

S/N	Field of the study	Total number of enrolled trainees	Total number of graduated trainees	Percentage
1	Amharic	29	15	51.72
2	English	30	5	16.67
3	Civics and ethical education	30	5	16.67
4	Geography	30	8	26.67
Total		119	33	27.73

Source: Registrar office and Office for the Associate Dean for Undergraduate Programs, College of Education and Behavioural Studies.

Table 6. Enrolled and graduated trainees in the field of science and mathematics education, and social science language education in the year 2015.

S/N	Field of the study	Total number of enrolled trainees	Total number of graduated trainees	Percentage
1	Science and mathematics education	149	85	57.05
2	Social science and language education	119	33	27.73
Total		268	118	44.03

Source: Registrar office and Office for the Associate Dean for Undergraduate Programs, College of Education and Behavioural Studies.

graduated from Physical Education field of studies. In total, only 57.05% (85) of trainees graduated from the total number of 149 students who were enrolled at the University with the attrition percentage of almost 43% (Table 5).

The result in Table 5 shows that almost similar number of trainees were enrolled in the fields of Social Science and Language Education areas such as Amharic (29), English (30) Civics and ethical education (30), Geography (30). Among these, only 15 (51.72%), 5 (16.67%), 5 (16.16%), and 8 (26.67%) trainees from Amharic, English, Civics and Ethical Education, and Geography fields respectively graduated from 119 enrolled trainees. In general, only 33 (27.73) trainees graduated from the total of 119 trainees who got admission. Hence, the attrition rate is almost 72.27%. So, one can possibly understand the resources wastage in

running the program and the challenges ahead of the Education Sector in producing qualified secondary school teachers. This scenario is left open for further research, discussion and deliberation among different stakeholders (Table 6).

As indicated in Table 6, out of 149 trainees, 85 trainees, which constitute for 57.05% graduated from Science and Mathematics Education field, and only 27.73% (33) trainees graduated from the Department of Social Science and Language Education. As can be further inferred from the Table 6, attrition percentage is very high in the field of Social Science and Language Education as compared to the Science and Mathematics Education field of studies. From the interview, some of the Social Science and Language Education graduates explained that they have more job opportunities than those who graduated from the Science and Mathematics

fields.

In fact, the enrollment proportion of Social Science and Language Education field is lower than that of science at the national level. This can further take us to the change of education policy, 70:30 that is, 70% catering for science and technology students whereas 30% for humanities and social sciences (Ministry of Education, 2010a). This shows the policy change has opened more job opportunities for the Social Science and Language Education graduates as their number is small compared to science graduates. The figures in Table 6 also justify the trend. The situation can also be a more exciting area of research which needs to be further approached in the future. From the interview with the question “*Why did you join teaching profession?*” One of the interviewees explained his reasons as:

“What else can I join? I have been searching for a job in my field of study almost for one year; I couldn’t find the job. Finally, I joined this profession even if my preference is working in my field of study.” Interviewed on May 14, 2015.

Another interviewee on the same day responded:

“I didn’t think of teaching in my life but.... sorry teacher, no options at all.”

As can be seen from the interviewee's responses, teaching is perceived as the least preferred profession and sometimes considered as a bridge for the search of better job opportunities. As the current education program requires at least having BA/BSC degree in the subject area, those who join the program can easily leave the profession as soon as they find the best options. As Table 6 reveals, many students quitted their training soon after they found a job in other non-teaching sectors. No system of retentions was put in place at the time of the new teaching modality implementation.

In connection to this, for the question, *will you leave teaching profession if you are paid high salary?* The same interviewees said “yes.” They expressed that *“nowadays, teaching is the most demanding task, especially at the high school level. High school students don’t have the interest to learn, and they are misbehaving too much.”* Many trainees bitterly complained about the behavior of high school students, particularly when these trainees were sent to high school for one-month teaching practice. The researcher further interviewed the trainees on their first experience of one-month teaching experience. They were asked:

What makes your teaching practice more difficult during your one-month teaching practice? One of the interviewees from English field of study replied:

You know, I did not have teaching experience before. I

just attended pedagogy courses this year. It is a demanding profession. Some may think, teaching is an easy task, but for me, if I have to teach seriously, I felt so many gaps like skills of teaching, getting student attention, engaging students in their task, giving feedback to what student ask in the classroom, organizing the students and so on. I personally believe that one has to love the profession before she/he joins it. For me, teaching is terrible, and I can not continue with this job. No no no! I really sympathize with my high school teachers for their long year of services in this profession. Interviewed May 13, 2015

The other interviewee from Biology field responded as follow:

I know teaching is a demanding profession. I love it! I believe teaching is the foundation of every profession, whatever you call it: medicine, accounting, engineering, architecture, etc., they are all results of teaching. In most cases, this makes me happy, and I love the profession. It does not imply that it is not a difficult task. As a beginner, I perceive teaching as for how a bicycle rider begins to practice riding. When you watch as an outsider, it looks easy but when you are given to ride you feel it, and you ask for help. So, riding a bike is not an easy task, sometimes you need help, sometimes you fall down, sometimes you hit people and so on. You need to practice again and again until you feel like a good rider. So, this is the way I perceive teaching, if it is from the bottom of our heart, we will be good riders of the profession regardless of all the challenges in front of us. So, I love teaching and will grow in teaching and die with teaching. This is my feeling. Interviewed May 13, 2015

As we can understand from the responses of the aforementioned interviewees, trainees’ interest is very important either to stay or leave the profession. Even if, it is difficult to get people internal feelings and attitudes, sometimes getting discussion and holding an interview with applicant particularly, during the selection process can possibly help the institution to recruit better trainees with a positive attitude towards the profession. From the aforementioned interview, the second interviewee has even scored best mark in her field of study when compared to her classmates, and her explanations were reliable.

In general, the trainees expressed different opinions regarding the program; the majority were not interested in the program while others were in favor of the program. In connection to this idea, Deneke et al. (2015) also agreed that the current teacher education modality had affected the trainee's interest toward the program. He further argued that “There is a lack of coordination among the stakeholders; the number of courses that trainees are required to take and the given time to complete the training is not proportional; in return, all these challenges

made the training boring to meet the trainees' needs and expectations. This scenario can adversely affect the trainees teaching profession and quality of education at large" (Deneke et al., 2015). Hence, encouragement and proper orientation are implied soon after the admission of the trainees in their respective programs.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

Looking at the admission and graduation of trainees at the entry phase of the two modalities, in-out-in of 2011, and in-out of the 2015 academic year, several candidates quitted their training. Candidates were not interested in the program because most of them joined the program because they had no any other job opportunity. This shows that trainees are not intrinsically motivated to join the teaching profession though a few trainee love their profession.

Sadly, the attrition trend is very high in both 2011 and 2015 academic year, that is, 50.08 and 55.97% of the candidates left the training in 2011 and 2015 academic years respectively, and this needs serious attention. In an in-out-in teaching modality, it was not easy for the trainees to be immersed in the actual teaching practice right from the beginning. They were shouldering the full responsibility of instruction before they prepare themselves at least psychologically. As teaching is a complex career, it is evident that the trainees could be in a state of confusion and stress at the commencement stage of teaching practice. They need to be provided strong professional support, and hence there should be a strong partnership among secondary schools, regional education bureau and near university or teacher training institution.

Hence, the Ministry of Education and other stakeholders need to promote teaching profession and encourage intrinsically motivated trainees during the selection process. In addition, encouragement and proper orientation need be carried out before the selection process in order to influence the trainees to value teaching profession and attend the training properly, though naturally resources can be limited. The Ministry of Education should urge the Regional Education Bureaus to select, recruit and send their trainees to universities as per the set guidelines. The selection and admission criteria should also be respected.

From the study, further discussion on the motivation and retention mechanisms of the trainees is implied. So, various stakeholders, Ministry of education, Regional bureaus, universities, etc. need to join their hands to open further dialogue on how to strengthen the current Teacher Education Programs straightaway. In general, rethinking the program is implied from the finding of this research.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

A study on the views of preschool teachers and teacher candidates about the concepts of learning and participation

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This study was conducted in order to examine the views of preschool teachers and teacher candidates about the concepts of learning and participation, and to explore how they perceive the relationship between the two. The study group comprised of 10 preschool teachers working at formal preschools located in Afyonkarahisar and affiliated with the Ministry of Education, and 10 teacher candidates who were senior students at Afyon Kocatepe University Education Faculty's Department of Early Childhood Education. Using the qualitative research method of phenomenology, the study collected its data through semi-structured interviews. The data were analyzed by using content analysis under four themes: views about learning, views about participation, views about the relationship between participation and learning, and views about requirements for participation and learning.

Key words: Learning, participation, preschool teacher, preschool teacher candidate.

INTRODUCTION

Learning and development are linked by a dynamic relationship. In addition to being a mental process and action, learning has also been defined as a biological, social, emotional and cultural act (Tuğrul, 2012). It is a process that starts at childhood, continues through life, and involves changes in behaviors, knowledge, attitudes and skills (Ugaste et al., 2014). The learning process is also defined as a process of constructing new knowledge and behaviors (De Houwer et al., 2013).

The ever-present question whether it is nature or nurture that affects child development and learning has been answered as both (Inan, 2011). Preschool education is crucial in supporting children's development areas, and

improving their learning processes. The content of preschool education is dynamic and involves many interaction processes regarding learning (Broström et al., 2012). Even though preschool curriculum activities offer many learning opportunities, the characteristics of child and teacher are equally important in the process (Berthelsen and Brownlee, 2005). In order for children to make full use of instructional environments, the activities in the curriculum must be implemented using appropriate instructional techniques and methods (Zembar, 2012).

Learning is triggered by children's social and cultural experiences, or in other words, their life experiences. The process of forming and making meaning of experiences

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lays the foundation for new experiences and ways of making meaning. This perspective requires that children should be active participants in the learning process (Pramling et al., 2006). Active participation is a process of grasping independence, developing critical thinking skills, and thus forming an identity (Karlsson, 2009; Westlund, 2011).

Preschool children learn faster in environments with rich stimuli where they can gain real life experiences, and observe and share various situations (Tuğrul, 2012). Preschool children learn via observation, listening and participation. This view asserts that learning occurs through "active participation" (Rogoff et al., 2003). Being active in the learning process requires children to participate directly (Dunphy, 2012).

It is essential that children participate actively and effectively in learning processes, and adapt their learning to suit new situations (MEB, 2013). Child-centered programs based on children's interests are influential in understanding the importance of child participation in the learning process (Berthelsen and Brownlee, 2005; Johansson and Pramling-Samuelsson, 2006).

Sociocultural theory posits that social interactions play a vital role in preschool learning (Yaşar, 2012). The Sociocultural theory also emphasizes the importance of interacting with, while constructing meaning (Erdiller, 2010). In addition, the sociocultural theory takes cultural expectations and interactions to be effective in learning processes (Anning and Edwards, 2006). For learning theories, participative activities and social practices historically and culturally support child development. In addition, these theories examine the effects of familial, social and cultural activities and pedagogical relationships between learning processes (Hedges and Cullen, 2012). Preschool children's participation processes are directly related to cooperative learning (Berthelsen et al., 2009).

Teachers also need certain skills in order to boost learning and participation processes in preschool programs (Johansson and Sandberg, 2010). Teachers who value children's participation can motivate them to learn (Berthelsen et al., 2005). Children need learning environments where they can be actively involved in making decisions about their own learning, in order to participate effectively in learning processes (Jordan, 2004).

James and Pollard (2008) state that barriers to the learning and participative processes of school children stem from teacher assumptions about children's capabilities, and how best they may be taught. Emilson and Folkesson (2006) examined the relationship between teacher control levels and children's participation processes, and concluded that increased control levels on the part of preschool teachers limit children's participation and listening skills, while decreased control levels support their participation processes.

Hännikäinen and Rasku-Puttonen (2010) studied the contribution of pre and elementary school teachers to children's participation processes, and found that the latter use more academic methods to encourage participation processes. In addition, the support that preschool teachers lend to children's participation processes, as well as creative and play-based activities develop children's sense of curiosity, and increase their interest in learning processes and motivation.

It is vital that preschool teachers guide learning processes in line with children's interests and needs, and support their participation processes. In developing children's learning and participation processes, teachers' ideas and experiences are also important. An examination of the related literature reveals that there are limited studies in Turkey about the views of preschool teachers and teacher candidates about the concepts of learning and participation. Therefore, there is a need for such studies.

This study aims to determine the views of preschool teachers and teacher candidates about the concepts of learning and participation, and to explore how they perceive their relationships. In order to attain these purposes, the study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What are preschool teachers' views about learning?
2. What are preschool teachers' views about the relationship between learning and participation?
3. What are preschool teacher candidates' views about learning?
4. What are preschool teacher candidates' views about the relationship between learning and participation?

METHODOLOGY

Research design

The study has a qualitative nature, and uses the design of phenomenology. This method "investigates various reactions to, or perceptions of, a particular phenomenon", and aims to help researchers "gain insight into the world of his or her participants", and describe the perceptions and reactions of these participants (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2008). Yıldırım and Şimşek (2008) argue that this kind of research may not present certain or generalizable results but it might reveal examples, explanations and experiences, which can help us identify and comprehend a phenomenon. Phenomenology was the best suited tradition because it focused on the specific experience of the participants and how they felt and perceived their experiences. As the study aims to explore participation and learning processes of pre-school teachers and pre-service pre-school teachers, the phenomenological design was utilized in this study. The presence of a relationship was expected to be found between the perceptions of teachers and student teachers and the phenomenological approach.

Participants

The study used the purposive method of criterion sampling to

recruit participants. This method covers the study of all situations that meet a set of pre-specified criteria (Patton, 2002; Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005). The study group included 10 female preschool teachers working at formal preschools in Afyonkarahisar affiliated with the Ministry of Education, and 10 teacher candidates (3 males; 7 females) who were senior year students at Early Childhood Education Department, Faculty of Education, Afyon Kocatepe University. Five of the preschool teachers were teaching at an elementary school preschool program, while the remaining five were working at independent kindergartens. One teacher had 17 years of professional experience; two, 16 years; two, 10 years; three, 6 years; and two, 2 years. Eight of the preschool teachers were Early Childhood Education graduates and 2 were Child Development graduates.

Data collection tool

In this study, semi-structured interviews were held with preschool teachers and teacher candidates to examine their views about the concepts of learning and participation, and the relationships between them. Interviews provided us with a deeper understanding of unobservable processes such as experiences, attitudes and thoughts (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008).

After obtaining the consent of preschool teacher candidates for interviews, one-to-one meetings were held with them at pre-specified dates in the meeting hall at the Education Faculty. The interviews took approximately 15 to 20 min and were recorded with the permission of the teacher candidates. The consent of preschool teachers was also obtained for the interviews, after which meetings were held at a specified date in the staffroom of their respective schools. The interviews took approximately 15-20 minutes and were recorded with the permission of the teachers.

The data collection tool used in the study was a semi-structured interview form. The form was designed by the researchers after reviewing the literature and included an introduction stating the purpose of the study and questions involving demographics. The form also included seven open-ended questions to obtain in-depth information about teachers' and teacher candidates' views on learning and participation. The semi-structured interview forms were then examined by four field experts for internal validity. With their suggestions, necessary revisions and additions were made, and the forms were finalized.

Data analysis

The data obtained were analyzed by the qualitative data analysis method of content analysis. This was done in the 4 stages of data coding, theme identification, code and theme arrangement, and definition and interpretation of findings (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008). In the first stage, all recorded interviews were transcribed. Two researchers read all of the forms, and coded them. To ensure reliability between, a series of meetings were held for partly coded data and comparisons were made. The resulting inter-coder reliability was 0.88. In the second stage, themes were built by using the codes, and agreement was sought over these themes. The third stage involved the arrangement of data according to codes and themes, and it was resolved that no new themes emerged other than the previously decided ones. In the final stage, the findings were interpreted and reported by the researchers.

RESULTS

As a result of the analysis, the findings were categorized

into four themes: views about learning, views about participation, views about the relationship between participation and learning, and views about participation and learning taking place.

Views about learning

Preschool teachers (n=6) and teacher candidates (n=5) defined learning as "behavior change". In addition, teachers (n=2) and teacher candidates (n=3) mentioned the effects of experiences in the learning process while defining learning. One teacher candidate referred to the importance of experiences in learning as follows:

"I believe learning in preschool completely stems from experience. Even how we enter the classroom as teachers is important, each action may lead to learning. We can even turn the dropping of a toy on the floor into learning"

The majority of preschool teachers (n=9) stated that children learn by doing and living. One teacher also mentioned the importance of participation in the process, and aligning the levels of activities with children's development. When the teachers were asked to exemplify learning, some (n=5) mentioned science experiments. They also added the processes in music (n=1), art (n=1) and literacy (n=1) activities and modeling (n=1) as examples. One teacher exemplified learning as follows:

"We teach recycling but we want it to be permanent, we don't want it forgotten. For the school art activity, we built a cute and fun recycling box, where we leave extra pieces of paper after activities. Then our principal calls the collectors and they arrive to take the contents of the box. This is a concrete thing. When we involve the children and teach them by doing, they learn permanently."

Teacher candidates, on the other hand, mentioned different activities such as science (n=2), Turkish-language (n=2), music (n=1), literacy (n=1), mathematics (n=1), art (n=1), drama (n=1) as examples of learning situations.

One teacher candidate stated the following example:

"During my internship, I carried out some work on painters. We examined some of Salvador Dali's pieces together with the children and we analyzed each component of his paintings. For instance, there was a painting of happiness. We analyzed the whole painting talking about why the people in it were happy or people lying on the bed, who was lying next to whom, what was

there on the bed. Then I cut half the painting off and gave them to the children to complete the painting. They remembered it well."

Preschool teachers and teacher candidates defined learning as "the process of creating behavior change" thus emphasizing the cognitive aspects of learning, while at the same time mentioning the principle of "learning by doing" in learning processes. The fact that teacher candidates did not limit learning situations as teachers did, and gave more example of activities may be as a result of their ability to combine the knowledge gained from their courses with practice. At the same time, it was a positive finding that teachers gave examples of learning situations that involved play, as this shows their awareness of the role of play in learning.

Views about participation

Preschool teachers defined participation as (n=4) children being "willing to learn and active in activities". Some teachers (n=2) also emphasized the critical role of family in child participation. Some teacher candidates (n=4) defined participation as children's active involvement in an activity, while one mentioned the importance of family and school management in the participation process.

Preschool teachers gave the following examples as situations where children's participation was encouraged: drama (n=3), play (n=2) and science (n=2). Teacher candidates, on the other hand, gave the examples of music (n=2), play (n=2), art (n=1), drama (n=1) and science (n=1). One preschool teacher gave the following example on the participation process:

"The qualities of autumn are discussed. Then all children become storks and fly. The teacher interviews the storks like a news reporter. As if she's holding a microphone, she asks questions like 'Where are you flying to dear storks?', 'What would happen if you didn't migrate?' or 'Are you going to stay here always?'. Until today, I've always received correct responses, the children get happy and want to join and play again."

One teacher candidate gave the following example:

"We did the seven step dance, lively and with music. I didn't tell the children the activity was starting. The music started and they all gathered, wondering what was happening. Then I turned the music off and told them we were going to play a great game and asked them to do what I did. I then put the music on again and they joined me and we had great fun. We repeated it three or four times."

Teachers and teacher candidates also mentioned the importance of visuals in the participation process. One of

the teachers emphasized this as follows:

"When there is visual material, participation increases. Children love visual presentations. It makes it easier for them to participate."

A teacher candidate also expressed the importance of visuals:

"The more the visuals, the better the participation."

In addition, some teachers and (n=2) and teacher candidates (n=2) stated that, children's interest was crucial for participation to take place. Teachers stated the following about this:

"We need to get down to children's development levels; we need to make them feel interested. If it's interesting, I think learning will happen."

"If the children are interested and if it's present in their lives, they participate more. But if it's absent from their lives, they become less interested in things that are unfamiliar to them."

Teacher candidates stated the following about this issue:

"For more participation, we need to draw their attention and do things that will get them interested"

"I think participation will be ensured by continuously attracting their attention and going to their level, for instance sitting on the floor with them and touching each one, talking, showing interest in each child."

In addition, some teacher candidates (n=3) talked about the role of the teacher in the participation process. One teacher candidate stated:

"If teachers prepare more effective activities, they create more participation and take some weight off their own shoulders. Participation is much better on a day when the teacher plans how to manage the class, what questions to ask and so on, as compared to going to work unprepared."

The findings showed that teachers and teacher candidates defined children's participation in a similar way. Judging from the definitions and examples given by teachers and teacher candidates, it was seen that they limited the participation process to classroom activities. Considering that participation processes should include active listening and involvement of children in decision-making processes, teachers and teacher candidates seem to need support in gaining more information and experiences.

Views about the relationship between participation and learning

The majority of preschool teachers (n=9) and all teacher

candidates pointed to a direct relationship between participation and learning. Teachers referred to this relationship as follows:

“Learning requires living inside the event, learning and participation are inseparable...”

“The more involved the child is, the better the learning...”

Teacher candidates stated the following regarding the relationship between learning and participation:

“The child should actively participate to learn. I believe the two are related and parts of a whole.”

“The more the participation, the more the learning. There is a direct relationship between them.”

It is a positive finding that the majority of teachers and teacher candidates were aware of the relationship between learning and participation.

Views about requirements for participation and learning

Preschool teachers stressed that for children to learn and participate, their socio-emotional (n=5), linguistic (n=5), cognitive (n=3) and motor (n=2) development skills need to be shapen. Teachers stated that, for learning and participation to take place, children must have better *“listening, sharing, self-expression, small muscle, creative, rule-abiding, decision-making”* skills. Some teacher candidates (n=4) stated that learning and participation depended on supporting children’s entire development areas. One teacher candidate stated:

“I can’t single out cognition. I think cognitive, motor, self-care, socio-emotional, linguistic skills are all needed to develop. We cannot think on a single dimension. Participation can be maximized and learning ensured by advancing all development areas.”

Teacher candidates also stated that skills such as *“attention, listening, respecting others’ characteristics and expressing oneself”* need to be developed. It was noteworthy that teacher candidates emphasized the advancement of all development areas for learning and participation, and stressed the developmental aspects of the program.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Aiming to determine the views of preschool teachers and teacher candidates about the concepts of learning and participation, and also their perceptions of the relationship between the two, the present study found that preschool

teachers and teacher candidates defined learning as “a process of behavior change”.

Preschool teachers stressed the principle of “learning by doing-living” in the process of learning, while teacher candidates gave examples of more varied activity types than teachers. Johansson and Sandberg (2010) studied the views of preschool teachers and teacher candidates about learning and participation, and concluded that the majority defined learning as information acquisition and thought it to result from interactions, experiences and play.

In a study by Broström et al. (2012) examining the views of preschool teachers about learning, teachers most commonly mentioned processes supporting children’s social development and initiatives as well as play activities. The preschool teachers in Ugaste et al. (2014) study emphasized the importance of positive interactions with children, attitudes that support their emotional well-being and cooperation with families as prerequisites of learning. In addition, they also mentioned teacher-family cooperation and children’s previous learning experiences as prerequisites. The emphasis that most preschool teachers and teacher candidates placed on the principle of “learning by doing and living” and the emphasis they placed on the role of play in the learning process are parallel to other results reported in the literature.

Another result of this study has been that teachers and teacher candidates define children’s participation in a similar way, and limit the participation process only to classroom activities. In addition, it is worth noting that teachers and teacher candidates stressed the role of arrangements that interest children and child-centered practices in the participation process. Teachers’ role in the participation process by teacher candidates may be explained by the fact that they have discovered the importance of professional skills in this issue. Children’s participation processes in preschool institutions is said to depend on teachers’ knowledge and skill levels (Johansson and Sandberg, 2010).

Sandberg and Eriksson (2010) explored preschool teacher views about participation and found that they thought participation was linked to emotional well-being, belonging, interaction, communication and activities. Hännikäinen and Rasku-Puttonen (2010) found in their study that teachers tried to enrich children’s participation processes by increasing their involvement in activities and offering them opportunities in line with their interests and needs.

In addition, they stated that valuing participation in classrooms enhances interaction and cooperation. The preschool teachers studied by Broström et al. (2015) defined participation as the interactions between teachers and children, and stated that it benefits from supporting children in making their own decisions and giving them chances to make their own choices.

The results showed that the majority of teachers and teacher candidates thought there was a direct relationship between participation, learning and skills from different development areas needed to be improved for participation and learning to take place. Some teacher candidates, on the other hand, believed that all development areas needed to be fostered for participation and learning to take place. Berthelsen and Brownlee (2005) stated that teachers who value children's participation processes motivate their learning as well.

Johansson and Sandberg (2010) finding that the majority of preschool teachers and teacher candidates thought there was a relationship between learning and participation corroborates the findings of this study. In Loizou and Avgitidou (2014) study, preschool teachers emphasized the importance of play in children's learning and participation processes, and stated that teachers needed to be supported in their endeavors. Insulander et al. (2015) stress that active learning needed to be promoted to support children's participation processes. The teachers and teacher candidates that Johansson and Sandberg (2010) studied emphasized that social, cognitive and creative skills is needed to be improved to foster learning and participation processes in children.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In light of the results of the study, the following recommendations can be made:

1. In-service training programs can be organized to develop preschool teachers' learning and participation processes.
2. Pre-service training programs can be organized to develop preschool teacher candidates' learning and participation processes.
3. Comprehensive studies may be conducted to observe learning and participation processes in the preschool period.
4. Within the scope of teaching practice, teacher candidates and classroom teachers may exchange ideas about developing learning and participation processes.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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