

İÇİNDEKİLER / CONTENTS

Prof. Dr. Kerim GÜNDOĞDU

Editor in Chief

Baş Editörden

Sükran Tok, Sevdâ Dolapçioğlu, Eda Akgün Özpolat A Need Analysis on Development of Creative Thinking Skills: A Phenomenological Study [Research Paper] Yaratıcı Düşünme Becerilerinin Geliştirilmesi Üzerine İhtiyaç Analizi: Bir Fenomenoloji Çalışması1-18 [Araştırma Makalesi]	VI
Ayşe Kırmızı Ayyıldız, Nur Akkuş Çakır, Adapting Coursebook Activities to Stimulate Language Learning among Rural Students: An Action Research [Research Paper] Kırsal Öğrenciler Arasında İngilizce Öğrenimini Teşvik Etmek İçin Ders Kitabı Etkinliklerinin Uyarlanması: Bir Eylem Araştırması19-42 [Araştırma Makalesi]	19-42
Arif Yılmaz, Nevra Atış Akyol, Şifa Kevser Çakmak, Esra Tuğba Çoban Söylemez Perceptions of Early Childhood Preservice Teachers on Early Childhood Education Undergraduate Program Courses [Research Paper] Okul Öncesi Öğretmen Adaylarının Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı Derslerine Yönelik Görüşleri43-70 [Araştırma Makalesi]	43-70
Nesibe Ağırman, M. Hanifi Ercoşkun History of the Flipped Classroom Model and Uses of the Flipped Classroom Concept [Review Study] Ters Yüz Sınıf Modeli'nin Tarihi ve Ters Yüz Sınıf Kavramının Kullanımları71-88 [Derleme Çalışması]	71-88
Senem Sanel-Erginel Student Teachers' Experiences in an Emergency Remote Microteaching Course: Lessons Learned for the COVID-19 Era and Beyond [Research Paper] Acil Uzaktan Mikro-öğretim Dersinde Öğretmen Adaylarının Deneyimleri: COVID-19 Dönemi ve Sonrası İçin Çıkarılan Dersler89-112 [Araştırma Makalesi]	89-112
Abdullah Açar, Banu Yücel Toy Economic and Political Analysis of Initial Teacher Education from Consensus and Conflict Perspectives in Documents of International Institutions [Review Study] Uluslararası Kuruluşların Belgelerinde Hizmet Öncesi Öğretmen Eğitiminin Uzlaşmacı ve Çatışmacı Bakış Açılıyla Ekonomik ve Politik Analizi113-146 [Derleme Çalışması]	113-146
Engin Demir, Filiz Çetin Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs regarding Out-of-School Learning Activities [Research Paper] Öğretmenlerin Okul Dışı Öğrenme Faaliyetlerine Yönelik Öz-Yeterlik İnançları147-166 [Araştırma Makalesi]	147-166
Ahmet Gülay, Taner Altun An Investigation on the Perceptions of Primary School Teachers Related to the Implementation Levels of Differentiated Instruction [Research Paper] Sınıf Öğretmenlerinin Farklılaştırılmış Öğretimi Uygulama Düzeylerine Yönelik Algılarının İncelenmesi167-190 [Araştırma Makalesi]	167-190
Sedef Süer, İsmail Kinay Investigation of Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity [Research Paper] Sınıf Öğretmenlerinin Programa Bağlılıklarının İncelenmesi191-214 [Araştırma Makalesi]	191-214
Muhammed Akıncı, Abdulkadir Kurt A Responsive Approach to Curricular Needs of Turkish Educational System: Curriculum Based on Reason, Values and Culture [Review Study] Türk Eğitim Sisteminin Program İhtiyaçlarına Cevap Verici Bir Yaklaşım: Akıl, Değerler ve Kültür Temelli Program215-246 [Derleme Çalışması]	215-246
Ozge Aydın, Ahmet Ok A Systematic Review on Teacher's Expectations and Classroom Behaviors [Review Study] Öğretmenlerin Beklentileri ve Sınıf İç Davranışları Üzerine Sistematik Bir İnceleme247-274 [Derleme Çalışması]	247-274
Yusuf Başkan, Mehmet Bars Opinions of Classroom Teachers Working in Public Education Centers on Adult Education [Research Paper] Halk Eğitimi Merkezlerinde Görev Alan Sınıf Öğretmenlerinin Yetişkin Eğitimine İlişkin Görüşleri275-304	275-304

ISSN: 2146-3638



EPÖDER EĞİTİM PROGRAMLARI VE ÖĞRETİM DERNEĞİ
TURKISH CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION ASSOCIATION

ULUSLARARASI EĞİTİM PROGRAMLARI VE ÖĞRETİM ÇALIŞMALARI DERGİSİ

*International Journal of Curriculum and
Instructional Studies*

Uluslararası Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Çalışmaları Dergisi / International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies Cilt/Volume: 12 Sayı/Issue: 1

CİLT/VOLUME: 12

SAYI/ISSUE: 1

JUNE/HAZİRAN 2022



EPÖDER EĞİTİM PROGRAMLARI VE ÖĞRETİM DERNEĞİ
TURKISH CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION ASSOCIATION

ULUSLARARASI EĞİTİM PROGRAMLARI VE ÖĞRETİM ÇALIŞMALARI DERGİSİ

*International Journal of Curriculum and
Instructional Studies*

CİLT/VOLUME: 12

SAYI/ISSUE: 1

HAZİRAN / JUNE 2022

ISSN: 2146-3638



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL STUDIES
[ULUSLARARASI EĞİTİM PROGRAMLARI VE ÖĞRETİM ÇALIŞMALARI DERGİSİ]

IJOCIS is peer reviewed and published semiannually (June and December)	Haziran ve Aralık aylarında olmak üzere yılda 2 kez yayımlanan hakemli bir dergidir.
Sponsor EPÖDER	Sponsoru EPÖDER
Owner Prof. Dr. Özcan Demirel	Sahibi Prof. Dr. Özcan Demirel
Editor in Chief Prof. Dr. Kerim Gündoğdu	Baş Editör Prof. Dr. Kerim Gündoğdu
Editors Prof. Dr. Gülsen Ünver Assoc. Prof. Dr. Aslıhan Selcen Bingöl Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gülçin Tan Şişman	Editörler Prof. Dr. Gülsen Ünver Doç. Dr. Aslıhan Selcen Bingöl Doç. Dr. Gülçin Tan Şişman
Editorial Assistants Asst. Prof. Dr. Semra Tican Başaran Asst. Prof. Dr. Yasemin Karsantık	Yardımcı Editörler Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Semra Tican Başaran Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin Karsantık
Technical Editor Veysel Karani Ceylan, PhD Çetin Yurtsever, MA	Teknik Editör Dr. Veysel Karani Ceylan Çetin Yurtsever, MA
Proofreading Editors Assoc. Prof. Dr. Dilara Demirbulak Instr. Dr. Gülçin Gülmez Dr. Betül Altay Burcu Dönmez (Turkish Teacher, PhD Student) Türkü Payza (Turkish Teacher, PhD Student)	Redaksiyon Editörleri Doç. Dr. Dilara Demirbulak Öğr. Gör. Dr. Gülçin Gülmez Dr. Betül Altay Burcu Dönmez (Türkçe Öğretmeni, Doktora Öğrencisi) Türkü Payza (Türkçe Öğretmeni, Doktora Öğrencisi)

Editorial Board	Editörler Kurulu
<p>Prof. Dr. Ahmet Doğanay, Çukurova University, Turkey</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Ahmet Ok, METU, Turkey</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Ali Yıldırım, University of Gothenburg, Sweden</p> <p>Prof. Dr. A. Seda Saracaloğlu, Aydın Adnan Menderes University, Turkey</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Berit Karseth, University of Oslo, Norway</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Catherine K. K. Chan, University of Hong Kong</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Dawn Sanders, University of Gothenburg, Sweden</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Eero Ropo, (Emeritus) University of Tampere, Finland</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Fatma Hazır Bıkmaz, Ankara University, Turkey</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Hanife Akar, METU, Turkey</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Kıymet Selvi, (Emeritus), Anadolu University, Turkey</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Kristi Klette, University of Oslo, Norway</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Lin Goodwin, Columbia University (Emeritus), USA</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Melek Demirel, Hacettepe University, Turkey</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Meral Güven, Anadolu University, Turkey</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Lynn Davies, University of Birmingham, United Kingdom</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Michael Apple, University of Wisconsin, USA</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Michael Osborne, University of Glasgow, The UK</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Nilay Bümen, Ege University, Turkey</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Orhan Akınoğlu, Marmara University, Turkey</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Ronald Sultana, University of Malta, Malta</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Susan Drake, Canada Brock University, Canada</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Todd Alan Price, National St Louis University, USA</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Ursula Hoadley, University of Cape Town, South Africa</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Wee Tiong Seah, Melbourne Graduate School of Education, Australia</p>	<p>Prof. Dr. Ahmet Doğanay, Çukurova Üniversitesi, Türkiye</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Ahmet Ok, ODTÜ, Türkiye</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Ali Yıldırım, Gothenburg Üniversitesi, İsveç</p> <p>Prof. Dr. A. Seda Saracaloğlu, Aydın Adnan Menderes Üniversitesi, Türkiye</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Berit Karseth, University of Oslo, Norveç</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Catherine K. K. Chan, Hong Kong Üniversitesi, Hong Kong</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Dawn Sanders, Gothenburg Üniversitesi, İsveç</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Eero Ropo, (Emeritus) University of Tampere, Finlandiya</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Fatma Hazır Bıkmaz, Ankara Üniversitesi, Türkiye</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Hanife Akar, ODTÜ, Türkiye</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Kıymet Selvi, (Emeritus), Anadolu Üniversitesi, Turkey</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Kristi Klette, Oslo Üniversitesi, Norway</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Lin Goodwin, Columbia University (Emeritus), A.B.D.</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Melek Demirel, Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Türkiye</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Meral Güven, Anadolu Üniversitesi, Türkiye</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Lynn Davies, University of Birmingham Üniversitesi, Birleşik Krallık</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Michael Apple, Wisconsin Üniversitesi, A.B.D</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Michael Osborne, Glasgow Üniversitesi, Birleşik Krallık</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Nilay Bümen, Ege Üniversitesi, Türkiye</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Orhan Akınoğlu, Marmara Üniversitesi, Türkiye</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Ronald Sultana, Malta Üniversitesi, Malta</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Susan Drake, Brock Üniversitesi, Kanada</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Todd Alan Price, National St Louis Üniversitesi, A.B.D.</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Ursula Hoadley, University of Cape Town, South Africa</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Wee Tiong Seah, Melbourne Graduate School of Education, Avustralya</p>



Cover Design Pegem Academy	Kapak Tasarımı Pegem Akademi
Publication Ay-bay Kırtasiye İnşaat Gıda Pazarlama ve Ticaret Limited Şirketi Çetin Emeç Bulvarı 1314.Cadde No:37A-B Ankara	Basım Ay-bay Kırtasiye İnşaat Gıda Pazarlama ve Ticaret Limited Şirketi Çetin Emeç Bulvarı 1314.Cadde No:37A-B Ankara
Indexing This journal is indexed by ERIC , ULAKBİM TR Dizin , EBSCO Central & Eastern European Academic Source, Akademia Sosyal Bilimleri Index (ASOS), ACAR Index, Idealonline and Scientific Indexing Services (SIS).	Taranılan Veritabanları Bu dergi ERIC , ULAKBİM TR Dizin , EBSCO Central & Eastern European Academic Source, Akademia Sosyal Bilimleri İndeksi (ASOS), ACAR İndeks, Idealonline ve Scientific Indexing Services (SIS) tarafından dizinlenmektedir.
Address Kocatepe Mah. Hatay Sok. 6/12 Kızılay Çankaya/Ankara +90 542 254 01 74 +90 312 431 3738 http://www.ijocis.com	
Contact ijocisjournal@gmail.com	

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL STUDIES
[ULUSLARARASI EĞİTİM PROGRAMLARI VE ÖĞRETİM ÇALIŞMALARI DERGİSİ]

The List of Reviewers for 12(1)
[12. Cilt 1. Sayı için Hakem Listesi]

Title	Name-Surname	University
Prof. Dr.	Mehmet Gürol	Yıldız Technical University
Prof. Dr.	Yavuz Erişen	Yıldız Technical University
Prof. Dr.	Şaban Çetin	Gazi University
Prof. Dr.	Semra Güven	Gazi University
Prof. Dr.	Abdullah Adıgüzel	Düzce University
Prof. Dr.	Serçin Karataş	Gazi University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Hale Sucuoğlu	Dokuz Eylül University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Ilker Cırık	Mimar Sinan Fine Arts University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Adnan Taşgın	Atatürk University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Serhat Arslan	Necmettin Erbakan University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Sümer Aktan	Balıkesir University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Bilge Çam Aktaş	Anadolu University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Birsel Aybek	Çukurova University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Gökhan Baş	Niğde Ömer Halisdemir University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Hüseyin Kotaman	Harran University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Kevser Özyıldırım	Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Özgür Ulubey	Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Nazlı Güngör	Gazi University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Gülüzar Şule Tepetaş Cengiz	Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Derya Göğebakan Yıldız	Manisa Celal Bayar University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Pınar Bilasa	Gazi University
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Özgür Ulubey	Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University
Assist. Prof. Dr.	Nur Akkuş Çakır	Middle East Technical University
Assist. Prof. Dr.	Beste Dinçer	Aydın Adnan Menderes University
Assist. Prof. Dr.	Rahime Çobanoğlu	Sinop University
Assist. Prof. Dr.	Yeliz Temli Durmuş	Uşak University
Assist. Prof. Dr.	Ömer Karacaoğlu	İzmir Institute of Technology
Assist. Prof. Dr.	Zehra Sedef Korkmaz	Artvin Çoruh University
Assist. Prof. Dr.	Sibel Akın-Sabuncu	Columbia University
Assist. Prof. Dr.	Serkan Uçan	İstanbul Medeniyet University
Assist. Prof. Dr.	Berna Karakoç	Kilis 7 Aralık University
Assist. Prof. Dr.	Mehtap Saraçoğlu	Siirt University
Dr.	Ali Ulus Kimav	Anadolu University

CONTENTS / İÇİNDEKİLER	Pages
From Editor in Chief	
Baş Editörden	VI
Prof. Dr. Kerim GÜNDOĞDU	
A Need Analysis on Development of Creative Thinking Skills: A Phenomenological Study	1-18
Şükran Tok, Sevda Dolapçioğlu, Eda Akgün Özpolat	
Adapting Coursebook Activities to Stimulate Language Learning among Rural Students: An Action Research	19-42
Ayşe Kırmızı-Ayyıldız, Nur Akkuş-Çakır	
Perceptions of Early Childhood Preservice Teachers on Early Childhood Education Undergraduate Program Courses	43-70
Arif Yılmaz, Nevra Atış Akyol, Şifa Kevser Çakmak, Esra Tuğba Çoban Söylemez	
History of the Flipped Classroom Model and Uses of the Flipped Classroom Concept	71-88
Nesibe Ağırman, Muhammet Hanifi Ercoşkun	
Student Teachers' Experiences in an Emergency Remote Microteaching Course: Lessons Learned for the COVID-19 Era and Beyond	89-112
Senem Sanal-Erginel	
Economic and Political Analysis of Initial Teacher Education from Consensus and Conflict Perspectives in Documents of International Institutions	113-146
Abdullah Açar, Banu Yücel Toy	
Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs regarding Out-of-School Learning Activities	147-166
Engin Demir, Filiz Çetin	
An Investigation on the Perceptions of Primary School Teachers Related to the Application Levels of Differentiated Instruction	167-190
Ahmet Gülay, Taner Altun	
Investigation of Classroom Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity	191-214
Sedef Süer, İsmail Kinay	
A Responsive Approach to Curricular Needs of Turkish Educational System: Curriculum Based on Reason, Values and Culture	215-246
Muhammed Akıncı, Abdulkadir Kurt	
A Systematic Review on Teacher's Expectations and Classroom Behaviors	247-274
Özge Aydın, Ahmet Ok	
Opinions of Classroom Teachers Working in Public Education Centers on Adult Education	275-304
Yusuf Başkan, Mehmet Bars	

Baş Editörden

Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim alanının öncü dergisi olan 'IJOCIS' Türkiye'de doçentlik alan indekslerinden sayılan 'Education Resources Information Center' (ERIC) tarafından taranmaktadır. Bu bakımdan da makale başvurularında gözle görülür bir artış gerçekleşmiştir. Bunun yanında uluslararasılaşma bağlamında yeni veritabanlarına başvuru sürecimizi hızlandırdığımız şu günlerde Editör Kurulumuzu alanında oldukça tanınan ulusal ve uluslararası birçok isimle güçlendirdik.

Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim alanı oldukça geniş bir yelpazeyi kapsadığından, bu sayımızda okul öncesinden yükseköğretime kadar eğitim öğretim ve öğretim programlarıyla ilgili oldukça dikkat çekici çalışmalar gözlenmektedir. 2022 yılının ilk sayısını yayımladığımız "Uluslararası Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Çalışmaları Dergisi"nin 12. Cilt 1. sayısında 'yaratıcı düşünme becerileri, dil öğretim programları, okul öncesi öğretmen yetiştirme programları, tersyüz öğrenme ortamları, mikroöğretim dersi uygulamaları, uluslararası belgelerle öğretmen yetiştirme, okul dışı öğrenme etkinlikleri, farklılaştırılmış öğretim, programa bağlılık düzeyi, Türk eğitim sistemi ve program ihtiyaç analizi, sınıf içi davranışlar ile halk eğitim merkezleri' ile ilgili çalışmalara yer verilmiştir.

Bu sayımızın yayımlanmasına katkıda bulunan tüm yazarlarımızı çalışmalarından dolayı tebrik ediyoruz ve başarılarının devamını diliyoruz. Ayrıca başta hakemlik tekliflerimizi geri çevirmeyip, makaleleri titizlikle inceleyen alanlarında uzman tüm akademisyenlerimize, yayın kuruluna ve editörler kuruluna dergimizin yayımlanması için yapmış oldukları özverili katkılarından dolayı çok teşekkür ederim.

IJOCIS dergimizin daha üst veri tabanlarında dizinlenmesi için hiçbir karşılık beklemeden titizlik, ciddiyet ve tutarlılıkla çalışmaya devam ediyoruz. Ayrıca makalelerin İngilizce metinlerin ve Türkçe geniş özetlerinin titizlikle kontrollerinin yapılabilmesi açısından ekibe yeni katılan arkadaşlarımız oldu. Kendilerine içten katkılarından dolayı teşekkür ediyorum.

Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim alanında çalışan ülkemizdeki ve dünyadaki tüm eğitimcileri dergimize bilimsel niteliği yüksek ve özgün çalışmalar göndermeleri için çağrıda bulunuyoruz.

Esenlik dilekleriyle.

Prof. Dr. Kerim GÜNDOĞDU

From the Editor in Chief

'IJCIS', the leading journal of Curriculum and Instruction, is indexed by the 'Education Resources Information Center' (ERIC), which is considered as one of the associate professorship indexes in Turkey. In this respect, there has been a noticeable increase in article submissions. In addition, we have strengthened our Editorial Board with many well-known national and international names in the field these days, as we accelerated our application process to upper databases in the context of internationalization.

Since the field of Curriculum and Instruction covers a very wide range, quite remarkable studies on curricula from pre-school to higher education are observed in this issue. In the 12th volume of the "International Journal of Educational Curriculum and Instructional Studies", which we published as the first issue of 2022, studies about "creative thinking skills, language curriculum, preschool teacher training program, flipped learning environments, microteaching lesson practices, teacher training with international documents, school Studies on extracurricular learning activities, differentiated instruction, curriculum commitment levels of teachers, Turkish education system and curricular needs analysis, classroom behaviors and public education centers are included.

We congratulate all the authors who contributed to the publication of this issue for their work and wish them continued success. In addition, I would like to thank all our academic reviewers who are experts in their fields for reviewing the articles diligently and for their devoted contributions to the publication of our journal, and also for not rejecting our reviewer assignments,


We continue to work with diligence, seriousness and consistency, without expecting anything in return, for the indexing of our IJCIS journal in higher databases. In addition, we had new friends who has joined the team to control the English main texts and Turkish extended abstracts of the articles meticulously. I thank them for their sincere contributions.


We invite all educators around the world working in the field of Curriculum and Instruction to submit their original and qualified academic studies to our journal.

With my best regards.

Prof. Dr. Kerim GÜNDOĞDU

A Need Analysis on Development of Creative Thinking Skills: A Phenomenological Study

Şükran Tok, İzmir Demokrasi University, sukran.tok@idu.edu.tr,  0000-0002-8387-615X

Sevda Dolapçioğlu, Mustafa Kemal University, sdolapcioglu@mku.edu.tr  0000-0002-2707-1744

Eda Akgün Özpolat, İzmir Demokrasi University, eda.akgunozpolat@idu.edu.tr
 0000-0003-1319-330X

Keywords

Creative thinking
Teaching EFL
Perceptions of teachers

Article Info:

Received : 24-08-2021
Accepted : 26-05-2022
Published : 18-06-2022

DOI:

10.31704/ijocis.2022.001

Abstract

This study adopts a qualitative research design aiming at investigating the perceptions of English language teachers about creative thinking skills in their courses. Six teachers working at the School of Foreign Languages at a state university participated in this study. They had similar educational backgrounds and different years of experience. In terms of teaching English, participants were interviewed in-depth about the conceptualization of creative thinking skills. The purpose of the study was to identify teachers' perspectives and their ways of implementing sub-dimensions of creative thinking in both face-to-face and online lessons. Semi-structured interview questions were used to collect data in the study and the data were analysed through content analysis method using NVivo 12. The findings of the research are grouped under the following headings: Barriers to Creating a Thinking Class Environment, Existing Supporters, and Defining the Concept. Results revealed that the teachers have defined the ability to think creatively considering the basic perception they had about the concept which is mainly creating new products. It is also understood that they evaluated the concept and associated the sub-dimensions accordingly. It can be inferred that a deeper understanding and well-organized teaching of creative thinking skills are required to be blended into the foreign language education.

To cite this article: Şok, T., Dolapçioğlu, S., & Akgün-Özpolat, E. (2022). A need analysis on development of creative thinking skills: a phenomenological study. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 12 (1), 1-18. doi: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.001

Introduction

The emphasis on the "system or technology" in the design of teaching is used in the sense that refers to a set of rules and the educational integration of these rules. The system encompasses

many sensitive elements related to learning: from learning outcomes analysis to communication, testing, and evaluation of the taught materials. Generally, educators who want to be acknowledged with technology in their own research areas are concerned with all these aspects. Instructional design, which includes creative thinking, continues to be a neglected field of research due to its inclusion of many sub-skills in foreign language education like other fields. Especially measuring and evaluating creative thinking are seen as challenging. On the grounds of its complex nature and the difficulty of measuring and evaluating it empirically, researchers consider that creative thinking is only suitable for advanced and/or successful students (Gürsoy & Bağ 2019; Cornelius-White, 2007). Similarly, Zohar and Dori (2003) state that the ability to think creatively is successfully applied only by students who have high levels of achievement. Jauk, Benedek, Dunst, and Neubauer (2013) emphasize the relevance of the common view that high creativity requires high intelligence. As these misconceptions continue, the change in learning environments has further increased the complexity of the subject due to the Covid 19 pandemic. This study is expected to offer an opportunity to rethink the development of creative thinking in the current chaotic order.

Torrance (1965, 1972), who has long-established experience in creative thinking, has examined the concept by considering the verbal and modal forms that it contains. Haladyna (1997) has analysed the lower dimensions of creative thinking in terms of scientific and aesthetic perspectives. This knowledge about the dimensions of creative thinking provides certain opportunities for the integration of creative thinking into many disciplines, especially language education, and for the teaching environment that promotes thinking. However, one of the problems of in foreign language education in Turkey is focusing mainly on grammar and vocabulary teaching instead of creating an environment that enables students to participate in an active way in the teaching process required by the creative thinking environment (Kaya, Ayaz & Dundar, 2017; Solak, 2015). Today, the use of 21st-century skills and related problems have been discussed along with the teaching of four basic language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) (Akyildiz & Celik, 2020; Şahin & Han, 2020). Bedir (2019) states that teacher candidates in foreign language teaching are also aware of the importance of 21st-century skills such as creative and critical thinking, but they also recognize that they have shortcomings in the application phase of these skills. On the other hand, for language learners, it is important to think critically and creatively to communicate with people in order to improve global understanding (Gürsoy & Bağ, 2019). Furthermore, students think about creative thinking, they use it in innovative ways, or add intriguing ideas (Eragamreddy, 2013). With the aim of developing the creative abilities of students, a teacher needs to think creatively and create favourable pedagogical conditions for the enhancement of the creative mind of a student (Borodina, Sibgatullina & Gizatullina, 2019).

Creativity in the context of learning begins with the process of detecting, observing problems, hypothesizing, evaluating problems, and testing hypotheses (Yustina, Syafii & Vebrianto, 2020). For these reasons, it is important to support the creative thinking environment that supports language teaching. In this study, topics that promote and hinder the thinking atmosphere in the classroom environment were aimed to be discovered through teacher perceptions. The relevant literature provides some studies that emphasize the importance of creative thinking while learning a foreign language; however, some teachers still neglect this skill in the language acquisition process (Borodina et al., 2019; Gürsoy & Bağ, 2019; Karpova, Marcketti & Barker, 2011; Singh, Singh & Ja'afar et al. 2020). Additionally, several studies show that specific learning methods and techniques should be regulated with the aim of teaching creative thinking skills in educational contexts (Eragamreddy, 2013; Tsai, 2013;

Yang, Chen & Hung, 2020). There are also studies that emphasize the need for learning environments that support creative thinking in university education (Al-Zahrani, 2015; Lin, 2016). However, it is important to determine the need for the integration of creative thinking skills while learning a foreign language. Another emphasis is put on the development of creative thinking skills of students at the university level which elaborates on the importance of turning the use of web-based or technology-based teaching tools into opportunities to develop this specific skill (Kuo, Chen & Hwang, 2014; Mohammed, Ali & Aldalan, 2020; Tabieh, Hileh & Al-Shakea, 2020). However, there is no detailed research that focuses on and explains the reasons for the complexity in this regard. Today, technology-based education is highly needed, and it is expected that this study will provide a certain level of explanation of the current gap in examining the problems that exist within the technology-based instructional design.

Since the period of this study is the Covid 19 pandemic period, teachers' perspectives on both face-to-face and online education processes have been revealed in this study. Meanwhile, it is important to consider both the use of web-based tools and the need for language learning in a way that supports creative thinking skills, especially during the online education period. Universities must always look for possible innovative ways to enrich the students' learning environment and their educational experiences. The School of Foreign Languages offers a year period of preparatory education in English for the university students, who will study in a variety of English majors. In this study, the needs for creative thinking development were determined in detail in terms of teaching English during the preparatory education.

Problems with Creative Thinking in Language Education

Gürsoy and Bağ (2019) identified that developing students' creative thinking skills and enhancing it with visual or auditory stimuli is significant and it can be activated through proper education. They have also emphasized that creative thinking should be a part of the curriculum of teaching English as foreign language. Furthermore, the importance of creative thinking skills is frequently ignored by teachers and researchers in the language acquisition process (Gürsoy & Bağ, 2019). The techniques to develop awareness about learning techniques to improve creative thinking are seen as requirements (Eragamreddy, 2013). There indeed is a need to identify existing problems in language education and to prepare a realistic basis for the discovery and use of learning techniques. Tsai (2013) states that the development of critical and creative thinking should be encouraged and for its development, an instructional design that supports critical and creative thinking skills is required at all levels of language education. According to Cesar (2013), the curriculum should be compatible with a project-based, open-ended, and configurative learning atmosphere. It is offered that the students should be given sufficient opportunities to explore the content and game design which may be critical for students without creativity and innovative learning experiences. According to Yang, Chen, and Hung (2020), enabling students to create content-based digital stories in the target language can help them learn to think creatively or critically. In addition, creating a creative space and environment in universities, and focusing on innovative learning environments and active teaching environments are significant factors that require the multi-teaching environments where differences are respected and creativity is appreciated (Lin, 2016).

Supporting thinking skills at the university level is a difficult process and requires more consolidation of the units of universities (Al-Zahrani, 2015). Consequently, it is important for every department and university to start with a detailed needs analysis.

Besides, the need for using creative thinking skills to support university students is also related to distance education problems. Analysing studies on the technology-based development of creative thinking due to the Covid 19 pandemic reveals that it is important to use various technology-based teaching strategies that encourage students' interests, motivate them to learn better, and offer them experiences that would improve their thinking and innovation skills (Tabieh, Hileh & Al-Shakea, 2020). The advanced web-based creative thinking learning setting can be utilized by making students more likely to find a potential solution by means of different and convergent thinking processes than in their traditional classroom environment. In addition, in a web-assisted creative thinking environment, educators may have the chance to analyse the changes in students that they go through during the problem-solving process with the help of pre-and post-exam tests. It also demonstrates the effectiveness of the approach that helps students with different cognitive learning styles via individual web-based problem-solving dimensions (Mohammed, Ali & Aldalan, 2020). Kuo et al. (2014) highlight the need to enrich the learning environment in universities, emphasizing the wide availability of the mobile learning tools through accessible learning. It is seen that this need is increased by the environment because of the ongoing pandemic. This study examines the needs of the learning environment for creative thinking based on teacher perceptions in the current chaotic environment. The answers to the following questions are sought in the study:

1. What do teachers think about the needs for the development of creative thinking in a learning environment?
2. What is the definition of creative thinking for foreign language teachers?

Method

Research Design

In this study, phenomenology as a qualitative approach has been adopted. Phenomenology, focusing on the experience means that those who experience it more specifically express their thoughts about the dimensions in which they can discuss and define facts (Asworth & Lucas, 1998). In phenomenological studies, researchers focus on a specific topic without making assumptions, while preparing the basis for further research and reflection on the existing question or problem (Moustakas, 1994).

In-depth investigation of the concepts that are problematic is dealt with the phenomenological design. Accordingly, in this study, the problem is discussed in detail on the basis of creative thinking skills and English teaching is discussed in detail. In this study, the opinions of the English language teachers who teach at the School of Foreign Languages at a state university were gathered regarding the meaning of creative thinking and the necessity of teaching it. After conducting the interviews with the teachers, detailed analyses were carried out based on their current opinions and suggestions about creative thinking skills.

Participants

This study aimed to evaluate the perceptions of the six teachers, who are working at the School of Foreign Languages in a state university, about creativity as a notion and creative thinking as a 21st-century skill. Since the education was held through distance education because of Covid-19, teachers' opinions on creative thinking in both face-to-face and online lessons have been investigated respectively. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 6 faculty members working in the same department. Participant 1; has 18 years of experience and has completed MA and Ph.D. in the English Language Teaching department. Participant 2;

has 8 years of experience and has their MA degree in English Language Education. Participant 3; has 15 years of experience and has an MA degree in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. Participant 4; has 8 years of experience and has an MA degree in English Language Education. Participant 5; has 5 years of experience and has an MA degree in English Language and Literature department. Participant 6; has 8-year seniority and an MA degree in English Language and Literature. In addition, all participants carry out reading, listening, writing, speaking, and main course lessons in the preparatory classes within the School of Foreign Languages.

Instruments

In this research study, detailed information was collected by conducting in-depth interviews. Based on the literature review, 5 questions were developed in the following categories "perceptions, the definition of creative thinking by teachers, teaching and importance of creative thinking in the foreign language teaching environment, problems, and suggestions". Interview questions were prepared by a team of experts in the field of Educational Sciences. Upon gathering the opinions of different experts in the same field, necessary arrangements were carried out and a pilot interview was conducted. After the pilot interview, there was no change in the number of questions for the main study, there have only been changes in the wording of the questions. The interview questions were:

1. What do you think creative thinking is, what does the word creativity evoke in you?
2. Have you received any training in Creative Thinking Training? If so, can you tell us about it?
3. Do you think students can be given a creative perspective in learning a foreign language?
4. Which skills can be taught in foreign language education with creative thinking techniques? How do you feel about that?
5. What are the problems of creative thinking in language learning and what are your suggestions for these situations?

Data Collection and Analysis

The data obtained from the interviews were evaluated through the content analysis method using the NVivo 12 software. Researchers in this study had online sessions to create the code association in a virtual environment (Microsoft Teams). As a result of the discussions, light difference was detected in the codes. For example, instead of using "practical limitations of the method", "the theory-practice application boundary" has been approved to be used. "Language skills as a priority" has been changed to "a priority for developing language skills". The encoder reliability The encoder reliability equation " $P \text{ (Consensus Percentage)} = [Na(\text{Consensus}) / Na(\text{Consensus}) + Nd \text{ (Disagreement)}] \times 100$ " recommended by Miles and Huberman (1994) was calculated and 96% was maintained. Direct quotes were used to show teacher perceptions as they are. It is shown as "Participant 1-6" in order to convey the statements of teachers about the subject of research.

Results

The findings are presented in a two-dimension diagram: Firstly themes and related codes that explain each theme have been identified based on faculty members' perceptions and elements that support them.

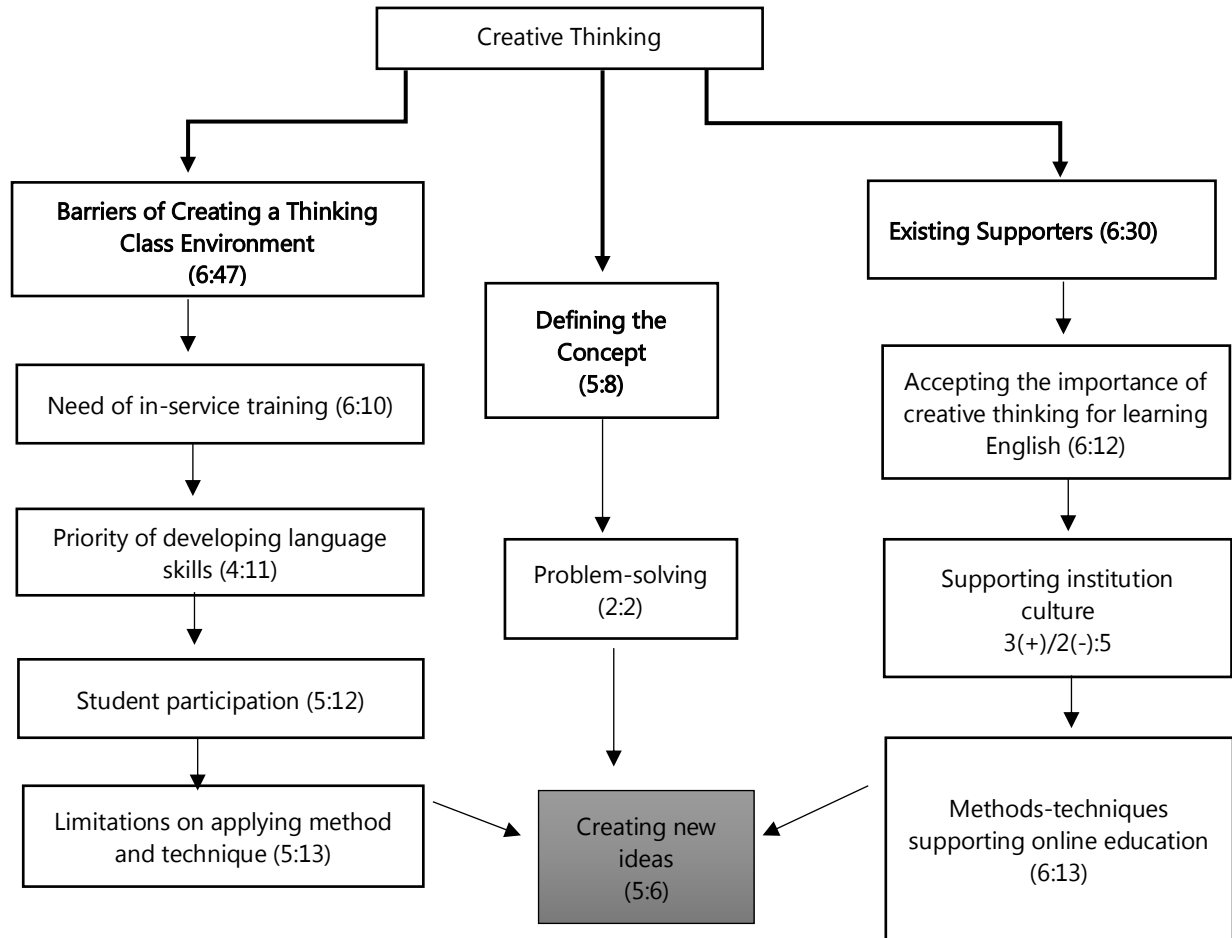


Figure 1. *Perceptions of Teachers on Integrating Creative Thinking Skills During Distance Education.*

When the teachers' perceptions of creative thinking skills in the learning process carried out through distance education within the scope of the Covid-19 pandemic were analysed, three groups of themes emerged: (1) Barriers of Creating a Thinking Classroom Environment; (2) Existing Supporters; and (3) Defining the Concept. It has been revealed that perception of the meaning of creative thinking is the main determinant of the existing methods and limitations.

Barriers of Creating a Thinking Class Environment

Data analysis revealed that the most important result is that there are great obstacles that preventing the creation of a classroom environment that supports the development of the thinking process of learners. None of these obstacles is the need for professional development, none of the teachers have been trained in teaching or supporting creative thinking skills:

No, I didn't actually receive any training on this notion, I have only covered the topic referred to as 21st-century skills when I was studying for my Ph.D. (Participant, 6).

I didn't have any training, especially on this topic, we only talked about how we can develop creative thinking skills in our courses. English language educators, in particular, need to be trained in this subject (Participant, 1)

Another important finding is that more than the half of the participants state that teaching language skills are more important than developing creative thinking skills:

Creative thinking skills always come second for us; language skills come first. Creative thinking skills are of course important, but our primary goal is to improve the language skills of the students, it makes no sense in case the student has not developed any language skills but he/she wants to be as creative as they want (Participant, 1).

I mean, I focus on language skills in the first place, but if I have a class where students have high levels of English, I can turn my perspective specifically to creativity (Participant, 6).

In contrast, two other teachers claimed that they thought creative thinking skills were more important:

Students learn better if they focus on different things ... that is, language educators may disagree, but creative thinking skills are just as important as language skills (Participant, 2).

... a student with creative thinking also succeeds in language, he succeeds in mathematics, he succeeds in his courses in the department, and he succeeds in life because he is already open to finding a solution in his/her life (Participant, 3).

Participation of students in classroom activities is an important element of creative thinking skills. Nearly all of the participant teachers stated that the students had problems with the enthusiasm to participate in the course and explained this problem with distance education, lack of vocabulary, and learners' habits and attitudes towards lessons:

Unfortunately, they prefer to write down other people's opinions, they do not prefer to produce themselves, so we need to change their perspective (Participant 1).

One of the things that I have difficulty with during the distance education process is that students' participation is less than in face-to-face education. Therefore, the students are less interactive, I have been aiming to overcome this by using new tools (Participant 4).

Yes, they might not want to state their opinions, or I think they're afraid they'll get it wrong and be criticized. I sense it, and it's something I often observe. I see the lack of vocabulary as the reason for this situation (Participant 2).

All the participants stated that there are limitations of time, methodological-technical knowledge, and teachers' attitudes when it comes to using methods and techniques to support creative thinking for the development of students in classroom activities:

Group works and/or pair discussions can be done, but from my point of view, I think it can be exhausting because it takes a lot of time. It can sometimes be tiring for us to go to all groups, or to check written and oral products (Participant 2).

The kid may have something to say, but there are patterns that I've learned in language teaching, and I can't get out of those patterns. ... In the writing class, we seriously limit children's creativity by setting up rules. If I knew the techniques that support creative thinking skills, maybe I could be relaxed because I don't know how they are applied (Participant 3).

So, of course, we're in the online teaching period right now and, we're a bit limited in terms of time. So, I want to treat every student equally as much as possible, but sometimes I feel like I don't have enough time (Participant 4).

... I can be dominant in the lessons and can talk too much, sometimes I can't control it and the students listen... However, I want students to develop their confidence and want to speak more, and I must ensure this (Participant 2).

Existing Supporters

Believing in the importance of foreign language learning, supporting methods-techniques during the online education process, supportive institution culture codes have emerged as the supporting concepts of creative thinking. All teachers have expressed their beliefs in the importance of creative thinking for language learning:

I think that it should be one of the goals of the teachers. When teaching a foreign language, we also need to contribute to them (students) in developing creative thinking skills, I think we should guide them (Participant 1).

Creative thinking will enable them to learn language faster and an issue that will also increase their motivation. This will develop faster as they produce more and more. If they acquire the ability to think creatively, they will achieve as a result (Participant 2).

It is also an important issue for the four basic skills of language... But if I have to choose a skill, of course, I think that speaking lessons are especially suitable for teaching creativity (Participant 5).

I think it's possible, especially in foreign language education, so it's more possible to do so. It's much more possible than doing it in other lessons. Students are learning a new language, a new language means expressing themselves in a new way, discovering new worlds, and discovering things about themselves (Participant 6).

Since all teachers define the meaning of creative thinking skills as presenting new ideas, they believe that some of the methods and techniques they use in the classroom can support creative thinking skills. Two of them have stated that they use the inquiry technique in the course, three of them have claimed that they are using the flipped learning model in the department for creating a creative learning environment; one of them has been using Kahoot and Newsela tools to support creativity during the lessons; another participant has mentioned that the breakout rooms in Teams and group works are mainly used in lessons as well as applications and tools called Whiteboard, Quizzizz, Brightful.me to support the development of creative thinking skills. They have stated that the learners always have the opportunity to "come up with new ideas".

I do group or pair-work using the Teams as a learning management system. I think it is working because we were doing "flipped learning" which means upside-down teaching. First, the students have the subject of the course offline, last year there was no such application, we had to do everything in the class, and it was not catching up. I can use a lot of applications right now. We play games using websites such as Quizziz.com, Kahoot, and Brightful.me. I can have different tasks done because I have time for them (Participant 2).

Indirectly, yes, I'm not saying I should devote a course entirely to creative thinking, but I can direct students with questions, for example. I think Kahoot is increasing the participation of students in the course because they perceive it as a game. As for Newsela, I think it's something that can improve creative thinking more because, students have difficulty mostly in expressing themselves, especially in a foreign language, or yielding products (Participant 4).

Right now, we're actually doing flipped learning, which can actually make our job easier at some point because students can watch it on video, and then we can study these communicative skills that we just really need to focus on (Participant 3).

The collaborative environment in which teachers support one another is important for the teaching of thinking skills. Having a corporate culture with these characteristics can be seen as

an advantage. Half of the teachers have stated that the corporate culture is in line with these characteristics, while two of them stated that the corporate culture is partially sufficient for this:

I think everybody's trying somehow, and when my colleagues and I talk, I see everyone's trying new things about it. We are encouraged to do so, we share what we do with each other, there is a constant flow of information, and we share our experiences. We also share the materials we use (Participant 2).

I would say integrating tutorials (asynchronous lesson videos) into the educational process this year, integrating into the online course was very creative. But at first, they were resistant; it was hard for everyone to accept ... Yet now we see that creative thinking skills are supported ... (Participant 3).

Perceptions of Teachers Related to Definition of the Concept

There are many sub-dimensions and indicators of creative thinking. We can also interpret these sub-dimensions in the codes of the previous themes that teachers' thoughts on meaning have a direct effect on regulating their activities in the classroom. All teachers perceive creative thinking as "generating new ideas" as a subdimension of creativity and for the two of them, creative thinking is related to "problem-solving" which is also another sub-dimension of the concept.

When I think of creative thinking, I actually think of students going beyond the usual stereotypes. So, it means creative thinking for me that they can look at themselves from a different point of view instead of accepting the ideas they see from their surroundings (Participant 3).

... The power of being able to go beyond what is always thought; to be able to think out of the box and explore other ways. And sometimes being able to learn from different results reminds me of things like that. That's how I define creative thinking (Participant 5).

... It is a skill necessary for us to manage our daily lives. Because every day we face different problems. Even if we don't have a problem, we try to find solutions for ourselves to spend our day in some way. This way, we can always see that we get better results if we proceed with the help of our existing creative thinking (Participant 2).

Discussion and Conclusion

The results of the study revealed that the teacher's perceptions about the meaning of creative thinking are significant. Teachers perceive creative thinking as a dimension of "generating new ideas", thus they interpret related problems, and deliver creativity as a concept accordingly. However, it is important that teachers recognize and implement all aspects of creative thinking. This result is also consistent with the finding that teachers need in-service training in creative thinking. Most of the teachers in the study group feel that they have not received any form of education on the teaching, and the importance of creative thinking; hence, they need in-service training for professional development. Within the framework of creative thinking, it has been stated that it may be useful for teachers to receive training in implementing creative thinking in a course design in order to provide a classroom environment for language education courses (Ali, 2019). Many methods or techniques are designed to help individuals who come up with original ideas. In any case, the awareness that comes with the techniques designed to improve creative thinking provides individuals with a number of tools they can use in exploration-related behaviours (Eragamreddy, 2013).

Another finding in the theme of "Barriers of Creating a Thinking Classroom Environment" emerged as a state of participation of students in the courses. Teachers have stated that the

participation rate of the students was poor due to attitude, lack of vocabulary, or problems caused by distance education. Another finding is the limitation related to methodological and technical knowledge and skills of teachers. Teachers emphasize that there is an important need for students to increase their participation in the course by paying attention to their own speaking times and regulating the use of specific techniques. Teachers can help students achieve the best and most appropriate strategies that improve their proficiency levels (Nematollahi, Behjat & Kargar, 2017). On the other hand, they can support student participation by completing their vocabulary deficiencies. One of the most important requirements for academic progress is word acquisition. Students need to know certain vocabulary to succeed in primary skills and learn related content materials (Mehrabian & Salehi, 2019). When it comes to English vocabulary learning, the choice of learning strategy determines their achievements in English vocabulary, which affects their communication skills (Putri & Wahyuni, 2019). They can also use a variety of strategies to plan and deliver the learning materials in the best way (Putri & Wahyuni, 2019). Strategies of students' such as taking notes, practicing, analysing, summarizing, highlighting, imitating the teacher, and finding difficult words in the dictionary, can help them to develop English skills such as reading, writing, speaking, and listening (Putri & Wahyuni, 2019). These strategies are seen as beneficial to use within the classroom as they will create a classroom environment that supports the development of creative thinking skills. Creative thinking skills have a field that supports all these basic skills (Gürsoy & Bağ, 2019; Read, 2015; Tomlinson, 2015) and an interdisciplinary perspective (Dolapçıoğlu & Gürkan, 2020).

According to the findings, teachers believe in the importance of creative thinking for foreign language learning and suggest several methods in this regard; however, when compared to language skills, it is observed that the teachers are uncertain about which one to prioritize. The majority of teachers think that language skills should be taught before creative thinking skills. The most important consequence related to this finding is that teachers should be supported for the role of creative thinking skills in supporting language skills and guided about what techniques they can use to support the learning environment. Creative thinking skills are important to develop their skills based on language education as well as in all fields. Gürsoy and Bağ (2019) have concluded that students' creative thinking skills have improved with visual or auditory stimulation tools in foreign language education, and this can be achieved through the help of teachers. Similarly, teachers and researchers emphasized that the importance of creative thinking skills in the language acquisition process was ignored (Borodina et al. 2020). In their study on the creative thinking levels of preservice teachers, Borodina et al. (2020) have found that creative thinking and effective work within the framework of pedagogical activity is required for the professional development of teachers. Considering that the professional competence of a teacher or a university faculty member consists of three components (knowledge, skills, and attitudes), the need to improve the methodical aspect of the teaching process can be mentioned, since usage of various methods and technologies allows teachers to think and create creatively for their students.

As this study took place during the online education process due to the Covid 19 pandemic, it has been concluded that some existing web-based in-class activities can improve students' creative thinking skills. Applications such as breakout rooms for group work, flipped learning, web-based applications such as Newsela and Kahoot can be listed in terms of web-based tools and websites. This provides significant information in the dimension of the discovery of web tools to support creative thinking skills. There are several studies that support this conclusion. It was demonstrated that foreign language learning through smartphones is especially effective

in improving the performance of university students (Klimova, 2019). Another study concluded that mobile applications may be a more effective tool in vocabulary teaching than traditional paper-pen activities (Basal, Yilmaz, Tanriverdi & Sari, 2016). These applications are important for supporting creative thinking skills. Tabieh et al. (2020) stated that both blended and flipped education improve creative thinking more than traditional methods. Mohammed et al. (2020), who found that mobile learning tools through U (ubiquitous) learning have a role to play in supporting the creative thinking skills of university students, concluded that mobile learning tools should be provided by universities. Such methods should be blended into teaching programs and information technologies and higher education ministries should be involved in this process together. Considering the preferred learning styles of students and the originality of creative thinking may suggest that students could be provided with a rich range of tasks aimed at a variety of learning styles that improve their creative thinking skills. Tsai (2013) focused on developing creative thinking by providing teachers with an investigative-driven activity to investigate facts or issues and then provide possible solutions. This can be explained in detail as in the first stage, a teacher should ask students to qualitatively observe events and interpret what they perceive. Students should then be expected to write using free writing techniques with the help of the questions posed. In doing so, it has been suggested that they will generate ideas with the free association by activating their preliminary knowledge and experience and ignoring problems such as spelling and punctuation.

In this way, it has been concluded that it can simultaneously influence the creative and critical thoughts of the students in a positive way. Similarly, Eragamreddy (2013) emphasized the need of detailed learning techniques to improve creative thinking in his study on the training of creative thinking skills. Likewise, Tsai (2013) concluded that as an educator, it is necessary to maintain the balance of instructional design, which includes both the necessary tools and learning techniques, in order to improve critical and creative thinking. In his research on the development of creative thinking skills, Cesar (2013) found that students have the opportunity to present creative ideas when they are presented with techniques that are compatible with project-based, constructive learning environments. Yang, Chen, and Hung (2020) demonstrates the positive effects of digital storytelling on both the language skills and creative thinking skills of students. Sadykova and Shelestova (2016) examined the effects of university students' creative thinking skills on foreign language learning and concluded that students are developing in terms of finding creative solutions to existing problems as well as coming up with new and original ideas. In his study in English education, which focuses on specific subjects and is taught for the purposes of teaching these subjects, Wang (2015) examined the language learning skills of university students through online forums using collaborative techniques as the sub-skill of creative thinking. According to the research, it was concluded that the students who received education in this way, were more successful in presenting new products and ideas. Such applications can be used during and after distance education to support students' thinking skills.

It can be concluded that teachers' perceptions about creative thinking skills play a prominent role that enlightens the current process and further actions. It can be referred that language teachers are mostly aware of the significance of creative thinking skills as well as obstacles that they have. Teaching of creative thinking skills to foreign language students has limitations from the perspectives of both students and teachers. Even though there are some problems related to students, they can be motivated by using different activities during lessons. Especially, considering teachers' perceptions about creative thinking revealed the necessary circumstances that enhances creativity in class activities. It can be inferred that teachers'

opinions, actions and understandings foster and/or hinder creativity and creative thinking in language education.

Limitations and Suggestions

This study is limited to a group of teachers from a specific institution. In order to develop a better understanding of the concepts of creativity and creative thinking as one of the 21st-century skills, studies with different groups of teachers could be conducted. Additionally, this study has been conducted during the beginning of the Covid-19 period at a single time. The effects of online education on creativity and creative thinking skills could be investigated through several times with various modes of investigation.

References

- Akyıldız, S. T. & Çelik, V. (2020). Thinking outside the box: Turkish EFL teachers' perceptions of creativity. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 36. 1-14.
- Ali, S. S. (2019). Problem based learning: a student-centered approach. *English Language Teaching*, 12(5). 73-78.
- Al-Zahrani, A. M. (2015). From passive to active: The impact of the flipped classroom through social learning platforms on higher education students' creative thinking. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 46 (6) 1133–1148. doi:10.1111/bjet.12353
- Asworth, P., & Lucas, U. (1998). What is 'world' of phenomenography? *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 42(4). 415-431.
- Basal, A., Yilmaz, S., Tanriverdi, A., & Sari, L. E. (2016). Effectiveness of mobile applications in vocabulary teaching. *Contemporary Education Technology*, 7. 47–59.
- Bedir, H. (2019). Pre-service ELT teachers' beliefs and perceptions on the 21st century learning and innovation skills (4Cs). *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 15(1), 231-246. Doi:10.17263/jlls.547718
- Borodina, T., Sibgatullina, A., & Gizatullina, A. (2019). Developing Creative Thinking in Future Teachers as a Topical Issue of Higher Education. *Journal of Social Studies Education Research*, 10(4). 226-245
- Cesar, C. N. (2013). Creative thinking in digital game design and development: A case study. *Computers & Education*, 69. 320–331
- Cornelius-White, J. (2007). Learner-centered teacher-student relationships are effective: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 113–143.
- Dolapçıoğlu, S., & Gürkan, B. (2020). Sosyal Bilgiler Dersinde Estetik Yaratıcılık Öğretim Etkinlikleriyle Yaratıcı Düşünme Becerilerinin Geliştirilmesi. *Eğitim ve Bilim* 45(202). 51-77
- Eragamreddy, N. (2013). Teaching Creative Thinking Skills. *IJ-ELTS: International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies*, 1(2).
- Gürsoy, E., & Bağ, H. K. (2018). Is it possible to enhance the creative thinking skills of EFL learners through training? *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 9(6). 172-182.
- Haladyna, T. M. (1997). *Writing test items to evaluate higher order thinking*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Jauk, E., Benedek, M., Dunst, B., & Neubauer, A. C. (2013). The relationship between intelligence and creativity: New support for the threshold hypothesis by means of empirical breakpoint detection. *Intelligence*, 41. 212–221
- Karpova, E., Marcketti, S. B., & Barker, J. (2011). The efficacy of teaching creativity: Assessment of student creative thinking before and after exercises. *Clothing & Textiles Research Journal*, 29(1), 52–66. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0887302X11400065>
- Kaya, E., Ayaz A. D., & DüNDAR, T. (2017). Challenges in EFL Speaking Classes in Turkish Context. *European Journal of Language and Literature Studies*, 3(2). 66-74.
- Klimova, B. (2019). Impact of Mobile learning on students' achievement results. *Education Science*, 9 (90).
- Kuo, F., Chen, N., & Hwang, G. (2014). A creative thinking approach to enhancing the web-based problem solving performance of university students. *Computers & Education*, 72. 220-230.
- Lin, C. (2016). Effects of Web-Based Creative Thinking Teaching on Students' Creativity and Learning Outcome. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science & Technology Education*, 12(6), 1675-1684 doi: 10.12973/eurasia.2016.1558a

- Mehrabian, N., & Salehi, H. (2019). The effects of using diverse vocabulary learning strategies on word mastery: a review paper. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 3(1). 100—114.
- Mohammed, A., Ali, R., & Aldalan B. (2020). Using U-Learning in developing creative thinking levels among university students. *International Journal of Scientific & Technology Research*, 9.
- Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological Research Methods*. United States of America: SAGE Publications.
- Nematollahi, B., Behjat, F., & Kargar, A. A. (2017). A Meta-Analysis of Vocabulary Learning Strategies of EFL Learners. *English Language Teaching*, 10(5).
- Putri, Z. M., & Wahyuni, E. (2019). Vocabulary Learning Strategy Employed by High-Achiever University Students at Malang. *CELTIC: A Journal of Culture, English Language Teaching, Literature & Linguistics*, 6(1).
- Read, C. (2015). Seven pillars of creativity in primary ELT. In Maley, A., & Peachey, N. (Eds.), *Creativity in the English language classroom*, 29-36. London: British Council.
- Sadykova A. G., & Shelestova, O. V. (2016). Creativity Development: The Role of Foreign Language Learning. *International Journal of Environmental & Science Education*, 11(15). 8163-8181.
- Singh, S., C. K., Singh, T. S. M., Ja'afar, H., Tek, O. E., Kaur, H., Mostafa, N. A., & Yunus, M. M. (2020). Teaching Strategies to Develop Higher Order Thinking Skills in English Literature. *International Journal of Innovation, Creativity and Change*, 11(8).
- Solak, E. (2015). Current challenges in English language learning in Turkish EFL context. *Participatory Educational Research*, 2(1), 106-115. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17275/per.15.09.2.1>
- Şahin, H., & Han, T. (2020). EFL Teachers' Attitude Towards 21st Century Skills. *The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, 20(2).
- Tabieh, A. A. S., Hileh, M. M., & Al-Shakea, H. M. F. (2020). Blended and Flipped Learning: entrepreneurial teaching strategies for acquiring creative thinking skills. *Humanities & Social Sciences Reviews*, 8(4). 745-754. <https://doi.org/10.18510/hssr.2020.8474>
- Tomlinson, B. (2015). Challenging teachers to use their coursebook creatively. In Maley, A., & Peachey, N. (Eds.), *Creativity in the English language classroom*, 24-28. London: British Council.
- Torrance, E. P. (1965). Scientific views of creativity and factors affecting its growth. *Daedalus* 94(3), 663-681.
- Torrance, E. P. (1972). *Can we teach children to think creatively?* Retrieved October 12, 2020, from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED061544.pdf>
- Tsai, K. C. (2013). Being a critical and creative thinker: A balanced thinking mode. *Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 1(2).
- Wang, Y. (2015). Promoting collaborative writing through wikis: a new approach for advancing innovative and active learning in an ESP context, *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 28(6), 499-512. DOI: 10.1080/09588221.2014.881386
- Yang, Y. C., Chen, Y., & Hung, H. (2020). Digital storytelling as an interdisciplinary project to improve students' English speaking and creative thinking. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, DOI: 10.1080/09588221.2020.1750431
- Yustina, R., Syafii, W., & Vebrianto, R. (2020). The effects of blended learning and project-based learning on pre-service biology teachers' creative thinking through online learning in the Covid-19 pandemic. *Jurnal Pendidikan IPA Indonesia*, 9(3). 408-420

Zohar, A. & Dori, Y. J. (2003). Higher Order Thinking Skills and Low- Achieving Students: Are They Mutually Exclusive? *The Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 12(2). 145-181, DOI: 10.1207/S15327809JLS1202_1



TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Yaratıcı Düşünme Becerilerinin Geliştirilmesi Üzerine İhtiyaç Analizi: Bir Fenomenoloji Çalışması

Giriş

Öğretim tasarımı içinde yer alan "sistem ya da teknoloji" vurgusu bir dizi kural ve bu kuralların öğretimsel ilişkisi anlamında kullanılmaktadır. Yaratıcı düşünmeyi içine alan öğretim tasarımı her alanda olduğu gibi yabancı dil eğitiminde de birçok alt beceriyi içermesi ve ölçme-değerlendirme zorluğu sebebiyle ihmal edilmiş bir araştırma alanı olmaya devam etmektedir. Yaratıcı düşünme üzerinde köklü çalışmaları olan Torrance (1965, 1972), sözel ve şekilsel; Haladyna (1997) ise bilimsel ve estetik olmak üzere yaratıcı düşünmenin alt boyutlarını derinlemesine incelemişlerdir. Yaratıcı düşünmenin boyutları ile ilgili bu bilgiler, dil eğitimi başta olmak üzere birçok disiplinin içerisine yaratıcı düşünmenin entegrasyonu ve düşünmeyi destekleyen öğretim ortamı için bize fırsatlar sunmaktadır. Ancak Türkiye’de yabancı dil eğitimi sorunlarının başında yaratıcı düşünme ortamının gerektirdiği öğretim sürecinde öğrencilerin derse aktif katılımlarını sağlayan bir ortam yaratmak yerine dilbilgisi ve kelime öğrenimi üzerinde durulması gelmektedir (Kaya, Ayaz & Dünder, 2017; Solak, 2015). Günümüzde dört temel dil becerisinin (dinleme, konuşma, okuma ve yazma) öğretimi ile 21. yüzyıl becerilerinin kullanımı ve ilgili sorunlar tartışılmaktadır (Akyıldız & Çelik, 2020, Şahin & Han, 2020). Bedir (2019) yabancı dil öğretiminde öğretmen adaylarının yaratıcı ve eleştirel düşünme gibi 21. yüzyıl becerilerinin önemi açısından farkındalıklarının yüksek olduğunu ancak bu becerileri uygulama aşamasında eksikliklerinin olduğunu bilincinde olduklarını belirtmektedir. Diğer taraftan dil öğrenenler için küresel iş birliğini geliştirmek adına insanlarla iletişim kurmak için eleştirel ve yaratıcı düşünmek önemlidir (Gürsoy & Bağ, 2019). Öğrencilerin yaratıcı yeteneklerini geliştirmek için, bir öğretmenin yaratıcı düşünmesi ve bir öğrencinin yaratıcılığı için elverişli pedagojik koşulları oluşturması gerekmektedir (Borodina, Sibgatullina & Gizatullina, 2019). Öğrenme bağlamında yaratıcılık; problemleri algılama, gözlemleme, sorunları varsayma, değerlendirme ve varsayımları test etme süreciyle başlar (Yustina, Syafii & Vebrianto, 2020). Bu sebeplerden dolayı dil öğretimini destekleyen yaratıcı düşünme ortamının desteklenmesi önemlidir. Bu çalışma içerisinde yaratıcı düşünen sınıf ortamını destekleyen ve engelleyen noktalar öğretmen algılarına dayalı olarak keşfedilmeye çalışılmıştır.

Bu çalışmanın yürütüldüğü dönemin Covid-19 pandemisi dönemi olması sebebiyle hem web tabanlı araçların kullanımı hem de dil öğrenme üzerine ihtiyaçların yaratıcı düşünme becerilerini destekleyecek boyutta düşünülmesi önemlidir. Bu çalışma içerisinde öğrencilerin aldığı hazırlık eğitimi içerisinde yaratıcı düşünmenin gelişimine yönelik ihtiyaçlar öğrenme açısından detaylı olarak belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır.

Yöntem

Bu çalışmada nitel araştırma yaklaşımlarından biri olan fenomenoloji kullanılmıştır. Fenomenoloji; genel olarak deneyim üzerine odaklanmak, daha özel olarak deneyimleyenlerin olgular hakkında tartışma ve tanımlama yapabildikleri boyutlar hakkında düşüncelerini ifade etmesi demektir (Asworth & Lucas, 1998). Fenomenolojik çalışmalarda araştırmacılar varsayımda bulunmadan belirli bir konuya odaklanırken var olan soru veya sorun üzerinden daha fazla araştırmaya ve yansımaya zemin hazırlayarak bulgular edinmektedirler (Moustakas, 1994).

Bulgular

Bulgular, öğretim üyeleri algılarına dayalı tema ve kodlar ile bu kod ve temaları destekleyici unsurlar olmak üzere iki kategoride sunulmuştur. Covid-19 pandemi önlemleri kapsamında uzaktan eğitim yoluyla yürütülen öğrenme süreci içinde yaratıcı düşünme becerilerine yönelik öğretmen algılarını analiz ettiğimizde üç grup tema ortaya çıkmıştır: Yaratıcı Düşünen Sınıf Ortamı Yaratma Engelleri, Mevcut Destekleyiciler, Kavramı Tanımlama. Yaratıcı düşünmenin anlamı ile ilgili algının, mevcut kullanılan yöntem-tekniklerin ve sınırlılıkların ana belirleyicisi olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır.

Öğretmen algılarına dayalı görüşleri analiz ettiğimizde ortaya çıkan en önemli bulgu, düşünme gelişimini destekleyecek sınıf ortamı yaratma kapsamında dikkat çekici engellerin bulunmasıdır. Bu engellerin başında öğretmenlerin tamamının yaratıcı düşünmenin öğretimi ya da desteklenmesi konusunda eğitim almamaları ve mesleki gelişim ihtiyacı gelmektedir. Öğretmenlerin tamamı yaratıcı düşünme becerilerinin anlamını yeni fikir sunma olarak tanımladıkları için, sınıfta kullandıkları bazı yöntem-tekniklerin yaratıcı düşünme becerilerini destekleyebileceği görüşündedirler. İki tanesi derste başvurduğu soru sorma tekniğinin, üç tanesi bölümde kullanılan ters yüz öğrenme modelinin; bir tanesi sınıf içinde kullandığı Kahoot ve Newsela adındaki dijital araçların; bir diğeri ise kullandığı Teams odaları ve grup çalışmalarının öğrencilerin düşünme becerilerini destekleyebileceğini; bu şekilde öğrencilerin "fikir üretme" fırsatını yakaladıklarını ifade etmişlerdir.

Yaratıcı düşünmenin birçok alt boyutu ve göstergesi vardır. Öğretmenlerin anlam ile ilgili görüşlerinin sınıf içi etkinliklerini düzenlemeye doğrudan etkisi olduğunun bir önceki tema içerisinde yer alan kodlarda görmekteyiz. Öğretmenlerin tamamı yaratıcı düşünmeyi "yeni fikir üretme" alt boyutu ile iki tanesi de "sorun çözme" alt boyutu ile algılamaktadır.


Tartışma ve Sonuç


Araştırma bulgularını incelediğimizde öğretmenin yaratıcı düşünmenin anlamı ile ilgili algılarının önemli olduğunu görmekteyiz. Yaratıcı düşünmeyi "yeni fikir üretme" boyutu olarak algılayan öğretmenler problemleri ve ihtiyaçları da bu doğrultuda yorumlamaktadır. Çalışma grubunda yer alan öğretim görevlilerinin çoğu yaratıcı düşünmenin öğretimi ve önemsenmesi konusunda bir eğitim almadığını ve mesleki gelişim için bir eğitim almaya ihtiyaç duyduklarını düşünmektedirler. Yaratıcı düşünme çerçevesinde dil eğitimi dersleri için öğretmenlerin ders ortamı sağlanması konusunda, problem yaratma ve ders tasarlama alanlarında eğitim almalarının yararlı olabileceği belirtilmiştir (Ali, 2019). Birçok yöntem veya teknik özgün fikirler üreten bireylere yardımcı olmak için tasarlanmıştır. Her şekilde, yaratıcı düşünmeyi geliştirmek için tasarlanmış tekniklerle birlikte gelen farkındalık bireylere keşif davranışlarında kullanabilecekleri birtakım araçlar sağlamaktadır (Eragamreddy, 2013).

Bu çalışma Covid-19 pandemisi nedeniyle uzaktan eğitim sürecinde gerçekleştiği için web tabanlı bazı mevcut sınıf içi uygulamaların yaratıcı düşünme becerilerini geliştirebileceği sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Bu sonucu destekleyen bir çalışma olarak, Klimova (2019) özellikle İngilizce eğitiminin gözden geçirilmesi yoluyla, akıllı telefonlar aracılığıyla yabancı dil öğreniminin üniversite öğrencilerinin performansının geliştirilmesinde etkili olduğunu belirtmiştir. Web-temelli uygulamalar yaratıcı düşünme becerilerinin desteklenmesi için önemlidir. Tabieh, Hileh ve Al-Shakea, (2020) harmanlanmış ve ters-yüz eğitim konusunda yaptıkları araştırmada her iki yöntemin de geleneksel yöntemle göre yaratıcı düşünmeyi daha çok geliştirdiğini belirtmiştir.

Öğrencilerin tercih ettikleri öğrenme stilleri ve yaratıcı düşünmenin görev özgünlüğü göz önünde bulundurularak öğrencilere yaratıcı düşünme becerilerini geliştiren çeşitli öğrenme tarzlarını hedefleyen zengin bir görev yelpazesi sağlanabilir, önerisinde bulunmuştur. Bu şekilde öğrencilerin yaratıcı ve eleştirel düşüncelerini eş zamanlı olarak olumlu yönde etkileyebileceği sonucu ortaya konulmuştur. Benzer şekilde Eragamreddy (2013) yaratıcı düşünme becerilerinin eğitimi konusunda yaptığı çalışmada yaratıcı düşünmeyi geliştirmek için öğrenme tekniklerinin detaylandırılması ile ilgili çalışmalar yapılması gerektiğini vurgulamıştır. Cesar (2013) yaratıcı düşünme becerilerinin gelişimi konusunda yaptığı araştırmasında öğrencilere proje tabanlı, yapılandırmacı öğrenme ortamlarıyla uyumlu olan teknikler sunulduğunda öğrencilerin yaratıcı fikirler sunma imkânı bulduğu bulgusuna ulaşmıştır. Yang, Chen ve Hung (2020) yaratıcı düşünme konusunda dijital hikâye anlatımı yöntemiyle öğrencilerin yaratıcı düşünme ve konuşma becerilerinin gelişimini ortaya koymak için yaptıkları araştırmada hem dil becerilerinde hem de yaratıcı düşünme becerisinde olumlu etkilerin görüldüğü sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Sadykova ve Shelestova (2016) tarafından üniversite öğrencilerinin yaratıcı düşünme becerilerinin yabancı dil öğrenimine etkilerinin incelendiği çalışmada öğrencilerin var olan sorunlara yaratıcı çözümler bulmanın yanı sıra yeni ve orijinal fikirler ortaya koyma açısında gelişim gösterdikleri sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır.

Adapting Coursebook Activities to Stimulate Language Learning among Rural Students: An Action Research ¹

Ayşe Kırmızı Ayyıldız, Turkish Ministry of National Education, aysekirmizi72@gmail.com 
0000-0003-1236-0663

Nur Akkuş Çakır, Middle East Technical University, nakkus@metu.edu.tr 
0000-0003-3651-6183

Keywords

Material Adaptation
English Coursebooks
Instruction
Rural Education
English Language Teaching

Article Info:

Received : 26-08-2021
Accepted : 09-05-2022
Published : 18-06-2022

DOI:

10.31704/ijocis.2022.002

Abstract

Coursebooks are substantial components of English lessons for facilitating learning. However, cultural differences may require a course material to be adapted to meet students' needs, interests and wants. This qualitative action research study aimed to improve an English language teaching process at a rural school in a socioeconomically deprived area. The required data were gathered through semi-structured teacher interviews, semi-structured student interviews, teacher memos, class discussion teacher reflections, open-ended student questionnaires. The findings of the study indicated that regional challenges affect the language learning process in rural areas negatively and this regional divide makes it difficult for students to keep up with the centralized content. When the materials are adapted in accordance with the students' needs and profile, and regional conditions, it is possible for students to reach the learning goals. The data also show that the adapted materials contribute to meaningful learning, enthusiasm among students, engagement towards the English and increase retention.

To cite this article: Kırmızı Ayyıldız, A., & Akkuş Çakır, N. (2022). Adaptation of English coursebook activities based on sociocultural theory: An action research. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 12(1), page 19-42. doi: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.002

Introduction

Sociocultural factors in language lessons outline success in rural regions (Kyriacou & Zhu, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Miller, 1988); thus, it is important to strive for foreign language education

¹ This article was derived from the master's thesis of Ayşe Kırmızı Ayyıldız entitled as "Adaptation of English Coursebook Activities Based on Sociocultural Theory: An Action Research" under the supervisory of Assist. Prof. Dr Nur Akkuş Çakır.

which addresses rural students' and communities' needs and interests for foreign language learning (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011). Students studying in a village school may have different needs than urban students which may require different approaches to education (Sarpkaya & Dal, 2020). When there is a mismatch between the coursebook content and students' cultural background, effective teaching becomes an issue (Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2003; Green et al., 2006), as relying on only the centralized materials cannot embrace cultural diversities (Çiftçi & Cin, 2017). Therefore, English language teachers sometimes feel the need to adapt the course materials to the sociocultural background of the students (Aksoy, 2008; Çiftçi & Cin 2017; Kızılaslan, 2012) and prefer to use extra materials and visuals they choose (Kazazoğlu, 2010). They have to adapt or create materials to meet students' needs and integrate the curriculum with the real world and cultural elements outside (Tosta, 2001).

Teachers who know the community in which they work, and the community's way of life can better understand students' needs and expectations (Başer, 2008). Regional knowledge can be used as an agent for promoting pre-defined objectives and language skills as the teacher transforms the content and classroom activities to make them more meaningful and related to students' context and lives (Azano, 2011). Therefore, teachers need to be aware of rural challenges and plan the instructional process accordingly (Azano, 2011; Koru & Akesson, 2011; Moll, Amanti et al., 1992). If the instructional material is not relevant to students' particular culture and lifestyles, teachers should rearrange the learning materials to foster student motivation, participation, and meaningful learning (Pardo & Téllez, 2009). Meaningful learning occurs when learners build the new knowledge onto existing knowledge, process and use it while solving a problem (Mayer, 2002). This also highlights the role of material adaptation in creating or promoting a meaningful and pleasant learning environment (Pardo & Téllez, 2009). By doing that material adaptation increases participation in ELT classes and overdependency of coursebooks (Rathert & Cabaroğlu, 2021).

Previous research shows that material adaptation appears as a necessary step in the instructional process in second language teaching and coursebooks are inescapably adapted for different reasons (Alptekin, 1984; Hyde, 1994; Sarıgöz, 2019; Kara, 2019; Tomlinson, 2016). For example, coursebook dialogues can be considered as being not compatible with pre-defined objectives and student profile (Süzer, 2007) or sometimes centralized coursebooks may not be suitable for the student profile and readiness (Kozikoğlu & Senemoğlu, 2018). Some other reasons for material adaptation might be institutional aims for language learning and students' needs (İnal, 2006), the need to raise students' cultural awareness (Şimşek, 2017), the need for providing a meaningful context for the language learning in general and/or vocabulary learning specifically, and providing more authentic materials (Kara, 2019). Moreover, teachers may need various types of activities, in addition to coursebook content to increase students' interests and to help them build self-confidence, improve higher order thinking skills, and show better participation (Acar, 2013; Merter, 2006). Cultural elements referred in the coursebook might be another reason for material adaptation, teachers may want to rearrange the content of the course material in line with the cultural characteristics of the location they work (Bayyurt, 2006; İnal, 2006).

Studies also have shown that local culture elements can contribute to the meaningfulness of the lesson (Bayyurt, 2006; Shin et al., 2011) and can make the lesson more appealing (Acar, 2013; Duman, 2018). While global coursebooks are more authentic and sufficient in terms of cultural content (Şimşek & Dündar, 2018) teachers believe it is difficult to transfer some themes

across cultures and when the coursebooks heavily rely on the culture of the target language, it is difficult to use them effectively during the lesson (Kayapınar, 2009) and they find the dominant presence of US or UK culture limiting (Baltacı & Tanış, 2018). However, studies also highlight that locally produced coursebooks may provide a monocultural representation of the home culture, which is deemed to be insufficient by the experts in terms of providing students with the necessary cultural diversity for effective language teaching (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Çakır, 2010; Çelik & Erbay, 2013; Ertürk, 2013; Kayaoğlu, 2011; Şimşek & Dünder, 2018; Toprakçı & Özaydınlı, 2021) and sometimes fail to represent even only the local culture in a meaningful way (Işık, 2011). Coursebook evaluations point out that intercultural representations should be integrated more (Çakır, 2021). In that sense, ELT coursebooks are considered to be insufficient to facilitate intercultural awareness and represent Turkish culture in a very limited way (Hatipoğlu, 2018; Işık, 2011; Solhi et al., 2020; Tekir & Arıkan, 2007) and they sometimes fail to meet the expectations for opportunities of localization to cross the cultural gap (Işık, 2011; Işık, 2018; Solhi et al., 2020). Studies conducted in Turkey about the ELT coursebooks at different levels highlighted that majority of the language teachers found the coursebooks used for English language teaching as insufficient in many respects (Ertürk, 2013; Dülger, 2016; Kayapınar, 2009; Kayaoğlu, 2011; Şimşek & Dünder, 2018; Tekir & Arıkan, 2007;). Tomlinson (2012) also highlights the need for more empirical material adaptation studies evaluating the materials from different perspectives taking into students' perspectives, taking action and also evaluating their own attempt critically as well.

In this study context, a sociocultural gap mentioned above was observed. Students were not familiar with some sociocultural concepts in the coursebook and had difficulty in terms of feeling the need to learn English and being able to follow the lessons. Therefore, based on the above-mentioned problems and the need for more empirical studies (Tomlinson, 2012), the present action research study aimed to investigate students' and teachers' perception about the English language coursebook used for the 8th grade students at a rural public school in terms of its cultural content, adopt and/or adapt the necessary materials, and finally present students' and teacher's perceptions of the re-designed materials. In line with this purpose, the research questions of the study are defined below:

1. How do students and English teachers in a socioeconomically deprived rural area perceive and interpret the content and activities of their English textbooks in terms of their social and cultural background?
2. To what extent did the adapted materials provide opportunities for meaningful learning?

Method

This qualitative action research study aimed to improve English language teaching at a rural school in a socioeconomically deprived area. Action research can be carried out by educators to improve their practices and students' learning (Efron & Ravid, 2013). As it helps teachers understand specific problems and issues related to their classrooms, supports their reflective practices, and encourages them to take the responsibility of their work (Burns, 2010). Hence this study aimed to improve instructional practice and student learning through trying to solve a defined problem by the teacher researcher (Sikula, 1996), it employed action research design. In line with the description of Chech and Schutt (2011), in the present action research study,

the researcher had a specific action and attempted to make a positive change in the situation. Action research is not limited to any one approach; qualitative, quantitative, and mixed research methods can be used; however, qualitative research methods may be more appropriate to describe the particular situation from various angles and obtain deeper data because it is limited to a specific region (Craig, 2009). Since the current study is limited to a specific school, the researcher describes the research environment from a wide perspective, participate in the study area, and has the chance to observe naturally occurring events, human interactions and relations, action research design is thought to be appropriate.

This study is conducted at a village school in Şanlıurfa, which is a city in the South-East part of Turkey. The school is 145 kilometers far away from the city center and it is a secondary school in which 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th grade students receive education. There are 560 students, 21 teachers, and 14 classrooms in the school. It is a public school and follows English language teaching curriculum of the Ministry of National Education. There are around 50 students in 5th and 6th grades, 40 students in 7th grades and 35 students in 8th grades classrooms. Technical facilities are not sufficient at the school. There are not computers, projectors, and speakers in each classroom. There is a multi-purpose room in the school including 30 seats, a whiteboard, and a projector. The room can be used by all the teachers if they need to use a projector. Yet, teachers must bring their own computer and speakers. About a quarter of the students live in the village where the school is located, and the rest come to the school from different villages by bus on daily basis. All the students have crowded families. They have at least five siblings and some of them live with their relatives such as grandparents, uncles, etc. Nearly all the students live in houses with at most two rooms. They work as seasonal workers, and they attend the school towards the end of October and leave at the end of April so as to go to different cities and work in fields even though the academic year normally starts in September and ends in June in Turkey. They rarely go to town center and some of them have not been to Şanlıurfa city center so far.

Participants of the Study

Convenience sampling method is used to determine participants and the present research was conducted with three eight grade classes the teacher researcher works with. There were 67 students in total; however, since some students work in different rural jobs, as taking care of animals/fields, absenteeism happens quite often. Therefore, total number of participants changed between 50-67 during the lessons.

Apart from the students, two other English teachers also participated in the study. Both teachers graduated from English language teaching departments and chosen for the study because they are familiar with the research context. One of them has been working for four years at the school and has been living in the village. And she is teaching sixth graders. The other teacher has been working for two years in the area and staying at the town center. And she is teaching fifth graders.

Data Sources

Qualitative data collection tools were utilized to gather broad and detailed data related to the research questions (Merriam, 2009). As this research aims to understand students' and teachers' perspective in a socioeconomically deprived rural area about the content and activities of their English textbooks and about the adapted materials, qualitative techniques are

believed to be more appropriate to examine the particular research context from different perspectives and gain deeper data (Craig, 2009). Student feedback forms, whole class discussion teacher researcher reflections, semi-structured student interviews, semi-structured teacher interviews, and teacher researcher memos were used to collect data. Data gathering instruments were prepared by the researcher and revised by three experts in the field. After the revisions suggested by the domain experts, such as writing the questions in student interview protocol in a simpler way and using shorter expressions and/or changing the order of some questions to have a top-down approach in teacher interview protocol. Table 1 shows the data collection tools in the study. Table 2 shows the triangulation of the data source.

Table 1. *Data Collection Instruments*

<i>The researcher</i>	<i>Students</i>	<i>English Teachers</i>
Teacher Researcher Memos	Student Feedback Forms	Semi-Structured Interviews
Whole Class Discussion	Semi-Structured Interviews	
Teacher Researcher Reflective Memos		

Table 2. *Data Triangulation Matrix*

<i>Research Questions</i>	<i>Data Sources</i>		
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
1. How do students and English teachers in a socioeconomically deprived rural area perceive and interpret the content and activities of their English textbooks in terms of their social and cultural background	Semi-structured student interviews	Semi-structured teacher interviews	
2. To what extent the adapted materials provided opportunities for meaningful learning?	Student feedback form	Whole class discussion teacher researcher reflective memos	Weekly teacher researcher memos

Role of the Researcher

The literature has shown that the role of the researcher in action research can be varied; however, the main role of the action researcher is to take responsibility for a workable action and to encourage further research accordingly (O'Brien, 1998). In this study the teacher researcher has been teaching in the research area for four years as an English language teacher. In this research context she tried to understand students' and teachers' perceptions, determine if there is any mismatch, or unfamiliar elements due to the students' backgrounds and, question how to adapt the materials so that they would be useful in this situation. The role of the researcher in the study is therefore two-fold, being both a practitioner and a researcher.

Implementation

After receiving the required approvals from Middle East Technical University ethics committee and Şanlıurfa Provincial Directorate for National Education, the researcher and two other English teachers at the school separately identified the concepts/activities given in the 8th grade English coursebook which they believe to be difficult to use in the classroom because of the students' sociocultural background based on their experiences in the rural school. They analyzed the book in terms of its appropriateness for students' language proficiency, the

context of the school/area, the organization and presentation of the content in relation to students' socioeconomic background (McDonough & Shaw, 1993). After all the teachers reviewed all the units in the book and determined the concepts/activities individually, they came together and discussed them as group and reached an agreement on the concepts/activities that require adaptation. After the teachers reached an agreement about the possible ways to adapt the materials, the teacher researcher adapted materials accordingly and in line with the outcomes determined by Turkish MoNE. Three material adaptation experts were consulted for the appropriateness of the adapted materials.

The adapted materials were implemented for seven weeks, and student feedback forms and teacher memos were collected. After implementing each lesson plan, the teacher distributed open-ended students feedback forms to understand students' perceptions related to adapted activities and then guided whole class discussions about the activities used. Right after each whole class discussions, the teacher researcher wrote reflective memos. Interview questions and student feedback form were designed after an intensive literature review and three experts' opinions were solicited.

Trustworthiness

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) there are different ways to ensure credibility such as prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, and referential adequacy materials. In accordance with that, this action research study utilized triangulation to increase conformability and used variety of data sources. As Stringer (2007) asserts, the researcher becomes an active observer if s/he keeps notes of everything in the research area. Therefore, teacher researcher paid attention to take detailed notes during every suitable time and utilized persistent observation as a technique. As the teacher researcher was also working at the same school the study took place, this warranted her prolonged time in the field. Transferability in trustworthiness refers to the applicability of the study to other similar contexts (Stringer, 2007). This study aimed to meet transferability with detailed context description, detailed explanation of research phases, data collection tools, adapted materials, and results. Dependability is another concept to ensure trustworthiness in action research and it is yielded by using reliable and valid data collection tools (Golafshani, 2003). To ensure that experts such as curriculum and instruction experts, English Language Teaching experts, and experienced English Language teachers were consulted during the development of the tools used in the study.

Data Analysis

Reflexive thematic analysis was used to analyze the data. Reflexive thematic analysis is the conceptualization of data encoded in semantic or latent ways with meaning-based patterns. Coding can be utilized in two ways which are "inductive or bottom-up" and "deductive or top-down". Inductive coding can be used if there is no predetermined pattern to follow and the ideas are generated as analyzing the data set. In the current study all the data were coded by using inductive approach (Braun & Clarke, 2014). Unlike the codebook or code framework approach, in the reflexive thematic approach, coding is an open and iterative process and is not fixed at the beginning of the analysis process (Clarke et al., 2015). The important thing is to gain a deeper familiarity with the data and internalize it to tell the story better (Braun & Clarke, 2019).

The coding procedure followed the six-phase framework defined by Braun and Clarke (2006); (1) first step to get familiar with the data, all the data sets were read and re-read; (2)

then every single line was coded without having pre-set codes to generate initial codes; (3) in the third step, the researcher searched for themes and codes were organized into broader themes; (4) then codes were reviewed, modified and improved for a better representation of the data; (5) next the themes were defined theme, main themes or sub-themes were determined, thematic maps for the related questions were designed, (6) Lastly, the analysis was reported and written up.

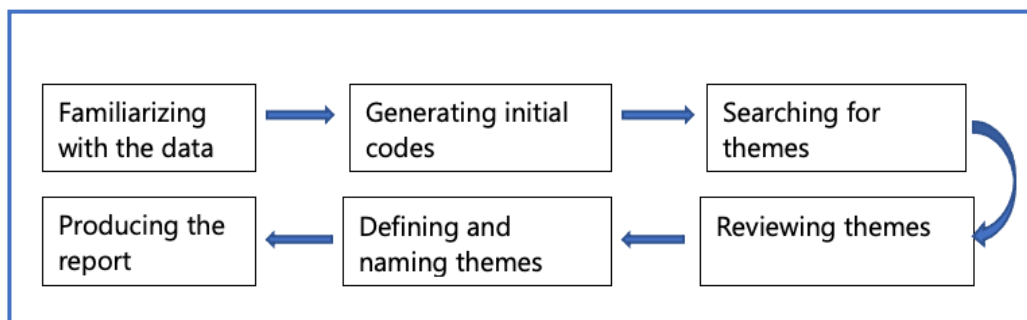


Figure 1. *Six Phase of Thematic Analysis* (The figure was created in accordance with the article entitled as *Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology* by Braun and Clarke (2006)).

Results

Perceptions about the Cultural Content of English Coursebook

The data containing the perceptions about the cultural content of the book were gathered through semi-structured student and teacher interviews. First of all, the data obtained from teachers' interviews were represented under the themes of regional challenges, the impact of sociocultural incongruity and professional demands. As for student interviews, the themes were defined as course-content related perceptions and cultural perceptions.

Teachers' Perceptions

Regional challenges: This theme was about the mismatch between the intended use of the course content and actual classroom use of it in the study context that is experienced by teachers due to regional conditions. During the interviews, the teachers stated that the basis of a sociocultural incompatibility between the coursebook content and the students was due to the regional conditions.

Because the social opportunities of the students here are already limited... thus they have never seen the concepts given in the book such as bowling, billiards, or the types of food as salami, sausage, mild cream cheese, sandwich.... Now, of course, if the school were in the center, the students could go to the market with their family, see these foods, or go to the mall. But unfortunately, there is no such possibility here. Therefore, the book can be challenging for students.

Teachers stated that another difficulty experienced in the region was technological deficiencies. For them, technological devices such as projectors, computers or smart boards were not available in the school. On the other hand, infrastructural conditions of the village also affected the teaching process.

Or because our technological possibilities are very limited, I cannot use the essential technology ... Well... for example, when I want to teach listening, I use my own Bluetooth speaker, but when its charge is over, I cannot use it again if there is no electricity. I have to postpone. Or I want to show a video about an activity in the book, but we don't have a projection. I mean, not in every classroom... Well... there is one portable projector, but I can't get it whenever I want. For example, there are very good activities in Vitamin at EBA. If we had a smart board, or at least a projection, we could do better lessons in classrooms.

Another factor that teachers considered under the regional challenges was students' readiness level in the area. The teachers stated that there were students who were illiterate at all levels and the students did not have some essential knowledge about the language structures that they should have learned in the previous years, and this situation affected the students' learning.

So unfortunately, our students' readiness level is low. For example, I ask the 5th graders whether they had an English teacher in the primary school or not, half of them have been taught by their classroom teachers and half have never been taught English before. There are also those who are illiterate. So unfortunately, there are not suitable conditions to be successful.

The teachers also emphasized the influence of the learning environment in this region on students' attitudes. They mentioned that students were not very enthusiastic about the lessons and most of them do not consider English as important for their future career as they believe that they would not be practicing professions requiring any knowledge of English.

Very few students are not biased towards English lessons. There are some who say you're teaching us a new culture, etc. but many say that they are not interested, it is a sin. For example, when they see a foreign scientist, they say, "Isn't it a sin to learn these things?" Many think they won't need English in the future.

Impact of sociocultural incongruity: When teachers' general perceptions were analyzed through semi-structured interviews, it was revealed that they thought that there was a cultural mismatch between rural students' sociocultural backgrounds and cultural activities in English textbooks and they did not know many of the concepts covered in the textbook in their mother tongue either.

Of course, the social life in these villages is different than those given in the book... So, when I say tennis court, children's theater, or fitness, gym, etc., the word itself is foreign to children. He doesn't know what it is like so he cannot understand when we teach him the English equivalent. His social life is taking sheep to graze, working in the fields and working at the small grocery store in the village, but the lives in the book are not like that. For example, I am telling about city buildings in the 6's (6th grade). Is there a government building in this village so the children understand what I am talking about? or a shopping mall?

They explained that this cultural mismatch made English learning difficult because students had difficulty in understanding the unfamiliar concepts which remained abstract in their minds. The students found the activities that they did not see in the village as different, meaningless or absurd and they showed resistance to learning the concepts or vocabulary.

As I said before, when something is meaningless to them, indeed concepts that they are not familiar with may seem meaningless, they immediately say 'this is absurd' or so. So, it's like they're building a wall.

Professional demands: Under this theme, teachers expressed the extra responsibilities they had due to the regional conditions while teaching. They expressed that cultural mismatch could be more demanding for them such that their workload increased since they had to make up for the mismatch.

In other words, their cultural background is insufficient. Well... When this is the case, I teach children the concepts first. For example, what a museum, shopping mall, cafe, cinema is like... I have to teach them first so that they can understand. For example, the children did not know about the amusement park toys at the amusement park activity and I had them watch their videos one by one.

To prevent this (students' building invisible walls that keep them from learning new concepts) from happening, I try to give examples from their lives or from this village, because I waste too much time otherwise... I get tired too.

Moreover, the teachers expressed that they had to put more effort to handle the incongruence and increase students' learning. They stated that they would not have to do that if they worked in a city center; however, working in a village required putting extra effort necessarily.

For example, in the Yummy Breakfast unit, I bought the salami, sausage, croissant from the market beforehand and had a breakfast activity, so, I think students can understand better. But this puts more responsibility on the teacher. I think village teachers have to work harder in this sense. Because we are trying to provide a quality education with few opportunities. We're preparing children here for the high school exam. Obviously, we try to make up for these impossibilities in a place where the student cannot even go to the stationery and buy as many test books as /she wants.

But unfortunately, we have to follow the centralized schedule. When we follow the schedule exactly, it can be a bit vague to the students. That's why I always have to consider a different method or activity. Otherwise, it's like lecturing to the wall.

Student Perceptions

When students' interviews were analyzed to see how they perceived cultural concepts in the English coursebook, the data were categorized under two major themes which were course content-related perceptions and cultural perceptions.

Course-content related perceptions: This theme described students' perceptions about the grammatical structure, vocabulary, and text difficulty in the English textbook. During the interviews, the students explained their perceptions related to course procedure, vocabulary items, reading passages and visuals. Nearly all of the students stated that vocabulary items could be difficult for them, and this situation negatively affected their learnings.

Teacher, English is a bit complicated because the meanings and spellings are read separately.

...I don't understand long reading passages... because I don't know the vocabulary.

You know, there are very long words, I have a hard time understanding them.

Moreover, students stated that the visuals given in the book were not enough to understand the concepts and they sometimes needed more visuals to understand especially unfamiliar concepts. Their comments highlighted the need for supporting students' learning process with visuals as the concepts were mostly new to them.

... I don't understand some places when I don't see it, it would be better to see a picture.

For example, teacher... there are different dishes, cakes.... how should I know if there are not pictures?

Their comments suggested that the book assumed students knew some concepts and did not provide visuals for all the concepts and vocabulary that students did not know. Therefore, according to their perceptions, vocabulary was difficult, and they required more visual support to learn the target language.

Cultural perceptions: Second theme in terms of representing students' perceptions was about how they saw the cultural content represented in the book. Students in general thought that cultural content was most of the time unfamiliar to them and they stated that they were deprived of some cultural activities and opportunities in their village compared to the life represented in the book.

... They say that they hang out with their friends, they drink coffee... We don't do these sorts of things. When I go home, I do housework for my mother.

There are not such beautiful things here... Well, teacher, I have never seen a theater or a cinema.

Students' comments showed that they compared their own lives with the life the book presents, and they observed that they lacked these experiences and opportunities in their environment. This realization also led to a feeling of dissatisfaction. When students talked about their sociocultural deprivations, nearly all of them stated that they were disadvantageous in comparison with those children who had access to various cultural activities because they did not have sociocultural opportunities to experience those activities in the village.

Their school is more advanced than our school. For example, they have a laboratory, and they can go to the laboratory. They do more activities in the gym...

They don't have a village like this one...I haven't seen one. The places where they live are better.

Opportunities for Meaningful Learning Provided by Adapted Materials

The second question of the present study was about students and the teacher's perceptions about the adapted materials. Relevant data were gathered through open-ended questionnaires from students, the teacher's class discussion reflections and teacher memos.

The Perceptions of the Teacher Researcher

Based on the analysis of whole class discussion reflection memos and teacher memos, two main themes were defined as adapted materials enabled internalization and meaningful learning.

Internalization: This theme was about the teacher researcher's opinions about how the adapted activities helped students internalize the new language input. Internalization was seemed to be achieved through promoting familiarity, providing relatedness and retention. In relation to the data, it was observed that as students got familiar with the concepts that they did not see in the rural area before, they could construct new semantic connections between the input and their previous schemata.

This was a mango cake recipe activity and there was a reading paragraph. There was not a visual of mango. Before we started to read the reading passage, I showed some mango pictures and asked them what fruit is similar to mango. Some of them said it looked like a peach, some said it was like a persimmon and some others said its skin looked like a pomegranate. One of the students said that "I imagined a totally different shape, I thought it was green and long; however, it was orange and round." Then, they tasted a piece of mango. So, they got familiarized with the unfamiliar cultural item. After they tasted it, some of them said that it was very different, but some said it was similar to apricot. Then we continued with reading the paragraph (Teacher memo-December, 2019).

Based on the recalled data, it was seen that since the adapted activities include local culture elements, students could relate the new language input to their own lives. It was observed that as students made a connection between their lives and course subject, they were more willing to learn the subject.

...I asked what they liked or did not like about the activities. When I asked students about what was good in the lesson, which activity they liked today, they gave different answers. Most of them said that they liked worksheet activity. When I asked the reasons of it, they said that some of the pictures were related to their lives in the village such as working in fields, collecting cotton, swimming in a river, playing with wheelbarrow etc. and they also added that it was very good to learn some vocabulary related to village life (Class discussion reflections-November, 2019.)

Data showed that, students were also able to recall the vocabulary they had learnt in the previous weeks easily. The memos reflected the teacher researcher's notes about how she noticed students seemed to remember and try to use the target vocabulary which was not common before the application of the adapted materials.

The word pudding was mentioned in the materials that I adapted in the previous lesson, and the students got familiarized for the first time. In this lesson, after reading the mango cake recipe, some of the students asked, "is there such a thing as mango pudding?". This was a very important question because the students had seen the pudding for the first time in the previous lesson, and in this lesson, it was the first time they saw the mango. They worked on the concepts they had just learned, remembered, and commented on them, and I was very happy (Teacher memo-December, 2019).

Provided meaningful learning: This theme indicated that the adapted activities helped students learn the unfamiliar concepts meaningfully instead of rote memorization. Meaningful learning was achieved through increasing enthusiasm, increasing engagement, raising curiosity, and authentic learning. First of all, it was stated that the activities increased students' enthusiasm towards the course. The analysis revealed that they became enthusiastic to do the activities when the material was meaningful to the students.

In the original activity, going to an amusement park was given as a free time activity which can be done with friends. To familiarize the students with amusement parks, I showed the video of Vialand (an amusement park in İstanbul). They expressed that they had a lot of fun even watching this video and could not imagine the reality. The language input became meaningful to them otherwise they wouldn't be enthusiastic if they did not understand what the activity was about and they would only memorize the Turkish meaning of the word "amusement park" (Teacher memo-November, 2019).

The adapted activities were prepared in such a way that they include some sociocultural background knowledge which would be necessary to understand the activity. If students did not know a concept given in the activity, they could not do the activity such as a speaking or writing activity. After the adapted materials, it was seen that students could participate more because they had the necessary input to share their feelings, made comments or arose interest to the subject. After students could gather the necessary background knowledge, the teacher researcher noted that students' participation and engagement with the course had increased.

However, in the adapted version they created a smartphone application in groups for a specific purpose such as learning a foreign language, preparing a workout program etc. Students could actively participate to the activity because before the activity I introduced them a smart phone application for learning a foreign language. They worked in groups of three or four. All of them discussed through a smartphone application. It was impossible to do the original activity because it would not be meaningful. However, with this adapted version of the activity, all the students could participate willingly because it only required students' imagination. I gave them 10 minutes to do the activity and the groups presented their work to the class. I think the activity was much more communicative (Teacher Memo-February, 2020).

The data revealed that students wanted to learn more about new language input, and they were willing to express their own ideas using the new language structure. In other words, the adapted activities raised students' curiosity towards foreign language usage.

The students asked the English meanings of other words that came to their mind about music. In this way, their vocabulary also increases. They kept saying, "What does a note mean in English?" "My teacher, how can I say my voice is beautiful in English?". The students had a biased attitude towards learning English before. For example, they were rejecting to learn some vocabulary to use in their social life. However, after adapting the activities, their desire to learn some vocabulary seemed to have increased (Class discussion reflection-December, 2019).

In relation to the data from teacher memos and class discussion reflections, the adapted materials were seemed to contribute to authentic learning. Authentic learning was achieved through using authentic materials (e.g. concert ticket, mango fruit, play dough, Duolingo), student-led group works, reflection of the real-world contexts (inclusion of local culture elements), and creation of a product (producing a smart phone application). Reflection of real-world contexts appeared as another way to achieve authentic learning. The adapted activities were prepared as part of the real world outside the school. The data below showed that how the teacher researcher inserted local culture elements while adapting the activities to make the course context more authentic.

The activity was about some free time activities which are performed with friends. The free time activities given in the book did not reflect the activities that rural students do with their friends. The original activities include some concepts such as throwing a slumber party; however, I added some rural activities such as riding a donkey and swimming in the river so as to make the content more authentic (Teacher memo-November, 2019).

Most of the students stated that "music videos were very exciting because we felt like we were in a music program". Some students expressed that they had not seen any program in a large screen, and they said that they felt like that were in the music program called "O Ses Türkiye" (The Voice). I think that students could understand what the activity meant by saying "music band, rock concert, culture and convention center". I realized that the concepts were more meaningful after the students learnt about them and got excited (Class discussion reflection-December, 2019).

The Perceptions of Students

Based on the open-ended questionnaire analysis, it can be said that students were content with the adapted activities in general. Majority of them stated that "everything was good". When they were specifically asked about what they learnt in the activities, the learners wrote that they familiarized with some new concepts and vocabulary. The students also expressed what was new to them in the studied lesson. Regarding this, students stated that "I learnt what a concert ticket looks like...how a concert can be...I learned to call eggs as omelet". In a different unit, students expressed that "I learnt what a gym and a swimming pool can look like".

Moreover, they stated that they liked the visuals used in the adapted activities. Some of them wrote that "the pictures in the worksheet were good...I liked the theater scene that we watched...I liked the amusement park video". Another positive perception of the adapted materials was the use of realia. Many students stated that they liked the realia used in the activity. For example, students indicated that "I liked that the teacher brought a real mango...I liked making different foods using play dough". Furthermore, the students reported that they liked the cultural relevance. For example, they stated that "I liked the picture of people working in the fields...". Some of the students stated that they liked the activities because they were enjoyable "the activity was very enjoyable, I liked that".

The students also expressed that they were not content with the allocated time for the tasks and some stated that "we played with the play dough for a short time". Similarly, some expressed that "it would be better if we could play more". In a different unit, students expressed insufficient time of the activity by stating "it would be better if the concert activity would take longer". Some of them stated that the activity would be better if there were not technical problems. When there were some technical problems with the speakers, the volume of the videos became low, and students expressed their dissatisfaction related to the technical problem and stated that "the volume was not sufficient...it would be better if the volume was high". Some of the students expressed that they did not like the reading passage and stated that "I did not like reading". Only, few of the students did not like the activities and found them boring. They mentioned that "the activity was boring".

The students also made suggestions to improve the activities. Although many of the students liked the cultural relevance in the activities, few of them stated that they would like to see more cultural relevance. These students mentioned that "it would be better if the music was şevko (a traditional dance music) ...I would like to listen to şevko". Another improvement

area mentioned by the students was about the numbers of the visuals used. Although some students stated that they liked the visuals, some others needed more visuals to better understand the input; "it would be better if we could watch different types of theater, it would be better if we could see more videos related to amusement parks". Lastly, few students mentioned that they prefer the activities to be implemented in Turkish; "it would be better if the activities were in Turkish."

Discussion, Conclusion, and Implications

This action research study aimed increase the effectiveness of English language course at a rural school. The findings of the study indicated that regional challenges affect the learning process negatively and this regional divide makes it difficult for students to keep up with the centralized content. When the materials adapted according to the students' needs, profile, and regional conditions, it is possible for students to reach the learning goals.

One of the most important findings of this study was about the limiting effect of the several factors of rural areas, such as sociocultural/socioeconomic deprivations, low readiness level of the students and technological limitations which is in line with the related literature (Aksoy, 2008; Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2003; Çiftçi & Cin, 2017; Kızılaslan, 2012; Yıldız, 2020). Teachers mentioned that the regional context creates socio economic disadvantages for the students. Village schools in Turkey have limited social and economic opportunities unlike urban schools, and therefore these schools have some unique needs (Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2003). These limited opportunities in village schools adversely affect quality education and students' academic success (Aksoy, 2008). For teachers, these limitations are worsened with the students' low readiness level for English language course. Students' data also support this as they expressed that they were having difficulties with vocabulary and grammar which were supposed to be appropriated for their level. As they were lacking in prerequisite knowledge, they found vocabulary and grammar activities more difficult than their own level; however, the units cover the vocabulary items and grammar structures which belong to the previous years. The literature also points out that rural students have lower readiness level in contrast to their peers in urban schools (Çiftçi & Cin, 2017; Kızılaslan, 2012). For example, Güvendir (2017) reveals a similar finding in his study stating that one of the prominent reasons of rural students' having difficulty in English is about students' low readiness level and lacking necessary prerequisite knowledge required by their grade. In this context, students' working as seasonal workers and therefore their frequent absenteeism might have caused their low readiness.

Another point that teachers mentioned is lack of technological opportunities at their school. They expressed that they cannot integrate technology in the lessons because of frequent power cuts, lack of the internet, inadequate projector, and speakers. This result is commonly mentioned in national and international studies about the education in the rural area (Applegate, 2008; Bakı & Bütüner, 2009; Gökçe et al., 2017; Güvendir, 2017; Taneri & Engin-Demir, 2011; Yıldız, 2020). If teachers could reach technological devices as an information source more easily and had less technological problems, they might have helped students to become more familiar with many sociocultural elements that the students were unfamiliar with.

Teachers also believe that there are some sociocultural discrepancies between students' sociocultural background and the content of the book activities caused by regional conditions. As a result of that, new language input may not make sense to the students like the students studying in urban areas. Rural students hardly travel outside their town, they lack some

opportunities to develop themselves socio culturally; therefore, there might exist a sociocultural mismatch between their lives and the coursebook content (Aslan, 2013; Babacan, 2007) as sometimes centralized education systems may ignore different lifestyles and sociocultural backgrounds which alter depending on geographical characteristics of a country (Kızılaslan, 2012). Under these circumstances it is not possible for students to make sense of the new language input if their sociocultural background is not sufficient to understand them (Kıroğlu, 2008; Öztürk, 2015). Analysis also showed that teachers had to put extra effort to overcome the negative effects of these sociocultural mismatches and other regional challenges such as technological deficiencies. Various studies show that quality education and instruction mostly depend on teachers' effort in rural schools (Güvendir, 2017; Özdeş, 2012; Yılmaz & İzgar, 2009), teachers need to adapt the content in accordance with students' needs and local culture (Çakır, 2010).

According to the data retrieved through whole class discussion teacher reflections and teacher memos, the adapted materials helped students internalize the language input by increasing students' familiarity with the unknown vocabulary and concepts, by providing relatedness and retention. In that sense, students', and teacher's data present corresponding results to indicate that the adopted materials worked as planned. Similarly, Duarte and Escobar (2008) reported that in their study where they adopted the course materials taking students' proficiency level, sociocultural background, and interests into account, students showed tendency towards the local adapted materials and mentioned that adapted materials seemed more familiar. In the study of Roe (2008) it was revealed that it was beneficial for students to include the texts including items about their own culture in the curriculum in terms of their self-confidence and motivation. In this study, students' data were similar with the result in that one of the points that they liked about adapted activities was cultural relevance. Altın and Saracaloğlu (2018) also reported that integrating culture to the instructional materials can contribute to students' vocabulary knowledge and that cultural relevance is important for students' attitudes towards learning English. Students' data analysis results were compatible with the teachers' data in that student participants expressed that they feel deprived of some opportunities, and they do not have access to experience some cultural activities in the rural area. In accordance with the analysis of teachers and student interviews this leads to low motivation as well. In that sense, using familiar content, local culture elements in the instruction process can increase student motivations and academic success (Alptekin, 1993/2006; Gardner, 1985; Huang et al., 2017; McKay, 2002).

The data also showed that the adapted materials contributed to meaningful learning, increased enthusiasm among students, engagement towards the English and increased retention. As long as students find the context meaningful, they can develop an enthusiasm for learning (Sullo, 2009). For a language learning experience to be meaningful, students should be willing to relate newly learnt knowledge to already existing ones and the task should also make sense to them. Meaningful learning also increases retention of the newly learned knowledge (Brown, 2000).

Another result of the current study which contributed to meaningful learning was that the adapted materials helped to create an authentic learning experience. In the design process, the teacher adapted the activities initiating real life experiences, local culture relevance, using real and concrete materials, and increasing collaboration with group works. Authentic learning environment was attractive for the students as well. Guo (2012), Güler and Büyükkarcı (2020),

Ünver (2017), Peacock (1997), Varmış-Kılıç (2011) have also observed the positive effects of authentic materials on students' interest and ability in learning English.

With reference to the results of this study, some implications can be summarized as follows. First, teachers are of paramount importance in terms of adapting the materials and bridging the gap between the centralized content and students' sociocultural background. Therefore, it seems sound to say that they should be prepared to meet the challenges of teaching in rural and remote areas and material adaptation. It would be helpful for them if they could become familiar with the challenges of the rural classrooms in their preservice education. To reduce teacher exhaustion there could be units under the MONE, working together with the teachers to guide and support the material adaptation process of in-service teachers. In-service teachers should renew their knowledge through in-service trainings about material adaptation. The content of the books should be evaluated regularly and revised by the experts working in collaboration with teachers teaching in rural areas. Furthermore, building a reliable feedback system among the practitioner teachers, authors, program developers at MONE could be helpful to identify the deficits in teaching at rural regions of the country. There are many problems that teachers face in the rural areas but identifying them is half the battle in that sense. Therefore, the need for more empirical studies and action research conducted by practitioner teachers cannot be neglected. There could be platforms where teachers can share their experiences, effective strategies they used, adapted materials, and so on.

For future research, succeeding studies could be conducted for different levels, with different books and in different parts of the country, so different factors affecting rural education could be handled. Moreover, quasi-experimental or experimental research designs could be employed in that integrating different design types can describe different aspects of the context. Quality instruments that capture students' and teachers' perceptions regarding the books used and regarding the effects of the studies could facilitate teaching and learning process in rural areas.

This study has several limitations. First, the students work as seasonal workers and that is why they cannot come to school until November, and they leave towards the end of April. Although five units are to be covered per semester key to the curriculum, the researcher could cover three units per semester and therefore, only five units were chosen to be adapted in total. Hence, the researcher had to start implementing the adapted lesson plans and materials two months later than it should be. Other limitation is about technology use. Nearly all the lesson plans require using the projector for visuals and videos. However, in the village, power failure occurs frequently, and the projector cannot be used. At those times, the teacher used her computer to show them the videos and students gathered around the computer screen. One another limitation is about researcher bias. Since the teacher developed the lesson plans herself and employed the student interviews, there can be bias in the data gathering procedure. To minimize the effect, the students were reminded that they were not going to gain any bonus points or being penalized for their answers. Another limitation of the current study appears as a result of nature of action research design such that the findings cannot be generalized to larger populations. According to Yıldırım and Şimşek (2016) unlike quantitative designs, qualitative research designs are deprived of generalizability but provide in-depth description of a particular situation.

References

- Acar, M. (2013). *Yerel kültüre ait öğeler içeren İngilizce metinlerinin öğrencilerin İngilizce okuma becerileri üzerinde etkisi* (Unpublished master's thesis). Ege University Institute of Social Sciences, İzmir-Turkey.
- Aksoy, N. (2008). Multigrade schooling in Turkey: an overview. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 28(2), 218-228.
- Alptekin, C., & Tatar, S. (2011). Research on foreign language teaching and learning in Turkey (2005–2009). *Language Teaching*, 44(3), 328-353.
- Alptekin, C. (1993). Target-language culture in EFL materials. *ELT journal*, 47(2), 136-143.
- Alptekin, C. (2006). Cultural familiarity in inferential and literal comprehension in L2 reading. *System*, 34(4), 494-508.
- Alptekin, M. (1984). The question of culture: EFL teaching in non-English- speaking countries. *ELT journal*, 38(1), 14-20.
- Altın, M., & Saracaloğlu, A. S. (2018). Effect of reading comprehension instruction enriched with cultural materials on English learning. *Cogent Education*, 5(1), 1475589.
- Applegate, P. J. (2008). *The qualities that differentiate high-achieving and low-achieving high-poverty rural high schools: A transformative mixed methods study*. The University of Oklahoma. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Thesis. (UMI No. 3304447).
- Aslan, F. (2013). Levels of awareness and points of view to nature for adolescents according to urban and rural areas: Case of Malatya province, Turkey. *Journal of Food, Agriculture and Environment*, 11, 795-800.
- Azano, A. (2011). The possibility of place: One teacher's use of place-based instruction for English students in a rural high school. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 26(10), 1–12.
- Babacan, H. (2007). *Education and Social Cohesion*. Cambridge University Press.
- Bakı, A., & Bütüner, S. Ö. (2009). Kırsal kesimdeki bir ilköğretim okulunda proje yürütme sürecinden yansımalar. *İlköğretim Online*, 8(1), 2-14.
- Baltacı, H. S., & Tanış, S. (2018). The place of culture in EFL Classes: Perceptions and challenges of pre-service and in-service English teachers. *International Journal of Language Education and Teaching*, 6(2), 260-272.
- Başer, Z. (2008). *First year of English teaching in a rural context: A qualitative study at an elementary school in Turkey* (Unpublished master's thesis) The Graduate School of Social Sciences. Middle East Technical University, Ankara-Turkey.
- Bayyurt, Y. (2006). Non-native English language teachers' perspective on culture in English as a Foreign Language classrooms. *Teacher Development*, 10(2), 233-247.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research In Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2014). What can "thematic analysis" offer health and wellbeing researchers? *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-Being*, 9(1), 26152.

- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2019). Reflecting on reflexive thematic analysis. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health*, 11(4), 589- 597.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. New York: Longman.
- Burns, A. (2010). *Doing action research in English language teaching: A guide for practitioners*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Clarke, V., Braun, V. and Hayfield, N. (2015). *Thematic analysis*. In: Smith, J.A., Ed., *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods*, SAGE Publications, London, 222-248.
- Check, J., & Schutt, R. K. (2011). *Research methods in education*. Sage Publications.
- Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (1999). Bridges to learning: Metaphors of teaching, learning and language. *Researching and Applying Metaphor*, 149, 176.
- Craig, D. V. (2009). *Action research essentials* (Vol. 11). John Wiley & Sons.
- Çakır, E. C. (2021). An evaluation of the "upswing English" textbook from the sociolinguistic perspective. *Pesra Uluslararası Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 7(1), 63-75.
- Çakır, İ. (2010). Yazma becerisinin kazanılması yabancı dil öğretiminde neden zordur? *Erciyes Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 1(28), 1-12.
- Çakıroğlu, E. & Çakıroğlu, J. (2003). Reflections on teacher education in Turkey. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 26(2), 253-264.
- Çelik, S., & Erbay, Ş. (2013). Cultural perspectives of Turkish ELT coursebooks: Do standardized teaching texts incorporate intercultural features?. *Education & Science*, 38(167). 336-351.
- Çiftçi, Ş. K. & Cin, F. M. (2017). What Matters for Rural Teachers and Communities? Educational Challenges in Rural Turkey. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*. 48(5). 686-701. Retrieved from in 30.05.2020 <https://doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2017.1340150>.
- Efron, S. E., & Ravid, R. (2019). *Action research in education: A practical guide*. Guilford Publications.
- Ertürk, H. (2013). *An EFL coursebook evaluation: Unique 6, teachers' and students' perspectives*, (Unpublished Master's thesis) Necmettin Erbakan University, Konya-Turkey.
- Duarte, S. A., & Escobar, L. A. (2008). Using adapted material and its impact on university students' motivation. *Profile Issues in Teachers Professional Development*, (9), 63-88.
- Duman, B. (2018). Self-assessments of the prospective teachers about the teaching materials they have designed. *World Journal of Education*, 8(6), 165-175.
- Dülger, O. (2016). Evaluation of EFL coursebooks taught in Turkey based on teachers' views. *Journal of Advances in English Language Teaching*, 4(1), 1-11.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lalonde, R. N. (1985). *Second Language Acquisition: A Social Psychological Perspective*. Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association, Los Angeles, CA.
- Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The qualitative report*, 8(4), 597-607.
- Gökçe, N., Kaya, E., Aktaş, S. G., & Kantar, Y. M. (2017). Regional research of classroom needs in secondary schools in Turkey. *Journal of Enterprise Resource Planning Studies*, 2017 (2017), 1-9. doi:10.5171/2017.661323.

- Guo, S. (2012). Using authentic materials for extensive reading to promote English proficiency. *English Language Teaching*, 5(8), 196-206.
- Green, A., Preston, J., & Janmaat, J. (2006). *Education, equality and social cohesion: A comparative analysis*. Springer.
- Güler, S. G., & Büyükkaracı, K. (2020). The effect of integrating authentic captioned videos on learning collocation and content comprehension in foreign language context. *i-Manager's Journal of Educational Technology*, 17(2), 30-54.
- Güvendir, E. (2017). Göreve yeni başlayan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin karşılaştıkları sorunlar. *Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, (51), 74-94.
- Hatipoğlu Ç. (2018). Kùltürler arası iletişimde hitap şekilleri: Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce kitapları bizi nereye götürür?, *6. Ulusal Yabancı Dil Eğitimi Kurultayı*, Isparta, Türkiye, 17-19.
- Huang, Y. M., Shadiev, R., Sun, A., Hwang, W. Y., & Liu, T. Y. (2017). A study of the cognitive diffusion model: facilitating students' high level cognitive processes with authentic support. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 65(3), 505-531.
- Hyde, M. (1994). The teaching of English in Morocco: The place of culture, *ELT Journal*, (48)4, 295-305.
- Işık, A. (2011). Language education and ELT materials in Turkey from the path dependence perspective. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakùltesi Dergisi*, 40(40), 256-266.
- Işık, A. (2018). Do English teaching materials foster foreign language education affectively? *Journal of Education and Learning*, 7(1), 272-280.
- İnal, B. (2006). Coursebook selection process and some of the most important criteria to be taken into consideration in foreign language teaching. *Çankaya University Journal of Arts and Sciences*, 1(5), 19-29.
- Kara, S. (2019). Pre-service teachers' coursebook evaluation and adaptation: An evaluation of 9th grade English coursebook. *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakùltesi Dergisi*, 20(2), 564-577.
- Kazazoğlu, S. (2010). İngiliz dili eğitimi bölümlerinde görev yapan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin ders kitabı kullanımına ilişkin tercihleri. *Dil Dergisi*, (148), 53-66.
- Kayaoğlu, M. N. (2011). A critical appraisal of the language textbook. *Journal of Kırşehir Education Faculty*, 12(4), 341-356.
- Kayapınar, U. (2009). Coursebook evaluation by English teachers. *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakùltesi Dergisi*, 10(1), 69-78.
- Kızılaslan, I. (2012). Teaching in rural Turkey: Pre-service teacher perspectives. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(2): 243-254.
- Kıroğlu, K. (2008). *Yeni ilköğretim programları* (1-5. Sınıflar) (2. bs.). Ankara: Pegem A.
- Koru, S. & Akesson, J. (2011). Turkey's English deficit. Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey. Retrieved from http://www.tepav.org.tr/upload/files/1324458212-1.Turkey_s_English_Deficit.pdf. on 05.01.2021.
- Kozikoğlu, İ., & Senemoğlu, N. (2018). Mesleğe yeni başlayan öğretmenlerin karşılaştıkları güçlükler: Nitel bir çözümleme. *Eğitimde Nitel Araştırmalar Dergisi - Journal of Qualitative Research in Education*, 6(3), 341-371. doi:10.14689/issn.2148-2624.1.6c3s16m.
- Kyriacou, C., & Zhu, D. (2008). Shanghai pupils' motivation towards learning English and the perceived influence of important others. *Educational Studies*, 34(2), 97-104.

- Lamb, M. (2012). A self system perspective on young adolescents' motivation to learn English in urban and rural settings. *Language learning*, 62(4), 997-1023.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, Calif: Sage.
- Mayer, R. E. (2002). Rote versus meaningful learning. *Theory into practice*, 41(4), 226-232.
- Mcdonough, J., Shaw, C. (1993). *Materials and methods in ELT: A Teacher's Guide*, Oxford: Blackwell.
- McKay, S. L. (2002). *Teaching English as an international language: Rethinking goals and perspectives*. NY: OUP, 142-146.
- Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation (3rd ed)*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Merter, S. (2006). *Development of resource material for teaching English vocabulary* (Unpublished master's thesis). Uludağ University Graduate School of Social Sciences. Bursa-Turkey.
- Miller, B.A. (1988). *Teacher preparation for rural schools*. Portland: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.
- Moll, L., Amanti, C., Neff, D. & Gonzalez, N. (1992). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. *Theory into Practice*, 31(2), 132-141.
- O'Brien, R. (1998). *An overview of the methodological approach of action research*. Retrieved from: <https://youthsextion.files.wordpress.com/2011/04/14action-research.pdf> on 02.01.2021
- Özdeş, D. (2012). *Textbook evaluation in foreign language teaching: spot on, from students' and teachers' perspectives*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Uludağ University, Bursa-Turkey.
- Öztürk, M. (2015). Vocabulary growth of the advanced EFL learner. *The Language Learning Journal*, 43(1), 94-109.
- Pardo, A., & Téllez Téllez, M. F. (2009). ELT materials: The key to fostering effective teaching and learning settings. *Profile Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, 11(2), 171-186.
- Peacock, M. (1997). The effect of authentic materials on the motivation of EFL learners. *ELT Journal*, 51(2), 144-156.
- Rathert, S., & Cabaroğlu, N. (2021). Teachers as slaves or masters to their coursebooks: An in-depth study on two English language teachers' coursebook utilization. *Language Teaching Research*, 1-26, 13621688211036239.
- Roe, J. (2008). Social inclusion: meeting the socio-emotional needs of children with vision needs. *British Journal of Visual Impairment*, 26(2), 147-158.
- Sarıgöz, I. H. (2019). ELT teacher trainees' encounters with syllabus design. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction*, 11(1), 190- 196.
- Sarpkaya, P. Y. & Dal, S. (2020). Transported education application: A case study. *Uluslararası Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 10(1), 83-118.
- Shin, J., Eslami, Z. R., & Chen, W. C. (2011). Presentation of local and international culture in current international English-language teaching textbooks. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 24(3), 253-268.

- Sikula, J. (1996). *Handbook of research on teacher education*. Macmillan Library Reference USA, Simon & Schuster Macmillan, 1633 Broadway, New York, NY 10019.
- Solhi, M., Masrı, M. S., Şahin, Ş., & Yılmaz, S.H. (2020). Evaluation of the English language coursebooks used at the Turkish public elementary schools. *Dil ve Dilbilimi Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 16(3), 1282-1308.
- Stringer, E. T. (2007). *Action research* (3rd ed.). United States of America: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Sullo, B. (2009). *The motivated student: Unlocking the enthusiasm for learning*. ASCD.
- Süzer, H. S. S. (2007). Teacher knowledge on grammar teaching: A case study. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 32(32), 255-265.
- Şimşek, M. R. (2017). Confronting culture in local and global English coursebooks: student teachers' preferences in materials adaptation. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education*, 13(2), 277-300.
- Şimşek, M. R., & DüNDAR, E. (2018). Particularized checklists in materials evaluation: Developing contextually relevant criteria for Turkish EFL classes. *Dil ve Dilbilimi Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 14(3), 154-189.
- Taneri, P. O., & Engin-Demir, C. (2011). Quality of education in rural schools: A needs assessment study (Ankara-Kalecik Sample). *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 3(1), 91-112.
- Tekir, S., & Arikan, A. (2007). An analysis of English language teaching coursebooks by Turkish writers: "Let's speak English 7" example. *International Journal of Human Sciences*, 4(2), 1-18.
- Tomlinson, B. (2012). Materials development for language learning and teaching. *Language teaching*, 45(2), 143.
- Tomlinson, B. (2016). The importance of materials development for language learning. In *Issues in materials development* (pp. 1-9). Brill.
- Toprakçı, N., & Özaydınlı, B. (2021). Textbooks in English language teaching in view of globalisation, localisation and glocalisation. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching*, 8(2), 853-883.
- Tosta, A. L. (2001). Laugh and learn: Thinking over the "funny teacher myth". *English Teaching Forum*, (39)1, 26-29.
- Ünver, M. M. (2017). The use of authentic materials with low-level learners of English. *European Journal of English Language Teaching*, 2(1), 75-92.
- Varmış Kılıç, Z. (2011). *The effect of authentic materials on 12th grade students' attitudes and motivation in EFL classes*, (Unpublished master's dissertation), Akdeniz University, Institute of Social Sciences, Antalya-Turkey.
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2016). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri* (10. Baskı). Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Yıldız, C. D. (2020). Ideal classroom setting for English language teaching through the views of English language teachers (a sample from Turkey). *English Language Teaching*, 13(3), 31-44.
- Yılmaz, E., & İzgar, H. (2009). Examination of primary school teachers' job satisfaction with regards to organizational creativity within a school context. *Elementary Education Online*, 8(3), 943-951.



TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Kırsal Öğrenciler Arasında İngilizce Öğrenimini Teşvik Etmek İçin Ders Kitabı Etkinliklerinin Uyarlanması: Bir Eylem Araştırması

Giriş

Dil derslerindeki sosyokültürel faktörler, kırsal topluluklardaki başarıyı özetlemektedir (Miller, 1988); bu nedenle kırsal kesimdeki öğrencilerin ve toplulukların yabancı dil öğrenimine olan ilgi ve ihtiyaçlarına hitap eden yabancı dil eğitimi için çaba gösterilmesi önemlidir (Alptekin ve Tatar, 2011). Ders kitabı içeriği ile öğrencilerin kültürel geçmişi arasında bir uyumsuzluk olduğunda yalnızca merkezi materyallere güvenmek kültürel farklılıkları kucaklayamayacağından (Çakıroğlu ve Çakıroğlu, 2003; Green ve diğerleri, 2006) etkili öğretim bir sorun haline gelir (Çiftçi ve Cin, 2017). Bu nedenle İngilizce öğretmenleri ders materyallerini öğrencilerin sosyokültürel altyapılarına uyarlama ihtiyacı hissetmekte (Aksoy, 2008; Çiftçi ve Cin 2017; Kızılaslan, 2012) ve seçtikleri ekstra materyal ve görselleri kullanmayı tercih etmektedirler (Kazazoğlu, 2010).

Bu çalışma kırsal bir devlet okulunda 8. sınıflarda kullanılan İngilizce ders kitabının kültürel içeriği açısından öğrenci ve öğretmenlerin algılarını araştırmayı, gerekli materyalleri uyarlamayı, öğretmenin ve öğrencilerin yeniden tasarlanan materyallere ilişkin görüşlerini ortaya koymayı amaçlamıştır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda çalışmanın araştırma soruları aşağıdaki şekilde belirlenmiştir:

1. Sosyoekonomik olarak yoksun bir kırsal alandaki öğrenciler ve İngilizce öğretmenleri, İngilizce ders kitaplarının içeriğini ve etkinliklerini sosyal ve kültürel geçmişleri açısından nasıl algılamakta ve yorumlamaktadır?
2. Uyarlanan materyaller ne ölçüde anlamlı öğrenme imkanları sağlamıştır?

Yöntem

Bu nitel eylem araştırması çalışması, sosyoekonomik açıdan yoksun bir bölgede kırsal bir okulda, 50-67 sekizinci sınıf öğrencisi ve iki İngilizce öğretmeni ile yürütülmüştür. Veriler öğretmen araştırmacı notları, tüm sınıf tartışmaları, öğretmen araştırmacı yansıtıcı notlar, öğrenci dönüt formları, öğrenciler ve öğretmenler ile yapılan yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmeler ile toplanmıştır. Verileri analiz etmek için yansıtıcı tematik analiz kullanılmıştır.

Bulgular

Öğretmenlerle yapılan görüşmelerden elde edilen veriler bölgesel zorluklar, sosyokültürel uyumsuzluğun etkisi ve mesleki talepler temaları altında temsil edilmiştir. Öğretmenler, ders

kitabı içeriği ile öğrenciler arasındaki sosyokültürel uyumsuzluğun temelini bölgesel koşullardan kaynaklandığını belirtmişlerdir. Bölgedeki teknolojik yetersizlikler, köylerin altyapı koşulları, öğrencilerin hazırbulunuşluk düzeyleri öğretim sürecini etkilemektedir. Öğretmenler ayrıca bu bölgedeki öğrenme ortamının öğrencilerin tutumları üzerindeki etkisini vurgulamışlardır. Öğrencilerin derslere çok hevesli olmadıklarını ve çoğu İngilizce bilgisi gerektiren meslekleri icra etmeyeceklerine inandıklarından, gelecekteki kariyerleri için İngilizceyi önemli görmediklerini belirtmişlerdir. Öğretmenler kırsal kesimdeki öğrencilerin sosyokültürel geçmişleri ile İngilizce ders kitaplarındaki kültürel etkinlikler arasında kültürel bir uyumsuzluk olduğunu düşünmektedir ve ders kitabında yer alan kavramların birçoğunu öğrencilerin ana dillerinde de bilmedikleri belirtmişlerdir. Bu kültürel uyumsuzluğun İngilizce öğrenmeyi zorlaştırdığını, çünkü öğrencilerin yabancı oldukları ve zihinlerinde soyut kalan kavramları anlamakta zorlandıklarını açıklamışlardır. Öğrenciler köyde görmedikleri etkinlikleri farklı, anlamsız ya da saçma bulmakta ve kavramları ya da kelimeleri öğrenmeye direnç göstermektedirler. Öğretmenler bu durumun iş yüklerinin arttığını ifade etmişlerdir.

Öğrenci görüşmelerinde ise temalar ders içeriği ile ilgili algılar ve kültürel algılar olarak belirlenmiştir. Öğrencilerin tamamına yakını kelimelerin kendileri için zor olduğunu ve bu durumun öğrenmelerini olumsuz etkilediğini belirtmiştir. Ayrıca öğrenciler kitapta verilen görsellerin kavramları anlamak için yeterli olmadığını ve özellikle yabancı kavramları anlamak için bazen daha fazla görsele ihtiyaç duyduklarını belirtmişlerdir. Öğrenciler genel olarak kültürel içeriğin kendilerine yabancı olduğunu belirtmişlerdir.

Öğretmen araştırmacının verilerinin analizi geliştirilen materyallerin öğrencilerin kırsal alanda daha önce görmedikleri kavramlara ilişkin bilgi edinmelerini ve önceki şemaları arasında yeni anlamsal bağlantılar kurmalarını sağladığına işaret etmektedir. Öğrencilerin yaşamları ile ders konusu arasında bağlantı kurdukça öğrencilerin konuyu öğrenmeye daha istekli oldukları gözlemlenmiştir. Ayrıca uyarlanan etkinliklerin öğrencilerin ezbere dayalı bilgiler yerine yabancı kavramları anlamlı bir şekilde öğrenmelerine yardımcı olduğunu gösterir. Öğretmen notlarından ve sınıf tartışmalarından sonra öğretmenin yazdığı yansıtıcı yazılardan elde edilen verilere göre, uyarlanan materyallerin otantik öğrenmeye katkı sağladığı görülmüştür.

Öğrenci verilerinin analizine dayanarak öğrencilerin uyarlanan etkinliklerden genel olarak memnun oldukları söylenebilir. Ayrıca uyarlanan etkinliklerde kullanılan görselleri beğendiklerini ve görsellerin öğrenmelerini kolaylaştırdığını belirtmişlerdir.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Kırsal alanların sosyokültürel/sosyoekonomik yoksunlukları, öğrencilerin hazırbulunuşluk düzeylerinin düşük olması ve teknolojik sınırlılıklar gibi çeşitli faktörlerin sınırlayıcı etkisi hakkındadır (Aksoy, 2008; Çakıroğlu ve Çakıroğlu, 2003; Çiftçi ve Cin, 2017; Kızılaslan, 2012; Yıldız, 2020). Köy okullarındaki bu kısıtlı imkanlar kaliteli eğitimi ve öğrencilerin akademik başarılarını olumsuz etkilemektedir (Aksoy, 2008). Öğrenciler ön koşul bilgilerinden yoksun oldukları için kelime ve dil bilgisi etkinliklerini kendi seviyelerine göre daha zor bulmuştur; ancak üniteler önceki yıllara ait söz varlığı öğelerini ve dilbilgisi yapılarını kapsamaktadır. Öğretmenler ayrıca öğrencilerin sosyokültürel geçmişleri ile kitap etkinliklerinin içeriği arasında bölgesel koşullardan kaynaklanan bazı sosyokültürel farklılıklar olduğuna inanmaktadırlar. Bazen merkezi eğitim sistemleri bir ülkenin coğrafi özelliklerine bağlı olarak değişen farklı yaşam tarzlarını ve sosyokültürel altyapıları tam yansıtamamaktadır (Aslan, 2013; Babacan,


2007), öğrencilerin yaşamları ile ders kitabı içeriği arasında sosyokültürel bir uyumsuzluk olmaktadır (Kızılaslan, 2012).


Öğrencilerin yeterlilik düzeylerini, sosyokültürel geçmişlerini ve ilgi alanlarını göz önünde bulundurarak geliştirilen ders materyalleri öğrencilerin derse olan ilgilerini artırmış, dil girdilerini içselleştirmelerine katkı sağlamıştır. Bu bulgu alanyazında yapılan diğer çalışmalar ile benzerlik göstermektedir (Altın ve Saracaloğlu, 2018; Duarte ve Escobar, 2008; Roe, 2008). Bu anlamda öğretim sürecinde tanındık içeriklerin, yerel kültür unsurlarının kullanılması öğrenci motivasyonlarını ve akademik başarıyı artırabilir (Alptekin, 1993/2006; Gardner, 1985; Huang ve diğerleri, 2017; McKay, 2002).


Öğretmenler, materyalleri uyarlamak ve merkezi içerik ile öğrencilerin sosyokültürel altyapıları arasındaki boşluğu kapatmak açısından büyük önem taşımaktadır. Bu nedenle kırsal ve uzak bölgelerde öğretmenlik yapmanın ve materyal uyarlamanın zorluklarını karşılamaya hazırlıklı olmaları gerektiğini söyleyebiliriz. Öğretmenliğe başlamadan önce, öğretmen eğitimi sırasında kırsal sınıfların zorluklarına aşina olmaları da onlar için faydalı olacaktır. Öğretmen tükenmişliğini ve yıpranmasını azaltmak için MEB bünyesinde hizmet içi öğretmenlerin materyal uyarlama süreçlerine rehberlik edecek ve destek verecek öğretmenlerle birlikte çalışan birimler oluşturulabilir. Hizmet içi öğretmenler materyal uyarlama konusunda hizmet içi eğitimlerle güncel tutulmalıdır. Kitapların içeriği, kırsal kesimde öğretmenlik yapan öğretmenlerle iş birliği içinde çalışan uzmanlar tarafından düzenli olarak değerlendirilmeli ve gözden geçirilmelidir. Ayrıca, MEB'deki uygulayıcı öğretmenler, yazarlar ve program geliştiriciler arasında bir geri bildirim sistemi oluşturmak, ülkenin kırsal kesimlerinde öğretimdeki eksikliklerin belirlenmesine yardımcı olabilir. Öğretmenlerin kırsal alanlarda karşılaştıkları pek çok sorun vardır, ancak bunları belirlemek savaşın yarısıdır, bu anlamda araştırmacı öğretmenler tarafından yürütülen daha fazla deneysel çalışma ve eylem araştırmasına duyulan ihtiyaç göz ardı edilemez. Öğretmenlerin deneyimlerini, kullandıkları etkili stratejileri, uyarlanmış materyalleri paylaşabilecekleri platformların kurulması etkili bir uygulama olabilir.

Yapılabilecek yeni araştırmalar ile benzer bir çalışma farklı seviyelerde, farklı kitaplarla ve ülkenin farklı yerlerinde tekrarlanabilir. Kırsal eğitimi etkileyen farklı faktörler incelenebilir. Ayrıca, yarı deneysel/deneysel araştırma tasarımları kullanılabilir. Farklı paydaşları içeren örneklem büyüklüğü artırılmış müdahale çalışmalarına da ihtiyaç duyulduğu düşünülmektedir.

Perceptions of Early Childhood Preservice Teachers on Early Childhood Education Undergraduate Program Courses

Arif Yılmaz, Hacettepe University, arif@hacettepe.edu.tr,  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5106-7721>

Nevra Atış Akyol, Sivas Cumhuriyet University, naakyol@cumhuriyet.edu.tr,  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4697-847X>

Şifa Kevser Çakmak, Hacettepe University, sifa.k.c@hacettepe.edu.tr,  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1500-965X>

Esra Tuğba Çoban Söylemez, Hacettepe University, esratuba@hacettepe.edu.tr,  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6548-4320>

Keywords

Early childhood
Undergraduate program
Preservice teachers
General culture courses
Pedagogical knowledge courses
Content knowledge courses

Article Info:

Received : 08-09-2021
Accepted : 05-04-2022
Published : 18-06-2022

DOI: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.003

Abstract

The purpose of the study was to find out the contribution of general culture (GC), pedagogical knowledge (PK), and content knowledge (CK) courses to the professional development of preservice teachers in early childhood education programs. As a part of a mix-method research study, this survey uses a rank-order judgment methodology. Using a two-stage-cluster and random sampling - 432 students from 35 universities participated in the study during the 2018-2019 academic year. Data were gathered using an "Early Childhood Education Undergraduate Program Course Evaluation Form" and analyzed using pairwise comparison. With reference to the results, "Effective Communication" was chosen as the most beneficial one among the GC courses, and "Statistics" was selected as the least beneficial course. In addition, among the PK courses, "Teaching Practice I" was the most beneficial one, and "Assessment and Evaluation" was the least helpful course related to student perceptions. While the "Introduction to Early Childhood Education" course was the most beneficial course among the CK, "Research Project II" was listed as the least beneficial course. It was found that students' opinions about courses did not change concerning their gender, academic achievement, and the type of high school they had attended.

To cite this article: Yılmaz, A., Atış Akyol, N., Kevser Çakmak, Ş., & Çoban Söylemez, E. T. (2022). Perceptions of early childhood preservice teachers on early childhood education

Introduction

Economic issues such as the effective use of the available resources of countries and the creation of new resources are directly related to the quality of human resources. Increasing the quality of human resources is only possible with quality education (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2017; 2019). Therefore, education contributes not only to the development of individuals but also to the development of societies. Teacher training is a process that has been worked on since the existence of formal education systems and is shaped by different perspectives in different periods in line with the political, economic, and social expectations of countries. Similarly, until today, teacher training in Turkey has been shaped by different institutions and introduced in different formats considering society's needs after the Republic's proclamation.

Since the key to quality education is the teacher, teacher training programs should be carefully and thoroughly considered. The previous literature has shown that teacher training program quality is directly related to teacher quality (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2006), and teacher education programs have a profound impact on preservice teachers' learning, as well as the learning of children in schools from kindergarten to high school (Diez, 2010). Teacher knowledge and teaching expertise acquired in these programs have a good potential of impacting students' learning at all levels. With the understanding of the importance of teachers' roles in the quality of education (OECD, 2011; World Bank, 2011), efforts to increase their quality have gained momentum in Turkey, as well as in the rest of the world (Borko, 2004; İlğan, 2013; Lasley, Siedentop, & Yinger, 2006; Ministry of National Education [MoNE], 2017; OECD, 2005). The importance of teacher quality, as one of the critical tenets of quality education, is not limited to the quality of educational outcomes. Teachers also play a crucial role in helping children overcome poverty, lack of parental support, integration into school, and other obstacles they may face (Havik & Westergård, 2020). In other words, reaching educational reforms' goals can be fulfilled by having high-quality teachers in the workforce (Loeb, Rouse, & Shorris, 2007).

Another crucial dimension of a quality teacher program is its structure. Research points to the importance of combining theory and practice to complement each other and structuring both domains in a balanced way (Beck, Kosnik, & Rowsell, 2007; Nahal, 2010). Similarly, Darling-Hammond (2006) describes some of the standard features of quality teacher education programs. All coursework and clinical experiences should create a coherent learning experience, and coursework and clinical work should be guided and evaluated by well-defined frameworks or standards. Moreover, Yıldırım (2011) suggests that teacher education programs should contain both content and pedagogy, support practice with theory, and be able to establish effective collaboration with schools.

Since 1998, Turkey has used centralized teacher education programs in all education fields and levels—with some minor variance. Later, in 2006 and 2018, the Higher Education Council (HEC) revised and updated these programs. In this regard, as a part of this centralized structure, the early childhood education undergraduate program was revised and updated in 2006 and 2018, and 2013.

The Past and the Present of Early Childhood Pre-Service Teacher Education Programs in Turkey

In Turkey, early childhood teacher training is a new field in terms of high school, secondary school, and primary school levels; teacher training for early childhood levels was first discussed at the 10th National Education Council on 23-26 June 1981 (MoNE, 1981). At this meeting, some of the decisions agreed upon included the improvement of the access to early childhood education, development of an early childhood education curriculum, preparation of handbooks, organization of in-service training for early childhood teachers, and evaluation of teacher training resources. At the 12th National Education Council (18-22 June 1988), it was decided that early childhood education in higher education programs (pre-school and kindergarten) should continue to provide education for two years (MoNE, 1988). At the 14th National Education Council, committees and subcommittees were established to determine the definition, scope, importance, dissemination, material supply, and teacher training of early childhood education; it was also decided that universities initiate program development studies for training early childhood pre-service teachers and start opening practice schools within their premises (MoNE, 1993). In 1997, departments and programs for early childhood pre-service teachers were extended to a 4-year education period for the first time within the scope of the general restructuring of the HEC, and early childhood education departments were subsequently established (HEC Executive Board Decision Dated 04 November 1997, Number 97.39.2761).

The first early childhood education undergraduate program was introduced in 1998. In order to graduate from this initial program, 146 credits, 51 courses, and a total of 120 hours of theory and 58 hours of practical courses had to be completed. In addition, the program included practice courses in the 2nd, 6th, and 7th semesters, and the teaching practice course was included in the 8th semester (HEC, 1998a; 1998b). After restructuring teacher undergraduate programs in 2006, early childhood education was included in the department of primary education, and the undergraduate program of 1998 was updated. This program included courses that fell under three main categories: general knowledge (GC), pedagogical knowledge (PK), and content knowledge (CK). This course categorization has been preserved in all programs until today. The updated program of 1998 included 57 courses: 127 hours of theoretical courses and 48 hours of practical courses had to be taken to graduate with 151 credits. Practice courses were limited to one semester (5th semester), and teaching practice courses were offered in 2 semesters at the 7th and the 8th semesters (HEC, 2006). In 2013, the undergraduate program was revised within the scope of the Strengthening Pre-School Education Project. In this program, 61 courses were included, and, for 163 national credits, 139 hours of theory and 49 hours of practical courses had to be completed. The practice course was included in the 6th semester, but there was no change regarding teaching practice courses in the 7th and 8th semesters. As a result of the 2018 program update, the early childhood education undergraduate program was updated with all other pre-service teacher education programs (HEC, 2018). There were 59 courses in the updated program. With reference to the program structure, pre-service teachers were able to graduate by earning 141 national credits in return to complete 134 hours of theoretical courses and 14 hours of practical courses. The teaching practice courses remained the same, but the school experience course was removed from the program (HEC, 2006; 2018). Figure 1 shows the distribution of the course hours by area across four early childhood education undergraduate programs in Turkey.

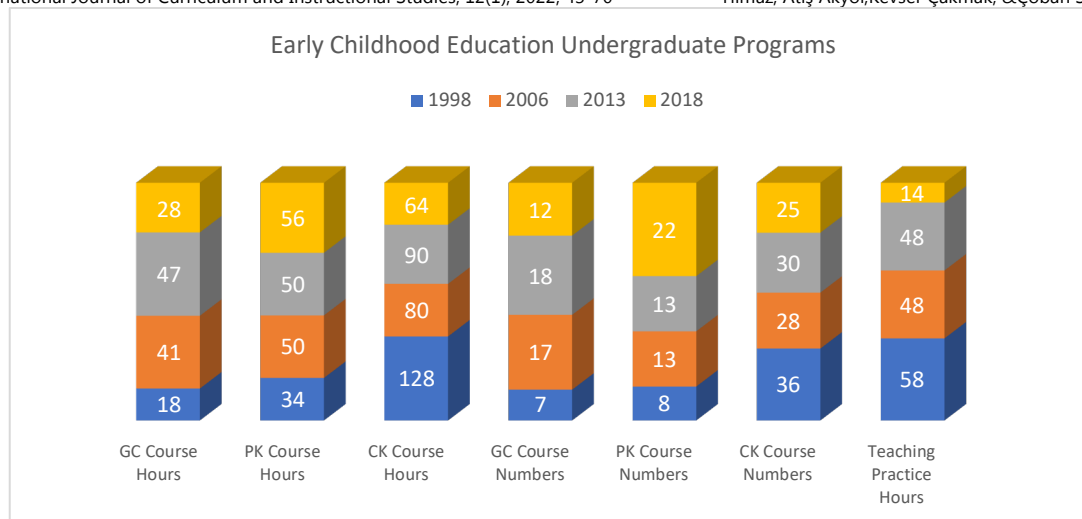


Figure 1. *The Comparison of the Course Hours at Four Early Childhood Education Undergraduate Programs*

It is evident that there has been a steady decrease in practice hours (from 58 hours to 14 hours) in early childhood education undergraduate programs over the years. Similarly, the hours and number of CK course hours decreased to the minimum in the 2018 program, while the number and hours of PK courses increased. This trend shows that the balance between theory and practice (Nahal, 2010) and content and pedagogy (Yıldırım, 2011) have diminished over the years. Considering that the changes in the number and hours of the GC/PK/CK courses and practice course hours affect the quality of education in teacher training programs, we believe that learning the opinions and needs of preservice teachers will be helpful to guide new program changes.

Teacher training programs need to undergo constant change to effectively address the needs of a changing society and be evaluated to understand whether they produce high-quality teachers. In the literature, stakeholder opinions are considered critical components in curriculum development studies (Akpınar, 2012; Brooker & Macdonald, 1999; Demirel, 2007). On the other hand, it is stated that there are disruptions in ensuring stakeholder participation in the curriculum development process in countries with a central education system like Turkey (Evin-Gencil, 2017). Another critique is that sufficient information is not shared about the opinions collected from the stakeholders in previous curriculum development studies in Turkey (Çobanoğlu & Yıldırım, 2021). The HEC (2018) acknowledged that stakeholder opinions were received during the 2018 undergraduate program revision process, but there was no methodological explanation in the program document. The present study sheds light on student perceptions to fill this gap, students being one of the key stakeholders in the curriculum development process.

Teachers' personal characteristics such as age, gender, academic achievement, and socioeconomic status constitute a different dimension of teacher quality. The literature argues that there is a relationship between teachers' demographic data and their attitudes towards the teaching profession. Tannen (2001) stated that males and females have different ways of communicating during teaching and learning. Some studies have shown that males are more talented than females in learning mathematics and science (Spelke, 2005), and gender is a debatable issue regarding math and science (Navarro, Martin, & Gomez-Arizaga, 2022). The level of professional dedication of teachers is in favor of women in some studies (Apak, 2009),

while it does not differ by gender in other studies (Kozikoğlu Özcanlı, 2020; Turhan, Demirli, & Nazik, 2012).

Significance of the Study

In Turkey, early childhood education teachers are trained through a 4-year undergraduate education program within faculties of education, similar to what is found in other teaching fields. It is essential to evaluate the effectiveness of an early childhood education undergraduate program from the perspective of preservice teachers who are taking the courses to determine the weaknesses and strengths of these programs. Regarding early childhood education undergraduate programs, the following studies can be found in the literature: studies about the views on teaching practice and the problems encountered during teaching practices (e.g., Demir & Çamlı, 2011; Duman, 2016; Karaca & Aral, 2011; Karasu-Avcı & Ünal-İbret, 2016; Ramazan & Yılmaz, 2017; Seçer, Çeliköz, & Kayılı, 2010; Yıldırım, Özyılmaz-Akamca, Ellez, Karabekmez, & Bulut-Üner, 2019; Yıldız, Ulutaş, & Demiriz, 2018); studies on specific courses such as mathematics (e.g., Dağlıoğlu, 2017; İnan, 2014), science education (e.g., Olgan, Güner, & Öztekin, 2014; Vural-Ekinci & Hamurcu, 2008), educational philosophy (e.g., Metin-Aslan, 2014), music (e.g., Müezzinoğlu & Mirillo, 2017; Özgül, 2017), and studies on curriculums in general (e.g., Dereobalı & Ünver, 2009; Ramazan & Tunçeli, 2016; Şahin, Kartal, & İmamoğlu, 2013; Tican Başaran & Aykaç, 2020).

Some studies still present a need for further research about students' views on teacher training programs. For instance, Parylo, Süngü, and Ilgan (2015) noted that more research is required regarding the impact of university courses on preservice teachers' attitudes toward the teaching profession. Yıldırım (2011) argued that research on teacher education is limited and that there is a need for comprehensive studies in this area to guide the reconstruction of teacher training programs. In the present study, unlike many previous studies, the data were not collected from one teacher training program; rather, 35 early childhood teacher training programs in Turkey were involved in the data collection process. Moreover, at the time of the data collection, a new early childhood education undergraduate program was introduced by the HEC (2018), and it was put into action in Fall 2018. However, the participants in this study, fourth-grade preservice teachers, took courses in programs offered in 2006/2013. Therefore, the current study provides a good opportunity to evaluate whether the concerns of preservice teachers who underwent the old program courses had been addressed in the more recent 2018 program structure. In addition, the results are likely to be helpful for early childhood undergraduate departments that will update their programs after the HEC's authority transfer in 2020 to universities (HEC, 2020). Finally, most of the studies mentioned above are qualitative and do not allow for generalizations. Existing quantitative studies often examine students' opinions from a single university or from two to three schools. In this study, however, nationwide representative data were obtained and analyzed. Yazçayır and Yıldırım (2021) stressed that GC and CK courses should be analyzed comparatively. In this regard, courses in the early childhood education undergraduate program were analyzed as a whole and listed in order of importance within their groups. There was also an attempt to reveal the opinions of preservice teachers objectively. To address this, the following questions were asked and answered:

1. How do early childhood preservice teachers perceive the importance of GC, PK, and CK courses for their professional development?

2. Do the preservice teachers' perceptions regarding the importance of GC, PK, and CK courses vary by gender, academic achievement, and type of high school?

Method

This survey study is a part of mixed-method research. Survey studies are helpful to obtain the opinions of participants about a problem/issue or their knowledge, abilities, and attitudes (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). In this study, fourth-year preservice teachers' opinions about the usefulness of the courses they took were obtained. In the study, the scaling methodology, based on rank-order judgments, was used to obtain the decision-maker's decisions. For scaling based on ordering judgments, the situation or feature to be measured is ranked from the highest to lowest or lowest to highest in reference to a predetermined feature (Turgut & Baykul, 1992). In this method, the observers performing the ordering consider the situation or feature as a whole, compare each situation and feature with others, and provide a numbered rank. In this way, the situation or feature is converted into a composite standard against which each situation or feature is compared. Scaling values are obtained by comparing the numbers given to each situation or feature with this composite standard (Turgut & Baykul, 1992).

Sample

The population of this research consists of 4,846 fourth-grade preservice teachers studying early childhood education at public universities in Turkey during the 2018-2019 academic year. A two-stage random sampling strategy was employed. In the first stage, a cluster random sampling method was used as the sampling method. In the cluster random sampling method, groups rather than individuals are randomly selected; this is convenient when random selection of individuals is not feasible (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). In this regard, 35 universities were randomly selected as clusters from 56 state universities with early childhood education undergraduate programs from 12 regions according to the Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (NUTS) I of TURKSTAT. Since the observation unit was preservice teachers, in the second stage, a random sampling method was used to reach the fourth-grade preservice teachers. The data gathering tools were delivered in electronic form and class environment to the 4th-grade preservice teachers with the help of their heads of department. Feedback was provided from 858 of 2,529 preservice teachers studying in the 35 universities (33.9% response rate); however, 432 (17% response rate overall) were used for data analysis after a data cleaning process. Almost half of the data were not used due to missing data or because the data extracted were not from 4th-grade preservice teachers. Table 1 shows the demographical data of these preservice teachers whose data was used.

Table 1. *Demographical Data of Participants*

		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Gender	Male	54	12.5
	Female	378	87.5
Academic Achievement	High (3.00 and above)	303	70.14
	Low (2.99 and below)	129	29.86
High School Type	General High School	284	65.74
	Vocational High School	148	34.26
Total		432	100

Early childhood education is a field of teaching in which females are more significant in number, and 87.5% of the participants in this study are female pre-service teachers. In general, the academic achievement of the participants is high. In terms of the high school type, most of the participants were high school graduates. The participating pre-service teachers' average age was 22 years and three months. Figure 2 shows the distribution of the 432 pre-service teachers by universities.

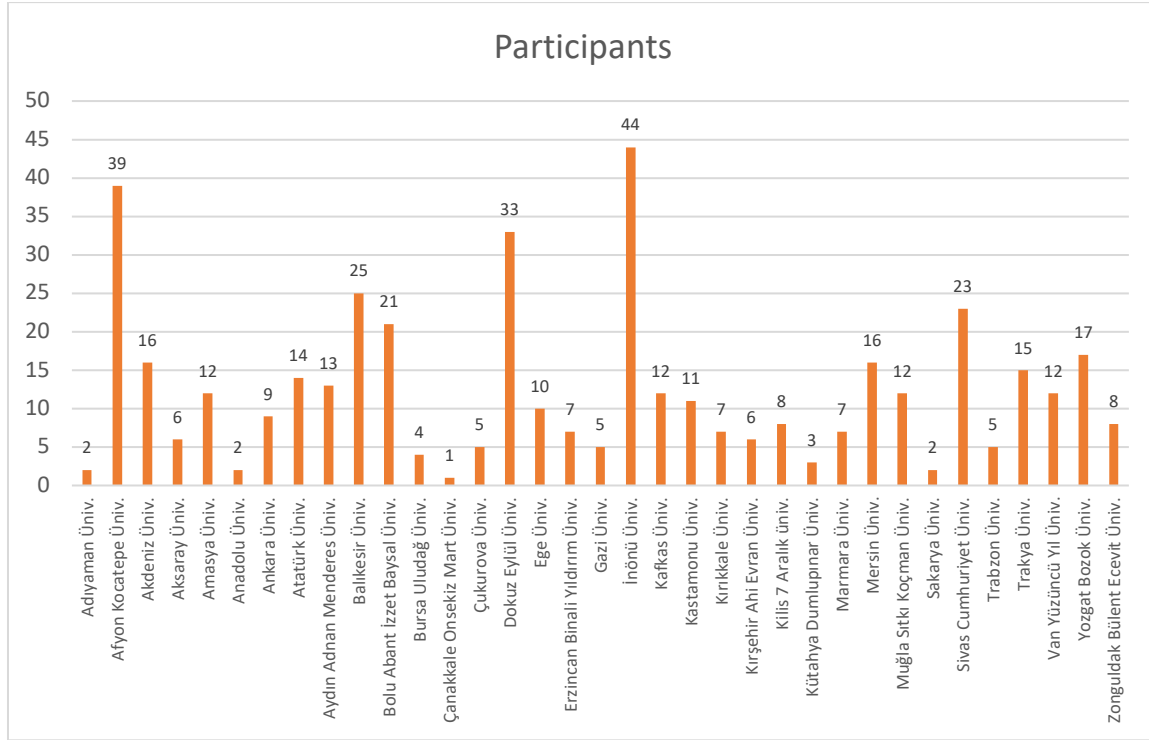


Figure 2. *Distribution of the Sample by Universities*

The participants mostly attended İnönü University, Afyon Kocatepe University, and Dokuz Eylül University, while the participation rate was the lowest for Çanakkale 18 Mart University, Adıyaman University, Anadolu University, and Sakarya University in the study. Seventy-four out of 432 preservice teachers studied in 9 universities that opened after 2000, while the rest of the preservice teachers were studying in universities that opened earlier.

Data Collection Tool

The Early Childhood Education Undergraduate Program Course Evaluation Form, developed by the researchers, was used as the data collection tool. The form consists of 20 questions in total: 8 questions on demographical characteristics, three questions on the ordering/ranking of GC, PK, and CK courses (including all the courses in the program), 4 questions about the specification of some features (e.g., a course should be in the program or a course should be removed from the program) about the courses, and five open-ended questions allowing participants to write their reasons. The form was sent to 5 experts who have doctoral degrees in early childhood education to gather their opinions on content validity. According to the views of the experts, no changes were made in the course ranking section. Still, additions were made to the demographic information section, and terminology changes were made to the open-ended questions. Afterward, the data collection process was initiated.

Data Collection Process

Ethics Committee approval was obtained on April 17, 2018, with decision No. 973 from the university affiliated with the researchers. However, the data collection was carried out between April-June 2019 due to issues related to the online data gathering tool. In the process, an online link was sent by e-mail to the heads of the early childhood education departments. In addition, a printed data gathering form was sent to 2 universities upon their request. Preservice teachers were asked to rank their favorite courses among GC, PK, and CK courses separately, starting from the 1st rank. In addition, the open-ended questions were obtained but not used in the current study.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using the scaling method based on rank-order judgments. In the analysis, the pairwise comparison method was used in full order, and the calculations were made over the fifth situation equation, the third situation equation, and the full data matrix. In the first stage of the analysis, the rank frequencies matrix, which shows how many times the courses given under three different groups were placed by the preservice teachers, was created separately. The $n(S_{ji} > S_{ki})$ frequencies matrix was calculated with the help of the $n(S_{ji} > S_{ki}) = f_{ji} \cdot (f_{ki} < i + 1/2 \cdot f_{ki})$ equation for each rank frequency in the Ordinal Frequencies matrix (Turgut & Baykul, 1992). These matrices were then divided by the column sums for each frequency matrix by $N/2 = 432$, and by substituting the relevant elements of the matrix, the ratio matrix (P Matrix) was then obtained. Following this, the z values in the unit normal distribution corresponding to each element in the ratio matrix were collected, and the unit normal deviations matrix (z_{jk}) was found. In the bottom row of the unit deviation matrix, the values of each column were summed up, and the mean of each z value in this column across the columns was calculated to obtain the scale values (S_j) of each course. The minimum scale value is added to all scale values to make the minimum scale value equal to zero. As a result, all scale values (S_c) are reduced to an equally ranged linear dimension with a starting point of zero (Kara & Gelbal, 2013). The scale values of three courses for each independent variable category (gender, academic achievement, and high school type) were calculated separately.

Before interpreting the scaling findings, it is necessary to calculate whether they meet assumptions and internal consistency (Turgut & Baykul, 1992). Therefore, the error value was calculated, and its significance was tested with chi-square statistics. As a result of the analysis, the average error value was calculated as 0.00611 for GC courses, 0.01663 for PK courses, and 0.04663 for CK courses. The chi-square value calculated for the average error value was calculated as $[\chi^2(df=28, n=432) = 4.396, p < .05]$ and the table value $[\chi^2(df=28, n=432) = 41.337, p < .05]$ for GC courses; as $[\chi^2(df=55, n=432) = 67.835, p < .05]$ the table value $[\chi^2(df=55, n=432) = 73.311, p < .05]$ for PK courses; as $[\chi^2(df=253, n=432) = 1686.559, p < .05]$ and the table value was $[\chi^2(df=253, n=432) = 291.101, p < .05]$ for CK courses. It was observed that the calculated chi-square value did not exceed the table value for the GC and PK courses for the 0.05 significance level and 28 and 55 degrees of freedom. However, it was also observed that the calculated chi-square value for the CK courses exceeded the table value for 253 degrees of freedom. According to these findings, the data, which is the basis for scaling, meet the assumptions of the 5th situation for the GC and PK courses. For the CK courses, scaling was made using the 3rd situation equation. These findings showed that internal consistency was achieved, and assumptions were met; they also validated the suitability of the scaling process.

After internal consistency was tested, scaling was first performed for the observers in the entire study group to cover each course cluster; then, by carrying out separate procedures for the independent variables of gender, academic achievement, and school type, scale values were calculated for each course cluster as well. The scale values are shown in tables and figures on an evenly ranged scale, allowing for the visual comparison of the significance levels of the features. In addition, the Spearman Rank Differences Correlation Coefficient was calculated to determine whether the courses differed in their ranking according to the scale values of courses based on the independent variables.

Results

In this part of the study, the course rankings of the fourth-grade preservice teachers enrolled in early childhood education programs during the 2018-2019 academic year are presented under the first subheading, followed by findings on whether these rankings differ by gender, academic achievement, and type of high school graduated from under the second subheading.

Perceptions of Early Childhood Preservice Teachers Regarding the Importance of GC, PK, and CK Courses for Their Professional Development.

The data linked to the 432 preservice teachers, who ranked the courses in terms of their significance, were scaled in full order with the pairwise comparisons method. Table 2 and Figure 3 show the findings of each course's scale value and order of significance according to the rank ordering requested from the preservice teachers.

Table 2. *Scale Values Based on Ranking Judgments on GC Courses*

<i>Courses</i>	<i>S_j</i>	<i>S_c</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Computers I	0.042	0.421	5
Computers II	-0.184	0.196	8
Educational Philosophy	0.119	0.499	3
Educational Sociology	0.120	0.500	2
Turkish Education History	-0.062	0.318	6
Statistics	-0.380	0.000	9
Effective Communication	0.397	0.777	1
Research Methods	-0.112	0.268	7
Community Service	0.060	0.440	4

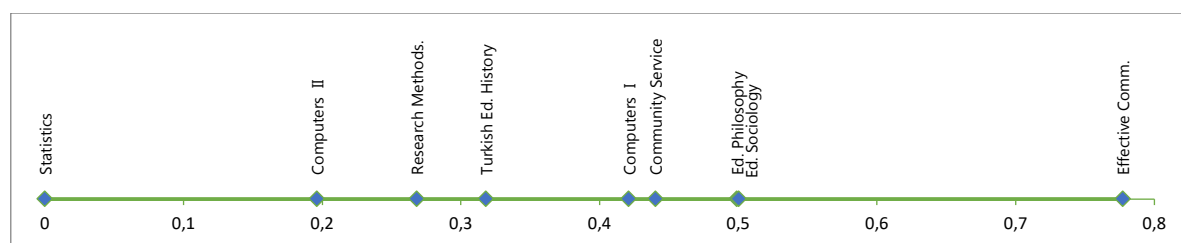


Figure 3. *Representation of Ranking Judgments Scale Values of GC Courses on a Range Scale*

Table 2 shows the courses in the order of the semester, and the last column shows the ranking of GC courses based on preservice teachers' perceptions of usefulness for their professional development. Figure 3, on the other hand, shows the order of the courses on an evenly ranged scale, and Effective Communication was found to be the most beneficial GC course by all preservice teachers by far. However, the Statistics course was considered the least helpful lesson by far. The remaining seven courses were close to each other on an evenly

ranked scale; the Educational Sociology and Educational Philosophy courses were the nearest courses to Effective Communication in terms of rank. The Computers II and Research Methods courses took 2nd and 3rd place after the Statistics course among the courses considered the least beneficial.

Table 3 and Figure 4 show the findings related to scale value and significance order for each PK course.

Table 3. *Scale Values Based on Ranking Judgments on PK Courses*

<i>Courses</i>	<i>S_j</i>	<i>S_c</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Introduction to Educational Sciences	-0.015	0.607	8
Educational Psychology	0.119	0.740	5
Teaching Principles and Methods	0.156	0.778	4
Instructional Technologies and Material Design	-0.115	0.507	9
Classroom Management	0.020	0.642	6
Special Teaching Methods	0.018	0.640	7
School Experience	0.328	0.950	2
Special Education	-0.278	0.343	10
Assessment and Evaluation	-0.622	0.000	12
Guidance	-0.373	0.249	11
Teaching Practice I	0.453	1.075	1
Teaching Practice II	0.308	0.930	3

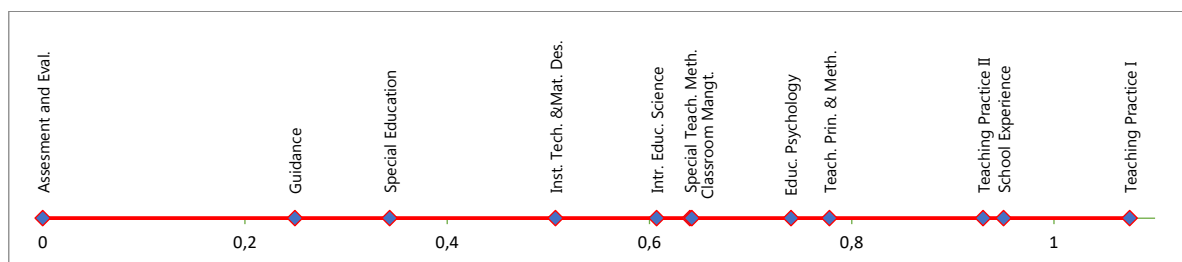


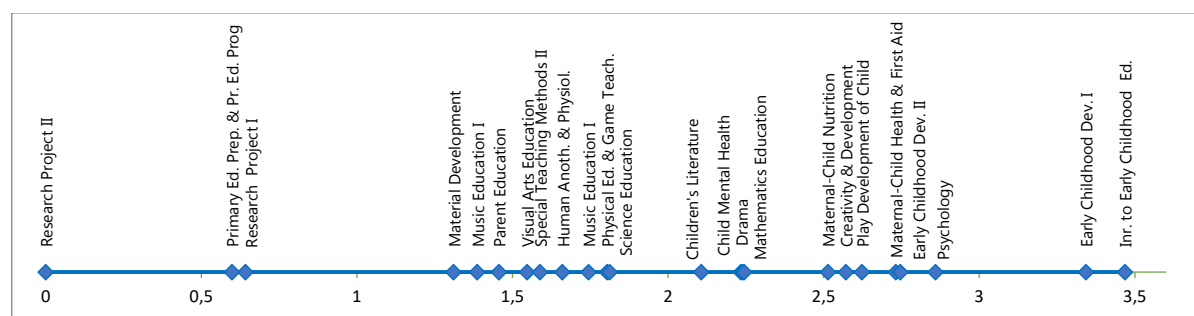
Figure 4. *Representation of Ranking Judgments Scale Values of GC Courses on a Range Scale*

In Table 3, although the PK courses are listed according to semesters, in the last column, the ranking of the courses by the candidate teachers was given according to the order of usefulness; Figure 4 shows the order on the evenly ranged scale. In the opinion of the preservice teachers, Teaching Practice I was the most helpful course compared to the other courses, including the two other practice courses. In contrast, the Assessment and Evaluation course was perceived as the least beneficial course by far. Among the remaining courses, the School Experience and Teaching Practice II courses were evaluated as the 2nd and 3rd most valuable courses with similar results. On the other hand, the Guidance and Special Education courses share the 2nd and 3rd places among the least beneficial courses, and the remaining teacher education courses are positioned at a similar distance.

Table 4 and Figure 5 show the findings related to scale value and significance order for CK in each course.

Table 4. *Scale Values Based on Ranking Judgments on CK Courses*

<i>Courses</i>	<i>S_j</i>	<i>Sc</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Introduction to Early Childhood Education	1.500	3.468	1
Human Anatomy and Physiology	-0.307	1.661	16
Psychology	0.892	2.860	3
Maternal-Child Health and First Aid	0.764	2.732	5
Maternal-Child Nutrition	0.545	2.513	8
Early Childhood Development I	1.374	3.342	2
Creativity and Development	0.603	2.571	7
Play Development of Child	0.655	2.623	6
Early Childhood Development II	0.778	2.746	4
Children's Literature	0.139	2.107	12
Mathematics Education	0.276	2.244	9
Children's Mental Health	0.266	2.234	11
Drama	0.273	2.241	10
Physical Education and Game Teaching	-0.164	1.804	14
Music Education I	-0.224	1.744	15
Science Education	-0.156	1.812	13
Visual Arts Education	-0.421	1.547	18
Special Teaching Methods II	-0.379	1.589	17
Music Education II	-0.581	1.387	20
Material Development	-0.657	1.311	21
Parent Education	-0.512	1.456	19
Research Project I	-1.327	0.641	22
Research Project II	-1.968	0.000	24
Primary Ed. Prep. and Primary Ed. Programs	-1.370	0.598	23

Figure 5. *Representation of Ranking Judgments Scale Values of FE Courses on a Range Scale*

Concerning Table 4 and Figure 5, the most beneficial CK courses are Introduction to Early Childhood Education and Early Childhood Development I courses, respectively. The Psychology course ranks third. The Research Project II course was evaluated as the least beneficial course by far. According to Figure 5, CK courses were gathered into five groups regarding their rank scores. In the first group, there are the top two beneficial courses; the second group includes six courses such as Psychology, Early Childhood Education, and Development I; the upper middle group is next with four courses such as Children's Literature and Mathematics Education; the lower middle group includes nine courses, including Parent Education, Science Education, Music Education I-II; the remaining group is made up of the least beneficial courses, namely Research Project I-II, Primary Education Preparation, and Primary Education Programs.

Perceptions of Early Childhood Preservice Teachers Regarding The Importance of GC, PK, And CK Courses by Gender, Academic Achievement, and Type of High School.

Table 5 shows the findings related to scale value and order of significance of GC courses for the independent variables of gender, academic achievement, and school type.

Table 5. *Scale Values Obtained for Gender, Academic Achievement, and Type of High School for the GC Courses*

Courses	Female		Male		2.99<		3.00=>		General		Vocational	
	Sc	R	Sc	R	Sc	R	Sc	R	Sc	R	Sc	R
Effective Communication	0.809	1	0.552	1	0.680	1	0.818	1	0.667	1	0.985	1
Educational Philosophy	0.508	2	0.440	3	0.443	3	0.524	2	0.439	3	0.606	2
Educational Sociology	0.498	3	0.514	2	0.483	2	0.508	3	0.441	2	0.604	3
Community Service	0.458	4	0.318	5	0.346	4	0.481	4	0.363	5	0.596	4
Computers I	0.429	5	0.371	4	0.341	5	0.456	5	0.379	4	0.507	5
Turkish Education History	0.334	6	0.203	6	0.326	6	0.314	7	0.221	6	0.499	6
Research Methods	0.283	7	0.166	7	0.136	8	0.325	6	0.206	7	0.394	7
Computers II	0.208	8	0.113	8	0.140	7	0.221	8	0.146	8	0.295	8
Statistics	0.000	9	0.000	9	0.000	9	0.000	9	0.000	9	0.000	9

The consistency between the scale values was examined to test whether the independent variables affect the GC course rankings of the preservice teachers; the Spearman Rank Differences Correlation Coefficient was then calculated, and the values showed that for gender ($r_s = 0.967$; $p < 0.01$), academic achievement ($r_s = 0.933$; $p < 0.01$), and high school type ($r_s = 0.967$; $p < 0.01$), there was a high consistency among scale values. Therefore, it can be concluded that preservice teachers' gender, academic achievement, and high school type do not affect their ranking in the GC courses. As in Table 2, Effective Communication takes the first place as the most beneficial lesson in all groups, regardless of gender, academic achievement, or high school type. Once again, regardless of gender, grade, and type of school, Statistics was ranked as the least beneficial course. Educational philosophy and Educational Sociology courses seem to have changed places in some groups, but this is not a statistically significant difference.

Table 6 shows the findings of the scale value and order of significance of the PK courses for the independent variables of gender, academic achievement, and school type.

Table 6. *Scale Values Obtained for Gender, Academic Achievement, and Type of High School for the PK Courses*

Courses	Female		Male		2.99<		3.00=>		General		Vocational	
	Sc	R	Sc	R	Sc	R	Sc	R	Sc	R	Sc	R
Teaching Practice I	1.115	1	0.811	2	0.911	1	1.147	1	1.058	1	1.123	1
School Experience	0.964	2	0.855	1	0.812	2	1.011	2	0.931	2	0.994	2
Teaching Practice II	0.964	3	0.702	5	0.763	3	1.004	3	0.908	3	0.962	3
Teach. Prin. and Meth.	0.789	4	0.708	4	0.710	4	0.809	4	0.739	4	0.848	4
Educational Psychology	0.759	5	0.617	6	0.652	5	0.780	5	0.709		0.802	
Special Teach.	0.658	6	0.520	8	0.521	8	0.693	6	0.602	5	0.727	5
Methods										6		7
Classroom Mgmt.	0.648	7	0.601	7	0.582	7	0.669	7	0.597	7	0.728	6
Intr. to Educ. Science	0.592	8	0.719	3	0.590	6	0.616	8	0.558	8	0.696	8
Inst. Tech. & Mat. Dev.	0.515	9	0.453	9	0.465	9	0.526	9	0.525	9	0.474	9

Table 6. (Cont.)

Special Education	0.359	10	0.236	10	0.210	10	0.401	10	0.327	10	0.379	10
Guidance	0.276	11	0.055	11	0.178	11	0.280	11	0.203	11	0.333	11
Assmt. & Evaluation	0.000	12	0.000	12	0.000	12	0.000	12	0.000	12	0.000	12

The results for the PK courses showed that there was a high consistency among scale values for gender ($r_s = 0.874$; $p < 0.01$), academic achievement ($r_s = 0.972$; $p < 0.01$), and for high school type ($r_s = 0.993$; $p < 0.01$). Therefore, as with the results for the GC courses, there is no significant influence of gender, academic achievement, and type of high school on the ranking of the TP courses. The Practice I course remained the most useful course except for male preservice teachers' preference. On the other hand, Instructional Technologies and Material Design, Special Education, Guidance and Assessment, and Evaluation courses kept their rank in the bottom four places as the least beneficial courses. Table 6 shows that male preservice teachers' rankings differ compared to other groups but not in a statistically significant sense.

Table 7 shows the findings related to CK course rankings for the independent variables of gender, academic achievement, and school type.

Table 7. Scale Values Obtained for Gender, Academic Achievement, and Type of High School for the CK Courses

Courses	Female		Male		2.99<		3.00=>		General		Vocational	
	Sc	S	Sc	S	Sc	S	Sc	S	Sc	S	Sc	S
Intro. to Early Childhood Ed.	3.350	1	4.337	1	4.054	1	3.236	2	3.462	2	3.444	1
Early Childhood Dev. I	3.349	2	3.290	3	3.494	2	3.279	1	3.552	1	2.953	2
Psychology	2.771	3	3.459	2	3.364	3	2.651	4	2.997	3	2.587	3
Early Childhood Dev. II	2.752	4	2.672	8	2.966	6	2.657	3	2.835	5	2.555	4
Mater. Child Health & F. Aid	2.699	5	3.159	4	3.209	4	2.534	5	2.859	4	2.500	6
Play Dev. of Child	2.609	6	2.702	7	2.933	7	2.497	6	2.659	6	2.548	5
Creativity & Development	2.539	7	2.727	6	2.875	8	2.445	7	2.657	7	2.394	7
Maternal-Child Nutrition	2.453	8	2.874	5	2.985	5	2.309	8	2.604	8	2.343	8
Drama	2.233	9	2.311	13	2.567	9	2.113	11	2.323	10	2.096	10
Mathematics Education	2.225	10	2.350	11	2.533	10	2.127	10	2.318	11	2.110	9
Children's Mental Health	2.206	11	2.388	10	2.474	11	2.135	9	2.374	9	1.959	12
Children's Literature	2.071	12	2.325	12	2.455	12	1.966	12	2.180	12	1.970	11
Science Education	1.781	13	2.009	15	2.124	14	1.685	14	1.892	13	1.667	13
Physical Ed. & Game Teach.	1.768	14	2.032	14	2.086	15	1.690	13	1.878	14	1.665	14
Music Education I	1.711	15	1.952	16	2.030	16	1.628	15	1.804	15	1.629	15
Special Teaching Meth. II	1.543	16	1.890	17	1.781	18	1.517	16	1.654	17	1.476	17
Human Anat. and Physiol.	1.530	17	2.655	9	2.284	13	1.415	18	1.752	16	1.495	16
Visual Arts Education	1.517	18	1.734	18	1.861	17	1.419	17	1.609	18	1.437	18
Parent Education	1.432	19	1.607	19	1.651	20	1.381	19	1.550	19	1.294	19
Music Education II	1.363	20	1.527	21	1.659	19	1.277	20	1.450	20	1.269	20
Material Development	1.269	21	1.581	20	1.611	21	1.191	21	1.415	21	1.122	21
Research Project I	0.611	22	0.826	22	0.856	22	0.556	22	0.707	22	0.522	22
Pr. Ed. Prep. & Pr. Ed. Prog.	0.573	23	0.642	23	0.764	23	0.502	23	0.694	23	0.402	23
Research Project II	0.000	24	0.000	24	0.000	24	0.000	24	0.000	24	0.000	24

The Spearman Rank Differences Correlation Coefficient showed that the values for gender ($r_s = 0.948$; $p < 0.01$), academic achievement ($r_s = 0.970$; $p < 0.01$), and high school type ($r_s = 0.990$; $p < 0.01$) had a high consistency among scale values for the CK courses. Therefore, it can be said that gender, academic achievement, and type of school do not affect the ranking of the CK courses. Regardless of gender, grade point average, and high school type, Introduction to Early Childhood Education and Early Childhood Development I were the top two selections of the preservice teachers. At the same time, Research Project I, Preparation for Primary

Education and Primary Education Programs, and Research Project II courses constituted the last three rows in terms of ranking.

Discussion

In this study, the views of early childhood preservice teachers regarding the usefulness of the courses they took in their programs for their professional development were investigated.

The Effective Communication course was clearly ranked first among the GC courses concerning the study's findings. Communication skills, a key asset in the 21st century (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009; Saavedra & Opfer, 2012; Voogt & Pareja Roblin, 2010), was also included in the MoNE Teacher Competencies as an essential competence that a teacher should have (MoNE, 2017). The rankings of the preservice teachers clearly show that preservice teachers value this course and have sufficient awareness of its necessity and importance. Ekinci and Kaya (2016) found that early childhood preservice teachers perceive communication, creativity, and aesthetics as critical aspects of teacher competency. Similarly, Şahin et al. (2013) found that Computers, Effective Communication, and History of Atatürk and Revolutions courses were the three most effective courses. On the other hand, in the 2018 undergraduate program, the Effective Communication course was removed from the compulsory course pool and replaced with a selective course pool under the name Human Relations and Communication. Based on the results of this study, it may be necessary to reconsider whether this course should be offered as a mandatory course in teacher training programs.

The results showed that the Statistics course took the last place by far among GC courses. In a study conducted with mathematics preservice teachers, it was observed that the Statistics course was not favored very much by candidates because they had difficulty comprehending the subjects (Aydın & Sevimli, 2019). In a qualitative study conducted with primary school preservice mathematics teachers, the participants did not view the Research Methods course as necessary in the undergraduate program (Akgün, 2012). Considering the current study results and other similar studies, since these courses do not have content specific to early childhood education or the relevant program, they may be evaluated as useless by preservice teachers. If the content of these courses was related to the students' field who took the classes, their perceptions of these courses might change. It may also be necessary for the instructors of these courses to clearly explain why it is essential for preservice teachers to learn statistics and research methods and how these courses may benefit students in their future roles as teachers and school administrators. The Community Service course, the only course containing practical content among the general culture courses, ranked 4th in the entire group and all subgroups except in terms of male pre-service teacher choice. There are contrasting views regarding female-male teacher perceptions towards this course. Yılmaz and Arslan (2016) found that female preservice teachers have more positive perceptions of the Community Service course. Still, Elma, Kesten, Kiroğlu, Uzun and Dicle (2010) found that gender was not a statistically significant variable regarding the preservice teachers' perception of the Community Service course. The current study found no statistical difference between male and female preservice teachers, although the ranking was lower (5th vs. 4th) for the male preservice teachers. Given these inconsistent findings in the literature, the differences between the perceptions of male and female preservice teachers about teacher education courses and the sources of the differences - if there are any - should be studied further in future research.

Preservice teachers should have reliable pedagogical knowledge, as well as content awareness and an understanding of general culture (Küçükahmet, 1986; Shulman, 1987). In the current study, the Teaching Practice I, School Experience, and Teaching Practice II courses were ranked the top 3 most beneficial PK courses. Similarly, Şahin et al. (2013) found that early childhood education preservice teachers ranked Teaching Practice I-II and School Experience as the three most effective teacher education courses. The results of the current study and the literature indicate that early childhood preservice teachers have a clear preference for the courses that are more closely related to practice in pedagogical knowledge. On the other hand, starting from 1998, there has been a steady decrease in teaching practice hours in early childhood undergraduate programs in Turkey. Both preservice teachers and academicians previously emphasized this problem (Ulubey & Tican Başaran, 2019). In one study, preservice teachers stress the inadequacy of the hours of teaching practice courses in their undergraduate program (Yıldız-Altan, Ulutaş, & Demiriz, 2018). Furthermore, academicians in early childhood education criticized the 2018 ECE undergraduate program's decreased practice hours for most of the courses and removal of the School Experience course from the program (Tican Başaran & Aykaç, 2020). The quality of these courses is yet another concern, as studies found that the content and implementation of these courses need to be improved (Aslan & Sağlam, 2018; Şimşek, Alkan, & Erdem, 2013; Tonga & Tantekin-Erden, 2021). In this regard, it is essential to point out that early childhood departments that will renew their undergraduate programs may consider increasing practice-based pedagogical content courses in their curriculum and offering better and additional practice hours for their students.

In this study, Assessment and Evaluation, Guidance, and Special Education courses were ranked lowest in beneficial courses. Similarly, Yalçın and Şengül Avşar (2014) found that Special Education and Assessment and Evaluation courses were found to be in the lower rankings in terms of their significance for preservice teachers. Assessment and evaluation are important content that may help teachers adapt curriculum and instructional approaches to students' needs and determine the overall effectiveness of programs and classroom practices; guidance courses may help teachers support children's developmental needs to achieve complete development and life-long learning. On the other hand, the Special Education course is another crucial course that needs to be included in every PK and CK course as sub-content rather than as a limited and standalone course. The reason why preservice teachers do not perceive these courses as useful may be explained differently. One explanation may be that these three essential PK courses are not offered beneficially in teacher training programs. This may be because their departments may not have a sufficient number of academic staff specialized in these areas, and unqualified instructors offer these courses. Also, there may be a need to differentiate the content of these courses for early childhood education as preservice teachers may have difficulty making connections between the course content and their study area. In which semester these courses are offered in teacher education programs may also be a factor influencing preservice teachers' perceptions of the significance of courses. For example, in the 2018 program, the Special Education and Mainstreaming course was offered in the last semester, and two different content types were merged into a limited 2-hour course without any opportunity for practice. It may be more effective to present this crucial content to preservice teachers in previous semesters and allow them to practice so that preservice teachers acquire core knowledge before starting their classroom practicum.

In the category of CK courses, the Introduction to Early Childhood Education course was ranked first and the Early Childhood Development and Education I course was ranked second.

These courses, in which preservice teachers begin learning about their profession, are important for them to develop positive attitudes toward early childhood education. Similarly, in Bartan's (2019) study, early childhood preservice teachers stated that, during their practicums, introduction to early childhood education and early childhood development courses were the courses they benefitted from most in the whole undergraduate education program. On the other hand, in Şahin et al.'s (2013) study, these courses had middle ranks, whereas the Drama, Mother-Child Health and First Aid, and Music courses were found in the upper ranks. However, it must be noted that this study was conducted only in a single university, and the results may be attributed to the specific context of the university observed. The literature indicates that how lecturers implement a course dramatically affects the success of any course (Dereobalı & Ünver, 2009; Peker Ünal, 2017; Üstün, Erkan, & Akman, 2004). The results of the studies carried out in a single university may largely be influenced by how preservice teachers perceive the academic personnel of that institution; therefore, the results of such studies should be interpreted carefully.

The findings obtained from the current research suggest that preservice teachers benefit from such intro courses in the program; therefore, during program revision processes, the intensity of these courses should be maintained and even increased according to the HEC authority transfer decision of 2020 (HEC, 2020). Different from other studies in the literature, the Psychology course ranked in 3rd place in terms of usefulness leaving the Early Childhood Development II course behind among the CK courses. However, in Bartan's (2019) study, the Psychology course was found to be among the courses considered inefficient in terms of professional preparation and content according to preservice teachers. Similarly, Şahin et al. (2013) found that the Psychology course came in 9th place in terms of its benefits for the profession among the CK courses. The Psychology course in the early childhood education undergraduate program included topics such as philosophical foundations of psychology, child psychology, sub-branches of psychology, developmental psychology, and learning psychology. In the 2018 program, this course was removed from the program, but it can be considered beneficial and added to programs again because preservice teachers acquire some essential information through the course.

In relation to CK courses, the least beneficial courses were the Research Project I-II courses and the Preparation for Primary Education and Primary Education Programs course. In the literature, there are contrasting results regarding the usefulness of the research project courses. In some studies, preservice teachers stated that the Research Project course was a waste of time and included unnecessary topics (Bartan, 2019; Cengiz & Karataş, 2014), but in another study, the preservice teachers found this course necessary because it allowed them to follow the developments in the field more closely and acquire knowledge about research methods (Ersoy & Çengelci, 2008). Additional studies found preservice teachers had both positive and negative perceptions of these courses (Eti & Gündoğdu, 2016; Şahin et al. 2013). Considering the entire catalog of CK courses, it could be interpreted that these courses are not perceived as courses that prepare future teachers for the teaching profession; conversely, preservice teachers would rather learn drama, science, or math content to instruct children. To this end, in the 2018 program, the Research Project I-II courses were excluded. Another interesting finding of the study is that, compared to other studies in the literature (Bartan, 2019; Dereobalı & Ünver, 2009; İnce, 2019; Şahin et al., 2013), the Human Anatomy and Physiology course was not ranked in the bottom. This result might be because a sample from different universities was involved in the current study, which is likely to eliminate lecturer bias, as discussed

previously. However, the course was removed from the 2018 program. This finding shows that curriculum development or revision processes need careful planning and execution and consideration of broader participation of preservice teachers in the decision-making regarding course inclusions/exclusions.

Regarding the second research question of the study, the opinions of preservice teachers did not change regarding gender, academic achievement, and the type of high school they had graduated from. The literature is very limited regarding the influence of demographical characteristics on the views regarding the significance of the courses. However, in a study, which used a similar methodology, Yalçın and Şengül Avşar (2014) found that the rankings of CK courses differed in terms of gender. Although the current study's findings reveal small differences, they are not statistically significant. Therefore, there is a need for future research on the sources of preservice teachers' perceptions regarding the importance of courses in teacher education programs. This study falls short in explaining why some courses are perceived as important and some are viewed as less critical.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study examined fourth-year early childhood preservice teachers' opinions regarding the usefulness of the courses they took in their teacher training programs. In this context, we believe that the results obtained from 432 preservice teachers from 35 universities could be a guideline for policymakers and curriculum development processes of universities.

The opinions of preservice teachers, who are among the most critical stakeholders in the program development process, should be reflected in the program development/revision process (Kahramanoğlu, 2017). In this regard, the results of this study might have the potential to further integrate the voice of preservice teachers. The results also show that preservice teachers are more likely to value courses that are related to practice rather than focusing on theoretical courses. However, we believe that, regardless of the demographic characteristics, the preservice teachers' agreement on effective and ineffective courses could make it easier to decide which courses to exclude from the programs and which courses to maintain and strengthen in teacher education.

As in every scientific study, there are some limitations of this study, and the results should be evaluated considering these limitations. The present work included public university students, so private university students' views were not reflected. Although they were part of the PK course curriculum, the Turkish Education System and School Management courses were not included in the study as they were compulsory in some undergraduate programs and optional in others. Scaling studies are generally conducted in the order of 8 to 10 items and, as the number of items increases, the reliability of the scaling decreases. In this study, GC (9 items) and PK (12 items) courses were scaled using fifth situation-higher accuracy, while CK (24 items) courses were scaled using third situation-lower accuracy. In this context, the margin of error may be higher for the rankings of the CK courses. For this reason, it is recommended that careful attention should be given to evaluating the rankings of this group.

Students are essential stakeholders of curriculum development studies, and this study attempted to highlight the voices of early childhood preservice teachers in terms of improving teacher education programs.

References

- Akgün, L. (2012). Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri dersine ilişkin öğretmen adaylarının algı ve beklentileri. *Balıkesir Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 15(27), 21-30. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/baunsobed/issue/50194/646277>
- Akpınar, B. (2012). *Eğitim programları ve öğretim*. Ankara: Data Yayınları.
- Ananiadou, K., & Claro, M. (2009). *21st century skills and competences for new millennium learners in OECD countries*. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. EDU Working paper no. 41. Retrieved from [http://www.oecd.org/olis/2009doc.nsf/linkto/edu-wkp\(2009\)20](http://www.oecd.org/olis/2009doc.nsf/linkto/edu-wkp(2009)20)
- Apak, E. G. A. (2009). *Yıldırma eylemleri ve örgütsel adanmışlık ilişkisi: ilköğretim okulu öğretmenleri üzerinde bir araştırma*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Marmara Üniversitesi, İstanbul, Türkiye
- Aslan, M., & Sağlam, M. (2018). Öğretmenlik uygulaması dersinin öğretmen adaylarının görüşlerine göre değerlendirilmesi. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 33(1), 144-162. <https://doi.org/10.16986/HUJE.2017030313>
- Aydın, E., & Sevimli, N. E. (2019). An investigation of preservice mathematics teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and attitudes toward statistics. *Istanbul Sabahattin Zaim University Journal of Faculty of Education*, 1(1), 159-174. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/download/article-file/719345>
- Bartan, M. (2019). Okul öncesi öğretmen ve öğretmen adaylarının okul öncesi öğretmen yetiştirme lisans programı hakkında görüş ve önerileri. *Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 3(1), 24-36. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/debder/issue/43652/514123>
- Beck, C., Kosnik, C., & Rowsell, J. (2007). Preparation for the first year of teaching: Beginning teachers' views about their needs. *New Educator*, 3(1), 51-73. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15476880601141581>
- Borko, H. (2004) Professional development and teacher learning mapping the terrain. *Educational Researcher*, 33, 3-15. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X033008003>
- Brooker, R., & Macdonald, D. (1999). Did we hear you?: issues of student voice in a curriculum innovation. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 31(1), 83-97. <https://doi.org/10.1080/002202799183313>
- Cengiz, C., & Karataş, F.Ö. (2014). Alan eğitiminde araştırma projesi dersi: biyoloji öğretmen adaylarının yansıtmaları. *Eğitim ve Öğretim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 3(4), 51-58. Retrieved from <http://www.jret.org/FileUpload/ks281142/File/05.cengiz.pdf>
- Cochran-Smith, M., & Zeichner, K. M. (2005). Executive summary: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education. In M. Cochran-Smith & K. M. Zeichner (Eds.), *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA Panel on research and teacher education* (pp.1-36). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers; American Educational Research Association
- Çobanoğlu, R., & Yıldırım, A. (2021). Türkiye'de program geliştirme çalışmaları: Cumhuriyet'in ilanından günümüze tarihsel bir analiz. *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 19(2), 810-830. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/1694572>
- Dağlıoğlu, H. E. (2017). Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının matematik eğitimi dersine karşı tutumları ile öz-yeterlik inançlarının çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelenmesi. *Journal of International Social Research*, 10(50), 484-496. <https://doi.org/10.17719/jisir.2017.1682>
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). *Powerful teacher education: lessons from exemplary programs*. San Francisco: John Wiley and Sons.

- Demir, Ö., & Çamlı, Ö. (2011). Öğretmenlik uygulaması dersinde uygulama okullarında karşılaşılan sorunların sınıf ve okul öncesi öğretmenliği öğrenci görüşleri çerçevesinde incelenmesi: nitel bir çalışma. *Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 24(1), 117-139. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/uefad/issue/16693/173510>
- Demirel, Ö. (2007). *Eğitimde program geliştirme: kuramdan uygulamaya*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Dereobalı, M., & Ünver, G. (2009). Okul öncesi öğretmenliği lisans programı derslerinin öğretim elemanları tarafından genel bir bakış açısıyla değerlendirilmesi. *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 10(3), 161-181. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/inuefd/issue/8704/108683>
- Diez, M. E. (2010). It is complicated: unpacking the flow of teacher education's impact on student learning. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(5), 441-450. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487110372927>
- Duman, G. (2016). Okul öncesi öğretmenliği lisans programı öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerinin öğrenci boyutunda değerlendirilmesi. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi*, 21(4), 1661-1674. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/kefdergi/issue/22604/241561>
- Ekinci, N., & Kaya, D. (2016). Okul öncesi eğitimi öğretmen adaylarının özel alan yeterlik algılarının incelenmesi: iletişim, yaratıcılık ve estetik. *Sakarya University Journal of Education*, 6(1), 141-157. <https://doi.org/10.19126/suje.90006>
- Elma, C., Kesten, A., Kiroğlu, K., Uzun, E. M., & Dicle, A. N. (2010). Öğretmen adaylarının topluma hizmet uygulamaları dersine ilişkin algıları. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi*, 2(2), 231-252. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/kuey/issue/10334/126646>
- Ersoy, A. F., & Çengelci, T. (2008). The research experience of social studies pre-service teachers: a qualitative study. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, 8(2), 541-554. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ831166.pdf>
- Eti, İ., & Gündoğdu, S. (2016). Okul öncesi öğretmenliği dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin araştırma projesi dersine ilişkin görüş ve önerileri. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 16(1), 121-139. <https://doi.org/10.17240/aibuefd.2016.16.1-5000182914>
- Evin-Gencil, İ. (2017). Program geliştirme ve değerlendirme sürecinde sorunlar. In B. Oral & T. Yazar (Eds.), *Eğitimde program geliştirme ve değerlendirme* (ss. 540-554). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (8th ed.). New York: Mc Graw Hill.
- Havik, T., & Westergård, E. (2020). Do teachers matter? Students' perceptions of classroom interactions and student engagement. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 64(4), 488-507. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2019.1577754>
- Higher Education Council [HEC]. (1998a). *Eğitim fakülteleri öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının yeniden düzenlenmesi*. Ankara: Mart.
- Higher Education Council [HEC]. (1998b). *Eğitim fakülteleri öğretmen yetiştirme lisans programları*. Ankara: Mart.
- Higher Education Council [HEC]. (2006). *Eğitim fakültesi öğretmen yetiştirme lisans programları*. Retrieved from https://www.yok.gov.tr/Documents/Kurumsal/egitim_ogretim_dairesi/Ogretmen-Yetistirme/1-aciklama_programlar.pdf
- Higher Education Council [HEC]. (2018). *Öğretmen yetiştirme lisans programları*. Retrieved from https://www.yok.gov.tr/Documents/Kurumsal/egitim_ogretim_dairesi/Yeni-Ogretmen-Yetistirme-LisansProgramlari/AA_Sunus_%20Onsoz_Uygulama_Yonergesi.pdf

- Higher Education Council [HEC]. (2020). *Eğitim fakültelerine yetki devri*. Retrieved from <https://www.yok.gov.tr/Sayfalar/Haberler/2020/egitim-fak%C3%BCltelerine-yetki-devri.aspx>
- İlğan, A. (2013). Öğretmenler için etkili mesleki gelişim faaliyetleri. *Uşak Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 14, 1-56. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/usaksosbil/issue/21642/232634>
- İnan, C. (2014). Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının matematik dersini öğretebilme konusunda hazır bulunuşluk düzeylerinin değerlendirilmesi (Diyarbakır il örneği). *International Periodical for the Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, 9(8), 537-550. <https://doi.org/10.7827/TurkishStudies.7021>
- İnce, H. H. (2019). İnsan anatomisi dersi üzerine biyoloji, okul öncesi ve fen bilgisi eğitimi öğrenci görüşlerinin belirlenmesi. *Dicle Üniversitesi Ziya Gökalp Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 36, 99-105. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/zgefd/issue/51749/658427>
- Kahramanoğlu, R. (2017). Okul temelli program geliştirme. *Disiplinlerarası Eğitim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 1(1), 29-36. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/jier/issue/31085/337174>
- Kara, Y., & Gelbal, S. (2013). İlköğretim öğrencilerinin başarılarını etkileyen özelliklerin tam sıralama halinde ikili karşılaştırmalar yöntemiyle ölçeklenmesi. *Eğitimde ve Psikolojide Ölçme ve Değerlendirme Dergisi*, 4(1), 33-51. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/65962>
- Karaca, N. H., & Aral, N. (2011). *Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik uygulamalarında karşılaştıkları sorunlar*. 2nd International Conference on New Trends in Education and Their Implications, Ankara: Siyasal Kitabevi.
- Karasu Avcı, E., & Ünal İbret, B. (2016). Öğretmenlik uygulaması-II dersine ilişkin okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının görüşlerinin değerlendirilmesi. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi*, 24(5), 2519-2536. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/kefdergi/issue/27735/318050>
- Kozikoğlu, İ., & Özcanlı, N. (2020). Öğretmenlerin 21. yüzyıl öğrenen becerileri ile mesleğe adanmışlıkları arasındaki ilişki. *Cumhuriyet Uluslararası Eğitim Dergisi*, 9(1), 270-290. Retrieved from <http://cije.cumhuriyet.edu.tr/en/download/article-file/1012726>
- Küçükahmet, L. (1986). *Öğretim ilke ve yöntemleri*. Ankara: A.Ü. Eğitim Fakültesi Yayınları
- Lasley, T. J., Siedentop, D., & Yinger, R. (2006). A Systemic approach to enhancing teacher quality: The Ohio model. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57(1), 13-21. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487105284455>
- Loeb, S., Rouse, C., & Anthony Shorris. (2007). Introducing the issue. *The Future of Children*, 17(1), 3-14. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4150017>
- Metin-Aslan, Ö. (2014). Eğitim felsefesi dersinin okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının felsefi tercihlerine ve eleştirel pedagojiye yönelik görüşlerine olan etkisi. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 13(48), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.17755/esosder.73598>
- Ministry of National Education [MoNE]. (1981). 10. Milli Eğitim Şurası. Retrieved from https://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2017_09/29165120_10_sura.pdf
- Ministry of National Education [MoNE]. (1988). 12. Milli Eğitim Şurası. Retrieved from https://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2017_09/29165252_12_sura.pdf
- Ministry of National Education [MoNE]. (1993). 14. Milli Eğitim Şurası. Retrieved from https://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2017_09/29165401_14_sura.pdf
- Ministry of National Education [MoNE]. (2017). *Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri*. Retrieved from

- http://oygm.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2017_12/11115355_YYRETMENLYK_MESLEY_Y_G_ENEL_YETERLYKLERY.pdf
- Müezzinoğlu, A., & Mirillo, H. (2017). Okul öncesi ve zihinsel engelliler öğretmenliği öğretmen adaylarının müzik dersine ilişkin görüşleri. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 17(1), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.17240/aibuefd.2017.17.28551-304636>
- Nahal, S. P. (2010). Voices from the field: Perspectives of first-year teachers on the disconnect between teacher preparation programs and the realities of the classroom. *Research in Higher Education Journal*, 8, 1-19. Retrieved from <http://www.aabri.com/manuscripts/10446.pdf>
- Navarro, M., Martin, A., & Gómez-Arízaga, M. P. (2022). Profiles of pre-service primary teachers: attitudes, self-Efficacy, and gender stereotypes in teaching science and mathematics. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*, 18(1), em2062. <https://doi.org/10.29333/ejmste/11483>
- Olgan, R., Güner Alpaslan, Z., & Öztekin, C. (2014). Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının fen öğretimine yönelik sonuç beklentisi inançlarını etkileyen faktörler. *Eğitim ve Bilim*, 39(173), 288-300. Retrieved from <http://egitimvebilim.ted.org.tr/index.php/EB/article/view/2475>
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2017). *Starting strong 2017: key OECD indicators on early childhood education and care*. OECD Publishing, Paris.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2019). *Education at a Glance 2019: OECD Indicators*. OECD Publishing, Paris.
- Özgül, İ. (2017). Temel eğitim bölümü okul öncesi öğretmenliği lisans programına ilişkin müzik derslerinin çözümlenmesi. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 16(64), 1496-1509. <https://doi.org/10.17755/esosder.304587>
- Parylo, O., Süngü, H., & Ilgan, A. (2015). Connecting attitudes toward Teaching and pedagogical formation courses: A Study of Turkish pre-service teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(5). <https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2015v40n5.5>
- Peker Ünal, D. (2017). Öğretmen adaylarının mesleğe yönelik tutumlarını etkileyen örtük bir öge olarak öğretim üyesi davranışları. *Yükseköğretim ve Bilim Dergisi*, 7(3), 430-440. <https://doi.org/10.5961/jhes.2017.220>
- Ramazan, O., & Yılmaz, E. (2017). Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının okul deneyimi ve öğretmenlik uygulamalarına yönelik görüşlerinin incelenmesi. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 17(1), 332-349. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/download/article-file/292014>
- Ramazan, O. M., & Tunçeli, H. İ. (2016). Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının okul öncesi öğretmenliği lisans programı (2006) hakkındaki görüşleri. *Atatürk Üniversitesi Kazım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 33, 67-79. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/266209>
- Saavedra, A. R., & Opfer, V. D. (2012). Learning 21st-century skills requires 21st-century teaching. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 94(2), 8-13. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003172171209400203>
- Seçer, Z., Çeliköz, N., & Kayılı, G. (2010). Okul öncesi öğretmenliği okul uygulamalarında yaşanan sorunlar ve çözüm önerileri. *Yüzüncü Yıl Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 7(1), 128-152. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/146284>
- Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1-23. Retrieved from <https://people.ucsc.edu/~ktellez/shulman.pdf>
- Spelke, E. S. (2005). Sex differences in intrinsic aptitude for mathematics and science?: A critical review. *American Psychologist*, 60(9), 950-958. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.60.9.950>

- Şahin, Ç., Kartal, O. Y., & İmamoğlu, A. (2013). Okul öncesi öğretmen yetiştirme programı hakkında okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının görüşleri. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Kırşehir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi (KEFAD)*, 14(1), 101-118. Retrieved from https://kefad2.ahievran.edu.tr/archieve/pdfler/Cilt14Sayi1/JKEF_14_1_2013_101-118.pdf
- Şimşek, S., Alkan, V., & Erdem, A. R. (2013). Öğretmenlik uygulamasına ilişkin nitel bir çalışma. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 34(34), 63-73. <https://doi.org/doi.org/10.9779/PUJE624>
- Tannen, D. (2001). *You just don't understand: women and men in conversation*. New York, NY: Quill.
- Tican Başaran, S., & Aykaç, N. (2020). Evaluation of 2018 Turkish early childhood teacher education curriculum. *Pegem Eğitim ve Öğretim Dergisi*, 10(3), 889-928. <https://doi.org/10.14527/pegegog.2020.028>
- Tonga, F. E., & Tantekin Erden, F. (2021). Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının ve uygulama öğretmenlerinin öğretmenlik uygulaması dersine ilişkin görüşlerinin incelenmesi. *Yaşadıkça Eğitim*, 35(1), 20-37. <https://doi.org/10.33308/26674874.2021351228>
- Turgut, M. F., & Baykul, Y. (1992). *Ölçekleme teknikleri*. Ankara: OSYM Yayınları.
- Turhan, M., Demirli, C., & Nazik, G. (2012). Sınıf öğretmenlerinin mesleğe adanmışlıklarına etki eden faktörler: Elazığ örneği. *İstanbul Ticaret Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 11(21), 179-192. Retrieved from <https://docplayer.biz.tr/5828544-Sinif-ogretmenlerinin-meslege-adanmislik-duzeyine-etki-eden-faktorler-elazig-ornegi.html>
- Ulubey, Ö., & Tican Başaran, S. (2019). Evaluation of 2018 initial teacher training programs. *Uluslararası Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 9(2), 263-300. Retrieved from <http://www.ijocis.com/index.php/ijocis/article/view/ijocis.2019.012/163>
- Üstün, E., Erkan, S., & Akman, B. (2004). Türkiye'de okul öncesi öğretmenliği öğrencilerinin öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarının incelenmesi. *Kırğızistan-Türkiye Manas Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 10, 129-136. Retrieved from http://journals.manas.edu.kg/mjsr/oldarchives/Vol05_Issue10_2004/355.pdf
- Voogt J., & Pareja Roblin, N. (2010). *21st-century skills. Discussion paper*. The University of Twente. Retrieved from <http://www.billielee.co.nz/wp-content/uploads/2015/04/White-Paper-21st-CS-Reading-week-2.pdf>
- Vural-Ekinci, D., & Hamurcu, H. (2008). Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının fen öğretimi dersine yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları ve görüşleri. *Elementary Education Online*, 7(2), 456-467. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/90960>
- World Bank (2011). *Türkiye'de temel eğitimde kalite ve eşitliğin geliştirilmesi: zorluklar ve seçenekler*. (Rapor No: 54131-TR). Retrieved from <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/TURKEYINURKISHEXTN/Resources/455687-1326904565778/EducationQualityReport2011-tr.pdf>
- Yalçın, S., & Şengül Avşar, A. (2014). Eğitim fakültesi meslek bilgisi derslerinin sıralama yargıları kanunıyla ölçeklenmesi. *Eğitimde ve Psikolojide Ölçme ve Değerlendirme Dergisi*, 5(2), 79-90. <https://doi.org/10.21031/epod.71470>
- Yazçayır, N., & Yıldırım, N. (2021). Öğretmen yetiştirme lisans programları ve öğretmenlik meslek bilgisi alt boyutunun karşılaştırmalı analizi "Türkiye ve Singapur". *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 19(1), 182-218. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/1091950>
- Yıldırım, A. (2011). Competing agendas and reform in teacher education. *Uluslararası Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 1(1), 1-17. Retrieved from <http://www.ijocis.com/index.php/ijocis/article/view/45/50>

- Yıldırım R. G., Özyılmaz Akamca G., Ellez A. M., Karabekmez S., & Bulut Üner A. N., (2019). Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının okul deneyimi ve öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerine ilişkin görüşlerinin incelenmesi. *Yükseköğretim ve Bilim Dergisi* 9(2), 306-316. <https://doi.org/10.5961/jhes.2019.332>
- Yıldız-Altan, R., Ulutaş, İ., & Demiriz, S. (2018). Okul öncesi öğretmenliği lisans programında yer alan "öğretmenlik uygulaması" dersine ilişkin görüşlerin karşılaştırılması. *Gazi Üniversitesi Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 38(3), 869-886. <https://doi.org/10.17152/gefad.378603>
- Yılmaz, M., & Arslan, Ş. (2016). Öğretmen adaylarının topluma hizmet uygulamaları dersine yönelik algıları. *Bartın Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 5(2), 598-607. <https://doi.org/10.14686/buefad.v5i2.5000190975>



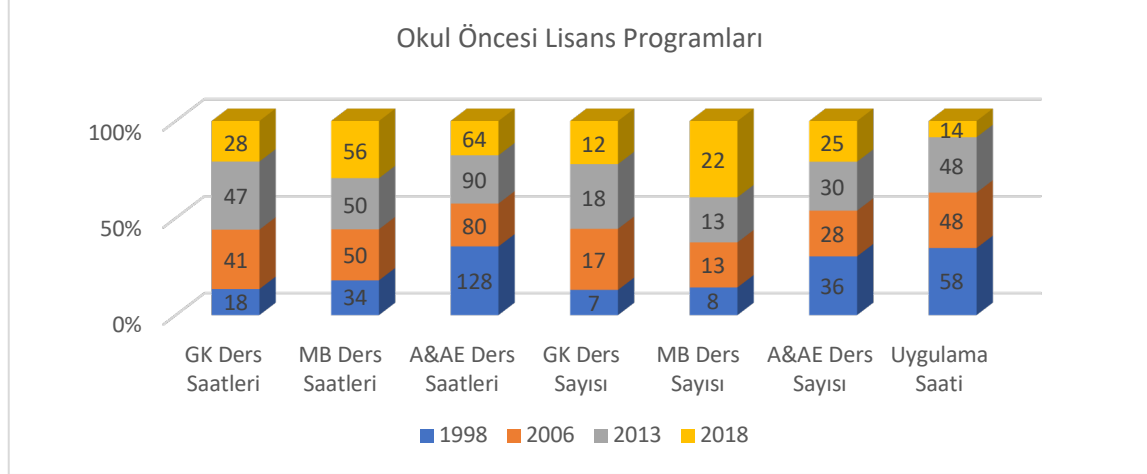
TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Okul Öncesi Öğretmen Adaylarının Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı Derslerine Yönelik Görüşleri

Giriş

Eğitimde verimin ve kalitenin artırılmasındaki ana unsur öğretmendir. Bu sebeple öğretmen yetiştirme programları dikkatle ve derinlemesine ele alınmalıdır. Alan yazında öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının standartlarının yükseltilmesinin verimli ve kalifiye öğretmenler yetiştirilmesiyle doğrudan ilişkili olduğuna sıklıkla yer verilmektedir (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2006). Öğretmen yetiştirme programının niteliğini artırmanın diğer bir önemli boyutu ise programın yapısıdır. Farklı araştırmalar, teori ve pratiğin birbirini tamamlayacak şekilde bütünleştirilmesinin ve her iki alanı da dengeli bir şekilde yapılandırmanın önemine işaret etmektedir (Beck, Kosnik, & Rowsell, 2007; Nahal, 2010). Benzer şekilde, Darling-Hammond (2006) nitelikli öğretmen eğitimi programlarının bazı ortak özelliklerini şu şekilde tanımlamaktadır: tüm ders süreçleri ve pratik deneyimler tutarlı öğrenme deneyimi oluşturmali ve pratik çalışmalar iyi tanımlanmış çerçeveler veya standartlar aracılığı ile yönlendirilmeli ve değerlendirilmelidir. Ayrıca Yıldırım (2011) öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının hem içerik hem de mesleki beceri içerdiğini, uygulamayı teori ile desteklediğini ve okullarla etkili iş birlikleri kurabildiğini öne sürmektedir.

Türkiye’de okul öncesi alanında öğretmen yetiştirme lise, ortaokul ve ilkokul kademelerine göre daha yeni bir alandır. İlk kez 10. Milli Eğitim Şurasında (MEB,1981) okul öncesi eğitimin yaygınlaştırılması, amaç ve görevlerinin belirlenmesi, okul öncesi programının geliştirilmesi, anasınıfı öğretmenleri için el kitapları ve hizmet içi eğitimlerin hazırlanması, çocuk-aile-programı için materyallerin geliştirilmesi, çocukların gelişimini değerlendirmeye yönelik materyallerin yaygınlaştırılması, amaç ve görevlerinin belirlenmesi, okul öncesi programının geliştirilmesi, öğretmen yetiştirme kaynaklarının değerlendirilmesine yönelik kararlar alınmıştır (MEB, 1981). 1997 yılında YÖK nezdindeki genel yapılandırma kapsamında okul öncesi öğretmen yetiştiren bölümler ve programlar ilk kez dört yıllık eğitim süresine çıkarılmış ve okul öncesi öğretmenliği bölümleri açılmıştır (YÖK Yürütme Kurulunun 04 Kasım 1997 tarih ve 97.39.2761 sayılı kararıyla). Aynı zamanda ilk lisans programı da oluşturulmuştur. Şekil 1’de okul öncesi öğretmenliği lisans programlarının günümüze kadar kullanılan dört biçimi karşılaştırmalı olarak verilmiştir.



Şekil 1. Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği Lisans Programlarının Karşılaştırılması

Yıllar içinde yenilenen okul öncesi öğretmenliği lisans programlarında önemli eğilimin uygulama saatlerini azaltmak olduğu, yine alan eğitimi ders saat ve sayılarının 2018 yılı programında diğer programlarla karşılaştırıldığında en aza indirildiği, meslek bilgisi derslerinin sayı ve saatlerinin arttığı görülmektedir. Ders saat ve sayılarının uygulama saatlerinde oluşan farklılıkların öğretmen adaylarının niteliğini etkileyen değişimler olduğu ve bu değişimlerin, öğretmen adaylarının görüş, öneri ve ihtiyaçlarını temel alarak yapılacak güncellemeler için yol gösterici olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Ülkemizde okul öncesi öğretmenleri diğer kademelerde olduğu gibi eğitim fakülteleri bünyesinde 4 yıllık lisans eğitimi ile yetiştirilmektedir. Bu nedenle okul öncesi öğretmenliği bölümü lisans ders programının etkililiğinin, programı takip eden öğretmen adaylarının kişisel fikirleri ve öznel bakış açısı ile değerlendirilmesi alanyazın için önem taşımaktadır. Önceki çalışmalardan farklı olarak bu çalışmada ulusal düzeyde kapsamlı bir veri toplama süreci gerçekleştirilmiş olup, çalışmada okul öncesi öğretmenliğinin YÖK tarafından ilk defa 1998 yılında hazırlanan, 2006 yılında ve 2013 yılında gözden geçirilen "Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği Lisans Programında yer alan Genel Kültür (GK), Öğretmenlik Meslek Bilgisi (ÖMB) ve Alan ve Alan Eğitimi (A ve AE) derslerinin okul öncesi öğretmenliği dördüncü sınıf öğretmen adaylarının mesleki gelişimlerine ne kadar katkı sağladığının ortaya çıkarılması amaçlanmıştır. Bu bağlamda aşağıda verilen araştırma sorularına cevap aranmıştır.

1. Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının GK, ÖMB ve A ve AE derslerinin önemine yönelik görüşleri nasıldır?
2. Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının GK, ÖMB ve A ve AE derslerinin önemine yönelik görüşleri cinsiyet, akademik başarıya ve lise türüne göre değişiklik göstermekte midir?

Yöntem

Geniş ölçekli bir karma yöntem araştırmanın nicel parçası olan bu araştırma tarama çalışması olarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmanın evrenini Türkiye’de devlet üniversitelerinde 2018-2019 eğitim öğretim yılında okul öncesi öğretmenliği programlarında okuyan 4846 4. sınıf öğretmen adayı oluşturmaktadır. Örneklem yöntemi olarak çok aşamalı rastgele örneklem yöntemi kullanılmıştır. İlk aşamada rastgele küme örneklem ile 35 üniversite belirlenmiş sonraki aşamada ise basit rastgele yöntem ile 2529 öğretmen adayına ulaşılmış ve 858 öğretmen adayından geri dönüş sağlanmıştır. Yapılan inceleme sonrasında çalışmada kullanılmaya uygun

432’i veri analizi için kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılan “Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği Lisans Derslerinin Değerlendirilmesi Formu” araştırmacılar tarafından geliştirilmiştir. Araştırmacıların bağlı bulunduğu üniversitenin Etik Komisyonu tarafından 17 Nisan 2018 tarihli 973 sayılı kararı ile etik kurul izni alınmasından sonra 2019 yılı Nisan- Haziran ayları içerisinde okul öncesi eğitimi anabilim dalı başkanlarına e-posta ile çevrimiçi bir bağlantı gönderilmiş veya talepleri doğrultusunda isteyen üniversitelere (2 üniversite) de basılı şekilde veri toplama formu gönderilmiştir. Öğretmen adaylarından GK, ÖMB ve A ve AE derslerinden en sevdiklerini 1. Sıradan başlayarak sıralamaları istenmiştir. Elde edilen nicel veri sıralama yargılarına dayalı ölçekleme yöntemi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Bu yöntemle yapılan analizde tam sıralama halinde ikili karşılaştırmalar yöntemi kullanılmış ve hesaplamalar beşinci hal denklemi ve üçüncü hal denklemi ile tam veri matrisi üzerinden yapılmıştır.

Bulgular

Bu bölümde sırasıyla, 2018-2019 eğitim öğretim yılı okul öncesi öğretmenliği programlarında okuyan ve çalışmaya katılan son sınıf öğretmen adaylarının Genel Kültür dersleri, Öğretmenlik Meslek Bilgisi dersleri ile Alan ve Alan Eğitimi derslerinin önemine dair yapmış oldukları sıralamalara yer verilmiş ve sonrasında bu sıralamaların, cinsiyet, akademik başarı ve mezun olunan lise türüne göre farklılık gösterip göstermediğine yönelik bulgular sunulmuştur.

Öğretmen adaylarının beyanlarına göre en fazla yarar sağlayan genel kültür derslerinin sıralamasını gösteren Tablo 2’ye ve eşit aralıklı ölçek üzerindeki sıralamayı gösteren Şekil 3’e göre Etkili İletişim dersi tüm öğretmen adayları tarafından en faydalı genel kültür dersi olarak görülmektedir. İstatistik dersinin ise belirgin bir farkla en az fayda sağlayan ders olduğu görülmektedir. Öğretmen adaylarına göre en fazla yarar sağlayan Öğretmenlik Meslek Bilgisi derslerinin sıralamasını gösteren Tablo 3’e ve eşit aralıklı ölçek üzerindeki sıralamayı gösteren Şekil 4’e göre tüm öğretmen adayları tarafından Öğretmenlik Uygulaması I dersinin diğer uygulama derslerine nazaran az farkla en fazla yarar sağlayan ders olduğu, Ölçme ve Değerlendirme dersinin ise belirgin farkla en az fayda sağlayan ders olduğu değerlendirilmiştir. Öğretmen adaylarına göre en fazla yarar sağlayan Alan ve Alan Eğitimi Derslerinin sıralamasını gösteren Tablo 4 ve eşit aralıklı ölçek üzerindeki sıralamayı gösteren Şekil 5’e göre tüm öğretmen adayları tarafından en faydalı A ve AE dersleri sırasıyla Okul Öncesi Eğitime Giriş ve Erken Çocukluk Döneminde Gelişim I dersleri olduğu görülmektedir. Bu sıralamada Psikoloji dersi üçüncü sırada yer almaktadır. Araştırma Projesi II dersi ise açık ara en az fayda sağlayan ders olarak değerlendirilmiştir.

Öğretmen adayları tarafından en fazla yarar sağlayan genel kültür derslerini, cinsiyet, akademik başarı ve okul türü olmak üzere 3 ana başlık altında gösteren tablolara göre öğretmen adaylarının sıralamalarında istatistiksel olarak bir farklılık bulunmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Diğer taraftan, genel kültür derslerinden Etkili İletişim dersi, cinsiyet, akademik başarı ve okul türü fark etmeksizin tüm gruplarda en fazla yarar sağlayan ders olarak ilk sırada yer almaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarına göre en fazla yarar sağlayan öğretmenlik meslek bilgisi dersleri; tabloya göre genel lise mezunu adaylar, meslek lisesi mezunu adaylar, akademik not ortalaması yüksek ve düşük olan öğretmen adayları ile kadın öğretmen adayları tarafından sırasıyla Öğretmenlik Uygulaması I ve Okul Deneyimi dersi olarak belirtilmiştir. Öğretmen adaylarına göre en fazla yarar sağlayan A ve AE derslerini, cinsiyet, not ortalaması ve mezun oldukları lise türüne göre gösteren tabloya göre “Okul Öncesi Eğitime Giriş” dersi cinsiyet fark

etmeksizin tüm adaylara, düşük not ortalamasına sahip adaylara ve meslek lisesi mezun öğretmen adaylarına göre en fazla yarar sağlayan ders olarak ilk sırada yer almaktadır.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Araştırma bulgularına göre Genel Kültür Dersleri kategorisinde tüm grup üzerinde yapılan ölçekleme çalışması sonucunda ilk sırada belirgin farkla Etkili İletişim dersi yer almıştır. Benzer bir çalışmada Şahin, Kartal ve İmamoğlu (2013) okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının Bilgisayar, Etkili İletişim ve Atatürk Tarihi ve İnkılap Tarihi dersini en etkili üç ders olarak ifade ettiğini belirtmişlerdir. 21. YY beceriler arasında gösterilen iletişim becerileri (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009; Saavedra & Opfer, 2012; Voogt & Pareja Roblin, 2010) MEB öğretmenlik mesleki yeterlilikleri içinde de yer almakta ve bir öğretmenin sahip olması gereken temel bir yeterlik olarak ifade edilmektedir (MoNE, 2017). ÖMB dersleri kategorisinde tüm grup üzerinde yapılan ölçekleme çalışması sonucunda ilk sırada belirgin bir biçimde Öğretmenlik Uygulaması I dersi yer almıştır. Okul Deneyimi dersi ile Öğretmenlik Uygulaması-II dersi ise ikinci ve üçüncü sırada yer almışlardır. Benzer bir çalışmada Şahin, Kartal ve İmamoğlu (2013) okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının Öğretmenlik Uygulaması I-II ve okul deneyimini en etkili üç meslek bilgisi dersi olarak ifade ettiğini belirtmişlerdir. A ve AE dersleri kategorisinde tüm grup üzerinde yapılan ölçekleme çalışması sonucunda ilk sırada Okul Öncesi Eğitime Giriş dersi, hemen arkasından ikinci sırada ise Erken Çocukluk Gelişimi ve Eğitimi I dersi yer almaktadır. Bu dersler okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının mesleğe giriş yaptığı ilk dönemlerde verilen dersler olup adayların okul öncesine yönelik olumlu tutum geliştirmesi için önemli bir role sahiptir. Bartan'ın (2019) çalışmasında, okul öncesi öğretmen adayları öğretmenlik uygulaması dersi esnasındaki uygulamalarında lisans eğitimi süresince aldıkları dersler içerisinde en fazla yararlandıkları alan dersi olarak okul öncesi eğitime giriş ve erken çocuklukta gelişim derslerini belirtmişlerdir.

Bu sonuçlar eğitim fakülteleri tarafından yapılandırılacak okul öncesi öğretmenliği lisans programlarında göz önünde bulundurulmalı ve en fazla yarar sağlayan derslere yönelik hem ders içeriğinin iyileştirilmesi hem de süresinin artırılarak bu derslerden verimin en üst seviye çıkarılması ve aynı zamanda öğretmen yeterlikleri ile ilişkilendirilecek şekilde derslerin yapılandırılmaları önerilmektedir. Bulgulara göre öğretmen adaylarının cinsiyeti, akademik başarıları ve mezun oldukları lise türleri derslere yönelik bakış açılarındaki farklılıklar oluşturmamaktadır. Bu bulgunun önemli olduğu düşünülmektedir çünkü demografik özellikler fark etmeksizin tüm öğretmen adaylarının etkili ve etkisiz dersler üzerinde görüş birliğinin olması bu derslerin kaldırılması veya daha üst seviyede verilmesi bakımından önemli bir gösterge olduğu düşünülmektedir.

Her bilimsel çalışmada olduğu gibi bu çalışmada da bazı sınırlılıklar mevcut olup sonuçların bu sınırlılıklar üzerinden değerlendirilmesi gerekmektedir. Türk Eğitim Sistemi ve Okul Yönetimi bazı lisans programlarında zorunlu bazılarında seçmeli olarak verildiği için ÖMB dersleri arasında verilmemiştir. Ölçekleme çalışmaları genellikle 8-10'lu sıralamalar şeklinde yapılmakta daha fazla sayılarda yapılan ölçeklemelerin güvenilirliği düşmektedir. Bu çalışmada da GK ve ÖMB bilgisi dersleri V. Hal üzerinden ölçeklenirken A ve AE dersleri III. Hal üzerinden ölçeklenmiştir. Bu bağlamda A ve AE derslerinin sıralamalarında hata payı daha yüksek olabilir. Bu nedenle bu gruba yönelik sıralamaların da dikkatli değerlendirilmesi önerilmektedir. Ayrıca bu çalışma sadece devlet üniversitelerinde okuyan öğrencileri kapsamaktadır ve vakıf öğrencilerinin görüşleri çalışmada yer almamıştır.

Öğrenciler, program geliştirme çalışmalarının önemli paydaşlarıdır ve bu çalışma, daha iyi öğretmen yetiştirme programları için erken çocukluk öğretmen adaylarının ulusal ölçekte sesini duyurmaya çalışmıştır.


Acknowledgment


For this research, the authors are not funded by an institution. Authors have used their financial sources.

Conflict of Interest

This research has been planned and conducted by the authors. There was no contribution from other people or the organizations that could create a conflict of interest.

History of the Flipped Classroom Model and Uses of the Flipped Classroom Concept

Nesibe AĞIRMAN, Atatürk University, nesibe.agirman@atauni.edu.tr,  0000-0002-2354-8250

M. Hanifi ERCOŞKUN, Atatürk University, ercoskun@atauni.edu.tr,  0000-0001-9932-3659

Keywords

Flipped classroom
Flipped classroom history
Inverted classroom
Reverse classroom

Article Info:

Received : 20-09-2021
Accepted : 05-04-2022
Published : 18-06-2022

DOI: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.004

Abstract

Flipped Classroom (FC) Model is an approach based on learning the simple and theoretical parts of a subject in extracurricular time through educational technologies and performing higher-level studies during class time. With the development and spread of educational technologies, the interest in the FC Model has increased. In the present study, we aimed to reveal the historical development of the FC Model, which is a current teaching model, and what kind of uses it has as a concept. The findings, which were put forward in line with this purpose, were reached by the document analysis method. With reference to the results of the research, although the ideas and practices that paved the way for the emergence of the FC Model are older, it could be said that the approach was expressed as a concept in its present form in 2000. In addition, it was revealed that the interest in the FC Model continued to increase over the years and it was expressed with several concepts. As a result of the investigation, it was determined that flipped classroom was the one used most among these concepts. Based on the results of the study, certain suggestions were made. It is expected that this research will contribute to the field in terms of revealing the historical development of the FC Model and the concepts in which the concept of FC is used in the literature.

To cite this article: Ağırman, N., & Ercoşkun, M. H. (2022). History of the flipped classroom model and uses of the flipped classroom concept. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 12(1), 71-88. doi: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.004

Introduction

Developing technology affects educational activities as it does in many areas of human life. In many parts of the world, educators try and propose new ideas and practices in order to carry out effective teaching activities in line with changing conditions and needs. Thanks to the developments in educational technologies, one of the procedures that educators have put

forward in recent years is the Flipped Classroom Model (FC Model). The FC Model is accepted as one of the blended learning models (Hayırsever & Orhan, 2018; Horn & Staker, 2014), which is expressed as the combination of online and face-to-face education (Graham, 2006).

FC Model is an approach based on learning the simple and theoretical parts of a subject in out-of-class time with the help of educational technologies and performing higher-level studies in the classroom (Baker, 2000; Bergmann & Sams, 2012). The FC Model can be called a reversal of the traditional teaching process because while the traditional understanding is that the teacher lectures in the classroom and then gives homework, the FC Model follows the lectures out-of-class time. It is based on doing the practices which can be homework in the classroom (Abeysekera & Dawson, 2015).

In the FC Model, students come to the classroom by learning the subject before the lesson, through online material (for example, video) containing the simple and theoretical parts of the subject. The teacher makes in-depth discussions, experiments, and activities such as problem-solving activities with students who come to the classroom knowing the subject to a great extent (Baker, 2000; Lage, Platt, & Treglia, 2000). In the FC Model, which generally proceeds in this way, the aim is to devote the course time to more qualified educational activities by eliminating the processes that do not need to be spent together with the teacher, because within the scope of the lessons, there are subjects that are appropriate for individual learning, and which can be comprehended by watching a video, listening to an audio recording or reading from a book. It was considered unnecessary to waste time in the classroom with these subjects and the idea that the lesson could start at home was adopted (Lage et al., 2000; Zownorega, 2013). Thus, both teachers and students have the opportunity to use the classroom environment more effectively. Therefore, the FC Model makes room for collaborative and interactive activities and studies that will allow the realization of high-level goals according to Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) by taking the simple parts of the subject out of the classroom. Moreover, all these are done without compromising the learning outcomes and content of the course (Baker, 2000).

The emergence of the FC Model, which is a current teaching model, has been in a process. Although it is accepted in the literature that Jonathan Bergmann and Aaron Sams, who taught chemistry at a high school in the USA in 2007, had an impact on the recognition of the model (Bates, Almekdash, & Gilchrest-Dunnam, 2017; Tucker, 2011). It is known that the expression of ideas and concepts that paved the way for the emergence of the FC Model dates back to earlier times (Baker, 2000). With the historical development of the model, the concept of FC has been expressed in different ways over the years. It is very important to know the historical development of the FC Model and whether there are different uses of the concept of FC and what they are, especially when scanning the literature on the subject. When the relevant literature is examined, only one source directly dealing with the history of the FC Model has been encountered (Bates, Almekdash, & Gilchrest-Dunnam, 2017). However, no comprehensive research has been encountered related to the usages they include as a concept. In the literature, it has been seen that researchers working on the subject briefly talk about these issues when they give information about the model (Carlisle, 2018; Hayırsever & Orhan, 2018; Little, 2015; Temizyürek & Ünlü, 2015). Therefore, we note that researchers who want to learn about the historical development of the FC Model and the uses of the FC concept should carefully examine the literature. For this reason, there is a need for research that comprehensively reveals the process of the FC Model from its emergence to the present and

the concepts which have been expressed in the meantime. It is expected that this research will shed light on the field in terms of revealing the historical development of the FC Model and the concepts used in the context of FC in literature, and it will contribute especially to the researchers who aim to work on this subject.

Purpose of the Research

The main purpose of this research is to reveal the historical development of the FC Model, and which concepts used in the context of FC in literature, and to make an evaluation and suggestions based on the results obtained. In this context, answers to the following questions were sought:

- How has the historical development of the FC Model been?
- What are the different uses of the FC concept in the literature?
- What is the frequency of use of FC concepts in the literature?

Method

Research Methods and Data Collection Process

In this study, document analysis method was employed. Document analysis is a qualitative research method in which printed and/or electronic documents containing information about the research subject are reviewed and evaluated with a systematic procedure (Bowen, 2009; Gross, 2018). The documents examined in this study were reached by scanning on the internet.

In the document analysis carried out to reveal the historical development of the FC Model, the following procedure was followed: The process started with the initial search on the web as *flipped classroom*. For this purpose, every document reached in the literature search provided access to other documents. A wide range of books and articles on the subject were overviewed. Retrieved data were analyzed key to priority status and evaluated chronologically and the results were presented.

The following procedure was followed in the document analysis to determine the uses of the concept of FC in the literature and which of these uses is/are more common: Articles in the Web of Science Core Collection, Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), Scopus and Science Direct databases were searched in order to determine the documents to be examined. The reason for choosing these databases is that they are databases of peer-reviewed journals on education in the international arena. In these databases, the concepts of FC and inverted classroom were the ones scanned first without quotation marks. The search was carried out in English between the years 2000-2021 over the article titles, abstracts, and keywords. The reason for choosing the year 2000 as the starting point to screen was that it was the year in which the concept of FC began to be expressed as a concept. Year range was identified to represent the time beginning from the date of the first use of the concept to the present day is included. Every different use that appeared in each scan was further screened with the same criteria again. Thus, every concept used to express the concept of FC was used as a medium to reach new concepts. In this way, different concepts used to express the concept of FC were identified. Scanning was ended when the data reached saturation.

After the concepts used to express FC were identified, a second scan was conducted to determine the most used ones. Each detected concept was scanned one by one by placing quotation marks in the Web of Science Core Collection database on August 28, 2021. The

search was carried out on the chapters (title, abstract, author keywords, and keywords plus) for the English articles between the years 2000-2021. The findings and results reached within the scope of the research are presented under the heading the results including the historical development of the FC Model, the uses of the FC concept, and the frequency of use of these concepts.

Validity and Reliability

It is very important to include reliable documents in the research to ensure validity and reliability in the document analysis method. Since documents such as books, graduate theses and published articles are reviewed by experts in their fields, they are accepted as valid and reliable data sources (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). In this context, books and articles related to the subject were examined during the research process. In particular, the articles examined were determined by scanning the databases of refereed journals related to education in the international arena, especially the SSCI. In qualitative research, the detailed explanation of how the researcher gathers the data and arrives at the results is another important criterion of validity and reliability (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). In particular, determining the protocol followed in document analysis studies is important to ensure the verifiability of the results (Bowen, 2009). In this context, it was aimed to increase the validity and reliability of the research by giving detailed information about the research process. The types of documents examined in the research, where and how they were accessed were explained in detail. When necessary, the reliability of the research results was aimed to be ensured by giving the link addresses of the direct scan results.

Limitations

In this research, the results of the use of the FC concept in the literature are limited to the documents obtained from the search made with Web of Science Core Collection, ERIC, Scopus, and Science Direct databases, English language, and article publication type. The results on identifying the most commonly used concept to express FC are limited to the documents reached on article publication type, and chapters (title, abstract, author keywords, and keywords plus) search on Web of Science Core Collection database, years 2000-2021, in English language. The fact that the literature review on the subject that it is carried out in different languages, types of publications, scanning areas, and that covers after 2021 may change the results.

Results

Historical Development of the FC Model

The ideas that paved the way for the emergence of the FC Model, which has a history of about twenty years, are older. In her study titled *From Sage on the Stage to Guide on the Side*, published in 1993, Alison King stated that academics in universities were almost a figure in the center of the classroom, that they conveyed their knowledge and taught their lessons without even making the students think too much about the subject. She called it the Transmittal Model. With her concept, she tried to express that the teacher was only the transmitter of knowledge. However, with reference to the constructivist approach, she emphasized that knowledge should be created by the individual, a new perspective, knowledge, product, way, and method should be put forward based on the knowledge at hand, and that in order to do

this, the role of the teacher should change from being the wise person in the center of the class and become a guide accompanying the process. In the literature, although this study of King (1993) does not directly express the concept of FC, it is accepted that it forms a serious background for him.

After King (1993), Eric Mazur, a professor at Harvard University in 1997, developed the peer teaching strategy entitled Peer Instruction. After knowing the basic concepts, this strategy, in which the lesson was conducted through peer teaching, played an important role in the development of the concepts affecting the FC Model (Crouch & Mazur, 2001).

It was the year 2000 in which the FC Model began to be expressed as a concept. There were two studies published on the subject in the same year. At the University of Cedarville, Dr. J. Wesley Baker, in 2000, emphasized the need for a model that connected pedagogy and technology, based on the change in educational philosophy and innovations in technology. He explained the purposes of this model, which he called *Classroom Flip*, as follows (Baker, 2000):

- To carry the factual and conceptual part of the lesson out of the classroom in order to be able to practice active learning strategies in the lesson.
- To give students more control over their own learning.
- To provide students with more opportunities to learn from their peers.
- Transform the duty of faculties from being an information center to a guide.

In the same year, University of Miami academicians Maureen J. Lage, Glenn J. Platt, and Michael Treglia used the FC Model in order to meet the needs of students with different learning styles and not having enough class hours for comprehensive course content. They carried out the procedure they referred to as *Inverted Classroom* as follows (Lage et al., 2000, p. 32-34):

The topics of the course were divided to be consistent with the course hours. FC Model was applied with 75-minute lessons twice a week. During the application, the students were asked to read the relevant part in the Microeconomics books before coming to the lesson. In addition, they were encouraged to watch the videos of the lecturers prepared by the lecturers or to listen to the PowerPoint presentations voiced by these lecturers. Access to course content was provided in several different ways. It was ensured that students could watch these recordings over the internet in the laboratories of the university or they could take the recordings and watch them at home if they wished. In addition, before the lesson, students were asked to prepare for worksheets with activities and questions consisting of basic content. The questions in these worksheets were examined through group discussion in the classroom, and the answers were checked. The lecturer started the lesson by asking the students who studied the subject in different resources whether they had questions that they could not answer confidently or could not understand and whether they wanted additional examples related to the subject. The students were informed in advance that if they did not have questions or requests, the instructor would act as if the subject was understood very well. After the questions were answered, an economic experiment was conducted on the subject. The lesson was carried out in more detail through the activity of putting a can of coke up for sale at auction. Worksheets with questions that require higher-level practice were prepared by the students during the course. Finally, if there were any questions, they were answered and the lesson was concluded. Considering that students' responsibilities increased thanks to this activity,

additional materials, course videos, presentations, and former exams were shared on the course page in order to help them.

Although the developed model was highly accepted by students and instructors, this first application, which was planned in such a detailed and rich way in the early 2000s, did not receive the expected attention. The widespread use of the FC Model took place approximately seven years after the applications of Baker (2000) and Lage et al. (2000). Jonathan Bergmann and Aaron Sams, who were chemistry teachers at Woodland Park High School in the USA in 2007, shared the PowerPoint presentations they used in the lesson and the videos they took while teaching the lesson on the internet in order to convey the lesson in full detail to those students when they could not come to the lesson for various reasons. Later, when they realized that it had some advantages over traditional teaching, they thought that this model could be applied to all students, not just those who could not attend the course. One of the advantages Bergmann and Sams (2012) noticed was that students whose academic level in the lesson was under the average of the class had the opportunity to stop the teacher in the video at their own pace, take notes and listen again whenever they wanted. The FC Model, which had similar positive results, has attracted the attention of teachers and academics in a short time thanks to the videos Bergmann and Sams (2012) put on the internet. In the following years, Bergmann and Sams published several books about the FC Model. Following their first book published in 2012 (Bergmann & Sams, 2012), it can be said that they contributed to the shining out of the model through the books they published on its use in different educational levels and disciplines (Bergmann & Sams, 2015b; Bergmann & Sams, 2015c; Bergmann & Sams, 2015d; Bergmann & Sams, 2015e).

The emergence process of the FC Model is summarized in Figure 1.

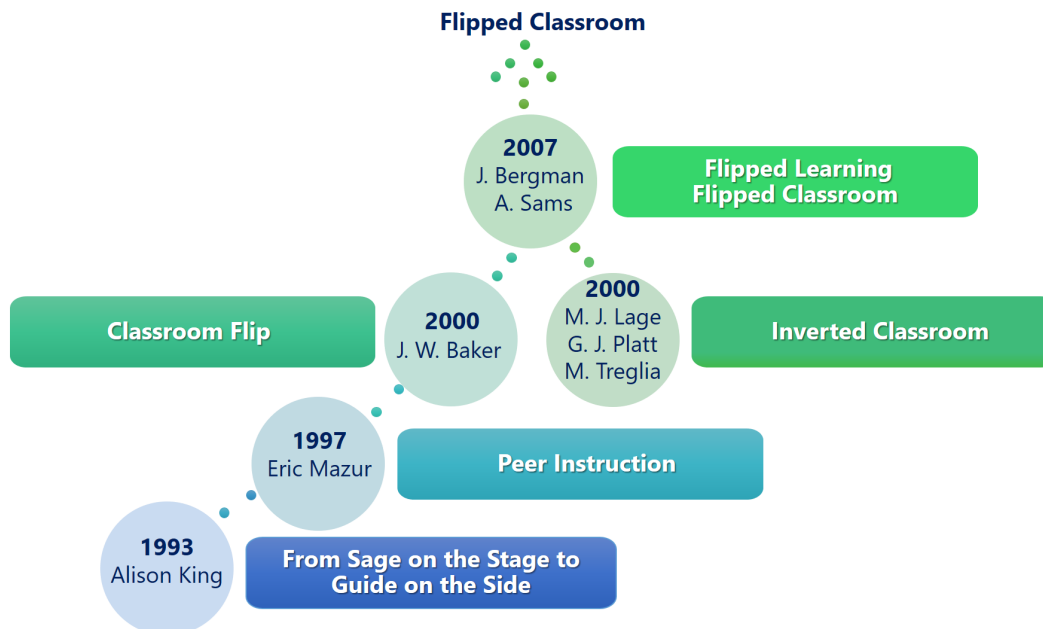


Figure 1. *The Emergence Process of the FC Model*

Research on the application of the FC Model at different levels of education and within the scope of different courses has gradually been increasing (Graham, 2006). In addition, certain schools have started teaching through this model or use the FC Model in their teaching activities. For example, MEF University in Turkey states that it is the first university in the world

that teaches with the full FC Model. The aforementioned university had its first graduates in 2018, who studied with this model in all its programs (Şahin, Fell Kurban, & Mazur, 2019).

The FC Model has been a recommended model to be combined with online learning in order to increase the efficiency in distance education in cases where face-to-face education cannot be performed, such as the Coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic, which started in China in 2019 and affected the whole world (Bozkurt, 2020). In summary, it can be said that the use of the FC Model continues to become widespread, even during the periods when face-to-face education is not available.

A literature review was conducted in order to reveal the distribution of research on the FC Model over the years. Based on the findings in Table 2, since the most commonly used concept is FC, the Web of Science Core Collection database was scanned with the concept of FC on September 6, 2021, in quotation marks. The search was carried out on the chapters (title, abstract, author keywords, and keywords plus) for the English articles between the years 2000-2021. The result obtained is given in Figure 1.

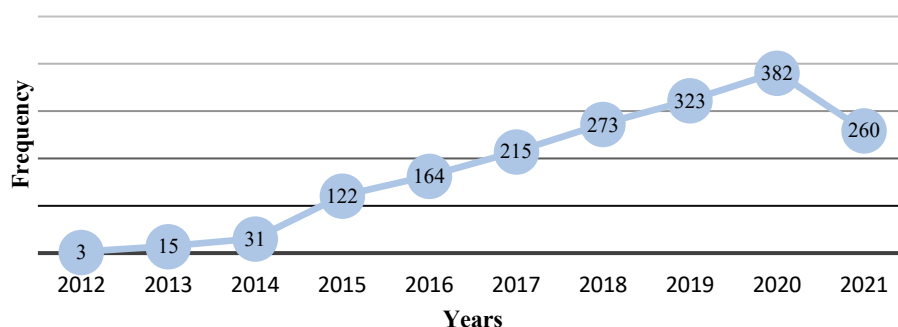


Figure 2. *Distribution of Articles on FC in the Web of Science Core Collection by Years*

The distribution of articles on FC by years is shown in Figure 2. The first article meeting the screening criteria in this database was published in 2012 and the number of studies has increased continuously since then. Based on this result, it could be said that the interest in the FC Model continues to increase steadily.

The increase in research on the subject has brought about different uses of FC as a concept. From the emergence of FC until today, the findings obtained from the research conducted to determine what kind of uses of the FC concept have been presented under the title of Uses of the FC Concept.

Uses of the FC Concept

Over the years, different expressions have been used in the literature to express the FC Model. As a result of the literature review, it was determined that the concepts in Table 1 were used to express the FC Model.

Table 1. *Uses of the FC Concept*

Concept	Sample Publication
Flipped Classroom	(Pierce & Fox, 2012)
Flip Classroom	(Li, Zhang, & Hu, 2018)
Flipping Classroom	(Wang, Jou, Lv, & Huang, 2018).
Flipped Class	(Wilson, 2013)

Table 1. (Cont.)

Classroom Flip	(Baker, 2000)
Flipped Learning	(Seery, 2015)
Flipped Approach	(Croy, Garvey, Willetts, Wheelahan, & Hood, 2020).
Flipped Pedagogy	(Valizadeh & Soltanpour, 2020)
Flipped Instruction	(Zhu, 2021)
Flipped Lessons	(Laura Angelini & García-Carbonell, 2019).
Flipped Lectures	(Wyatt, 2021)
Flipped Teaching	(Beason-Abmayr, Caprette, & Gopalan, 2021)
Flip Teaching	(Bachiller & Badía, 2020)
Flipped Education	(Alamry & Karaali, 2016)
Flip Education	(Jordan, Magrenan, & Orcos, 2019)
Inverted Classroom	(Cheng & Wang, 2021)
Inverted Learning	(Montoya & Hernandez, 2016)
Inverted Instruction	(Romero & Bobkina, 2021)
Inverted Teaching	(Christiansen, 2014)
Reverse Classroom	(Sherbino, Chan, & Schiff, 2013).
Reverse Teaching	(Nguyen, Yu, Japutra, & Chen, 2016).
Reverse Instruction	(Jones-Bonofiglio, Willett, & Ng, 2018).

As seen in Table 1, researchers used similar but different concepts to express the FC Model. These concepts were used in plain form or by taking phrases such as *model* (Tune, Sturek, & Basile, 2013), *method* (Etemi & Uzunboyulu, 2020), *strategy* (Elian & Hamidi, 2018), *technique* (Sage & Sele, 2015), *instruction* (Gong, Yang, & Cai, 2020), *approach* (Ö. Özyurt & H. Özyurt), *teaching model* (Zhang, 2018), *teaching method* (Jian, 2019), *teaching strategy* (Zeng, 2021), *teaching approach* (Fan, Tseng, Chao, Chen, & Jane, 2020). In addition, when searched it was found that different words were placed between these concepts in relation to their usages. The uses of *the flipped math classroom* (Moreno, Palacios, Barreras, & Pascual, 2020), and *the flipped geography lecture* (Zeren, 2016) could be shown as examples.

The results of the literature review conducted to determine the frequency of use of the concepts in Table 1 are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Frequency of Uses of the FC Concepts

Concept	f	Query link
Flipped Classroom	1782	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/abc181c9-a335-48fd-964e-0f11831f6fcc-05eae2c4/relevance/1
Flipped Learning	463	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/72a38d2e-6809-4c78-b50b-e7bbd27330a1-05eafdbb/relevance/1
Flipped Class	117	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/3526b55a-a108-4957-a279-7bc7764a4abe-05f36a38/relevance/1
Inverted Classroom	88	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/dec26ade-cbd8-464b-9342-dc54e567cd6e-05eb5846/relevance/1
Flipped Instruction	68	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/a8a272d6-83e5-497d-a7ae-5baa2a7ce340-05eb0c3b/relevance/1
Flipped Approach	56	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/7dc1c88f-ce6b-4c85-b9f2-24dd9bd6391c-05eb010b/relevance/1
Flipped Teaching	56	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/f1f55cc7-e060-4745-8c63-77913c6eb50c-05eb1e7e/relevance/1
Flip Teaching	18	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/12cc2019-705c-456e-8471-3286b4358b19-05eb55fd/relevance/1

Table 2. (Cont.)

Flipped Pedagogy	14	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/d4259c74-85a8-41df-bc87-b0a3d62f69dd-05eb04e2/relevance/1
Flip Classroom	11	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/1b5007a7-264d-4fc8-ac05-aeaa5f9b8913-06244d99/relevance/1
Flipping Classroom	10	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/215f47ce-0b7b-4327-9560-ff6c0686b8c3-05eaf9a8/relevance/1
Inverted Learning	8	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/b4a6a4ed-1389-4dc9-a416-c7360f953892-05eb5a9f/relevance/1
Flipped Lessons	7	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/5c079f6c-f36b-42cf-971c-973383b89e97-05eb1209/relevance/1
Flipped Education	6	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/dadd14d3-1867-4848-8d92-6ed2e02318ac-05eb25f4/relevance/1
Flipped Lectures	5	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/e2932a70-6803-49a3-b5ad-8bc67eb373fd-05eb18f4/relevance/1
Classroom Flip	4	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/b95f6447-d517-4105-9b62-c5d6e50f9915-05eb2104/relevance/1
Inverted Instruction	4	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/52641db1-9301-4ee8-93fa-86297e4baf20-05eb5cc9/relevance/1
Inverted Teaching	4	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/c1f209ce-6e15-476a-9eb1-69d561c8f51d-05eb5fd4/relevance/1
Reverse Teaching	4	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/58a86d92-04af-4a05-be88-78dedc77065f-070ef0a5/relevance/1
Flip Education	3	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/dc8db8e9-198c-4192-97d5-d8c503a2837f-05eb2337/relevance/1
Reverse Classroom	3	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/a351a52b-f444-49cd-a090-0bb61b9d614a-070eab6e/relevance/1
Reverse Instruction	3	https://www.webofscience.com/wos/woscc/summary/1777dfe3-0e81-430e-9272-ebe5a9658ea1-070fbb62/relevance/1

When the results in Table 2 are examined, it is seen that the concept of FC is mostly used. It is revealed that the concepts of flipped learning, flipped class and inverted classroom are the most widely used concepts after FC, respectively.

Discussion, Conclusion, and Implications

Within the scope of this research, it was aimed to reveal the historical development of the FC Model and which concepts were used in the literature to express the concept of FC over the years. The information presented about the historical development of the FC Model, for the purpose of the study was obtained through document review, and the information presented about the use of the FC concept was obtained through literature review. The following conclusions were inferred from the information obtained.

The first result obtained from the research is that the FC Model is a current teaching model with a history of approximately 20 years. Although the ideas that paved the way for the emergence of the model date back to earlier, it was in 2000 that the FC Model began to be expressed as a concept (Baker, 2000; Lage et al., 2000). The model started to become widespread in 2007. Thanks to the videos posted by Jonathan Bergmann and Aaron Sams, who were chemistry teachers at Woodland Park High School in the USA in 2007, the FC Model soon attracted the attention of teachers and academics. Key to the results obtained from the research, it can be said that the interest in the FC Model continues to increase.

With the increasing interest in the FC Model over the years, the concepts used to express the model in the literature have also varied. As a result of the scanning, twenty-two concepts that are close to each other but different from each other were identified. It has been observed that these concepts have diversified through the basic structures of flipped classroom, inverted classroom and reverse classroom. In addition, by far the most common usage in this variety is the concept of FC. Following FC, the most commonly used concepts are flipped learning, flipped class and inverted classroom.

When the research results are evaluated as a whole, it can be said that although the FC Model is a teaching model with a history of about 20 years, it has quite different uses as a concept. This situation complicates the literature review process, especially for new researchers interested in the subject and educators who want to learn about the model. In addition, if the researchers who have a good comprehension of the subject do a search with a few concepts that are widely used following the current literature and/or conducting systematic reviews, it may cause them not to analyze the literature thoroughly. In order to prevent this, it is recommended to use all of the concepts revealed by the research results as keywords. In addition, in order to reach unity as a concept, it is recommended to use the concept of FC in studies to be carried out on this subject.

In summary, it is thought that the results of this research will shed light on the field in terms of revealing the historical development of the FC Model and the concepts used in the context of FC in literature. Particularly, it is expected to contribute to the researchers who already work and for the ones who will start working on this subject.

References

- Abeysekera, L., & Dawson, P. (2014). Motivation and cognitive load in the flipped classroom: Definition, rationale and a call for research. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 34(1), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2014.934336>
- Alamry, A., & Karaali, A. (2016). Flipped education: Transitioning to the homeschool environment. *Cogent Education*, 3(1), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2016.1224607>
- Anderson, L.W., & Krathwohl, D.R. (Eds.) (2001). *A Taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: A revision of bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives*. New York, NY: Longman.
- Bachiller, P., & Badía, G. (2020). The flip teaching as tool to improving students' sustainable learning performance in a financial course. *Sustainability*, 12(23), 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12239998>
- Baker, J. W. (2000). *The "Classroom Flip": Using web course management tools to become the guide by the side*. Paper presented at the 11th International Conference on College Teaching and Learning, Jacksonville, FL.
- Bates, J. E., Almekdash, H., & Gilchrest-Dunnam, M. J. (2017). The flipped classroom: A brief, brief history. In L. S. Green, J. R. Banas, & R. A. Perkins (Eds.), *The flipped college classroom: Conceptualized and re-conceptualized* (pp. 3-10). Gewerbestrasse, Cham: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-41855-1_1
- Beason-Abmayr, B., Caprette, D. R., & Gopalan, C. (2021). Flipped teaching eased the transition from face-to-face teaching to online instruction during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Advances in Physiology Education* 45(2), 384–389. <https://doi.org/10.1152/advan.00248.2020>
- Bergmann, J., & Sams, A. (2012). *Flip your classroom: Reach every student in every class every day*. Oregon, Washington: ISTE.
- Bergmann, J., & Sams, A. (2015a). *The flipped learning for elementary instruction*. Oregon, Washington: ISTE.
- Bergmann, J., & Sams, A. (2015b). *The flipped learning for English instruction*. Oregon, Washington: ISTE.
- Bergmann, J., & Sams, A. (2015c). *The flipped learning for math instruction*. Oregon, Washington: ISTE.
- Bergmann, J., & Sams, A. (2015d). *The flipped learning for science instruction*. Oregon, Washington: ISTE.
- Bergmann, J., & Sams, A. (2015e). *The flipped learning for social studies instruction*. Washington: ISTE.
- Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27-40. <https://doi.org/10.3316/QRJ0902027>
- Bozkurt, A. (2020). Koronavirüs (Covid-19) pandemi süreci ve pandemi sonrası dünyada eğitime yönelik değerlendirmeler: Yeni normal ve yeni eğitim paradigması. *Açıköğretim Uygulamaları ve Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 6(3), 112-142. <https://doi.org/10.29065/usakead.777652>
- Carlisle, C. S. (2018). *How the flipped classroom impacts students' math achievement*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Trevecca Nazarene University, Nashville, USA.
- Cheng, J., & Wang, X. (2021). Artificial intelligence based on effectiveness of inverted classroom teaching of college sports. *Journal of intelligent & Fuzzy Systems*, 40(2), 3755-3765. <https://doi.org/10.3233/JIFS-189409>

- Christiansen, M. A. (2014). Inverted teaching: Applying a new pedagogy to a university organic chemistry class. *Journal of Chemical Education*, 91(11), 1845-1850. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ed400530z>
- Crouch, C., & Mazur, E. (2001). Peer instruction: Ten years of experience and results. *American Association of Physics Teachers*, 69(9), 970-977. <https://doi.org/10.1119/1.1374249>
- Croy, G., Garvey, L., Willetts, G., Wheelahan, J., & Hood, K. (2020). Anxiety, flipped approach and self-efficacy: Exploring nursing student outcomes. *Nurse Education Today*, 93, 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2020.104534>
- Elian, S. A., & Hamaidi, D. A. (2018). The effect of using flipped classroom strategy on the academic achievement of fourth grade students in Jordan. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning*, 13(2), 110-125. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v13i02.7816>
- Etemi, B. P., & Uzunboylu, H. (2020). The effects of flipped learning method on students' perception and learning of java programming. *International Journal of Engineering Education*, 36(4), 1372-1382.
- Gross, J. M. S. (2018). Document analysis. In B. B. Frey (Ed.), *The SAGE encyclopedia of educational research, measurement, and evaluation* (pp. 544-548). Thousand Oaks, NY: SAGE Publications <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781506326139>
- Gong, D., Yang, H. H., & Cai, J. (2020). Exploring the key influencing factors on college students' computational thinking skills through flipped-classroom instruction. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 17(19), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-020-00196-0>
- Graham, C. R. (2006). Blended learning systems: Definition, current trends, and future directions. In Bonk, C. J. & Graham, C. R. (Eds.), *Handbook of blended learning: global perspectives, local designs* (pp. 3-21). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.
- Hayirsever, F., & Orhan, A. (2018). A theoretical analysis of flipped learning. *Mersin University Journal of the Faculty of Education*, 14(2), 572-596. <https://doi.org/10.17860/mersinefd.431745>
- Horn, M. B., & Staker, H. (2014). *Blended: Using disruptive innovation to improve schools*. New Jersey: Josey Bass.
- Jian, Q. (2019). Effects of digital flipped classroom teaching method integrated cooperative learning model on learning motivation and outcome. *The Electronic Library*, 37(5), 842-859. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EL-02-2019-0024>
- Jones-Bonofiglio, K. D., Willett, T., & Ng, S. (2018). An evaluation of flipped e-learning experiences. *Medical Teacher*, 40(9), 953-961. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159X.2017.1417577>
- Jordan, C., Magrenan, A. A., & Orcos, L. (2019). Considerations about flip education in the teaching of advanced mathematics. *Education Sciences*, 9(3), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci9030227>
- King, A. (1993). From sage on the stage to guide on the side. *College Teaching*, 41(1), 30-35. <https://doi.org/10.1080/87567555.1993.9926781>
- Lage, M. J., Platt, G. J., & Treglia, M. (2000). Inverting the classroom: A gateway to creating an inclusive learning environment. *The Journal of Economic Education*, 31(1), 30-43. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220480009596759>

- Laura Angelini, M., & García-Carbonell, A. (2019). Enhancing students' written production in English through flipped lessons and simulations. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 16(2), 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-019-0131-8>
- Li, J., Zhang, X., & Hu, Z. (2018). The design and application of flip classroom teaching based on computer technology. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning*, 13(10), 95-107. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v13i10.9453>
- Little, C. (2015) The flipped classroom in further education: literature review and case study, *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 20(3), 265-279, <https://doi.org/10.1080/13596748.2015.1063260>
- Montoya, M. S. R., & Hernandez, D. C. R. (2016). Inverted learning environments with technology, innovation and flexibility: Student experiences and meanings. *Journal of Information Technology Research*, 9(1), 18-33. <https://doi.org/10.4018/JITR.2016010102>
- Moreno, D., Palacios, A., Barreras, A., & Pascual, V. (2020). An assessment of the impact of teachers' digital competence on the quality of videos developed for the flipped math classroom. *Mathematics*, 8(2), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.3390/math8020148>
- Nguyen, B., Yu, X., Japutra, A., & Chen, C. H. S. (2016). Reverse teaching: Exploring student perceptions of "flip teaching". *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 17(1), 51-61. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787415616727>
- Özyurt, Ö., & Özyurt, H. (2017). A qualitative study about enriching programming and algorithm teaching with flipped classroom approach. *Pegem Journal of Education and Instruction*, 7(2), 189-210. <https://doi.org/10.14527/pegegog.2017.007>
- Pierce, R., & Fox, J. (2012). Vodcasts and active-learning exercises in a "Flipped Classroom" model of a renal pharmacotherapy module. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 76(10), 1-5. <https://doi.org/10.5688/ajpe7610196>
- Romero, E. D., & Bobkina, J. (2021). Exploring the perceived benefits and drawbacks of using multimodal learning objects in pre-service English teacher inverted instruction. *Education and Information Technologies*, 26(3), 2961-2980. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-020-10386-y>
- Seery, M. K. (2015). Flipped learning in higher education chemistry: emerging trends and potential directions. *Chemistry Education Research and Practice*, 16(4), 758-768. <https://doi.org/10.1039/C5RP00136F>
- Sherbino, J., Chan, T., & Schiff, K. (2013). The reverse classroom: Lectures on your own and homework with faculty. *Canadian Journal of Emergency Medicine*, 15(3), 179-181. <https://doi.org/10.2310/8000.2013.130996>
- Snyder, H. (2019). Literature review as a research methodology: An overview and guidelines. *Journal of business research*, 104, 333-339. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.07.039>
- Şahin, M., Fell Kurban, C., & Mazur, E. (2019). *The new university model: Flipped, adaptive, digital and active learning (FADAL)*. Texas: FL Global.
- Tucker, B. (2011). The flipped classroom. *Education Next*. 12(1). Retrieved from <https://www.educationnext.org/the-flipped-classroom/>
- Tune, J. D., Sturek, M., & Basile, D. P. (2013). Flipped classroom model improves graduate student performance in cardiovascular, respiratory, and renal physiology. *Advances in Physiology Education*, 37(4), 316-320. <https://doi.org/10.1152/advan.00091.2013>
- Valizadeh, M., & Soltanpour, F. (2020). The flipped pedagogy: Effects on the grammatical competence and writing skill of basic users of English. *International Journal of Instruction*, 13(3), 761-776. <https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2020.13351a>

- Wang, J., Jou, M., Lv, Y., & Huang, C. C. (2018). An investigation on teaching performances of model-based flipping classroom for physics supported by modern teaching Technologies. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 84, 36-48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2018.02.018>
- Wilson, S. G. (2013). The flipped class: A method to address the challenges of an undergraduate statistics course. *Teaching of Psychology*, 40(3), 193-199. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0098628313487461>
- Wyatt, P. (2021). Active learning: From flipped lectures to the covid-19 era. *Future of Chemical Education*, 75(1-2), 14-17. <https://doi.org/10.2533/chimia.2021.14>
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2018). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri* (11. baskı). Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Zeng, C. (2021). Application of large-scale cognitive social networks based on cooperative transmission mechanisms in exploration of flipped classroom teaching strategy. *Complexity*, 2021, 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/8988165>
- Zeren, M. G. (2016). The flipped geography lecture. *Marmara Geographical Review*, (33), 25-57. <https://doi.org/10.14781/mcd.79389>
- Zhang, L. L. (2018). English flipped classroom teaching model based on cooperative learning. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 18(6), 3652-3661. <https://doi.org/10.12738/estp.2018.6.278>
- Zhu, G. (2021). Is flipping effective? A meta-analysis of the effect of flipped instruction on K-12 students' academic achievement. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 69(2), 733-761. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11423-021-09983-6>
- Zownorega, J. S. (2013). *Effectiveness of flipping the classroom in a honors level, mechanics-based physics class*. (Unpublished master's dissertation). Eastern Illinois University, Charleston, USA.



Ters Yüz Sınıf Modeli'nin Tarihi ve Ters Yüz Sınıf Kavramının Kullanımları

Giriş

Gelişen teknoloji insan hayatının pek çok alanında olduğu gibi; eğitim öğretim faaliyetlerini de etkilemektedir. Değişen hayat şartları ve ihtiyaçlarla uyumlu, etkili öğretim faaliyetleri gerçekleştirebilmek için uluslararası düzeyde farklı araştırmacılar, yeni fikir ve uygulamalar denemekte ve önermektedir. Eğitsel teknolojinin son yıllarda ortaya koyduğu uygulamalardan biri de Ters Yüz Sınıf [(TYS)-Flipped Classroom (FC)] Modeli'dir. TYS Modeli, çevrimiçi ve yüz yüze eğitimin birleştirilmesi olarak ifade edilen (Graham, 2006) harmanlanmış öğrenme modellerinden biri olarak kabul edilmektedir (Hayırsever & Orhan, 2018; Horn & Staker, 2014).

Geleneksel eğitimin tersi olarak adlandırılabilen bu uygulama teorik bölümlerin ders dışı zamanda öğrenilmesine dayanmaktadır. Üst düzey, karmaşık ve uygulamaya dayalı etkinlikler ise eğitim öğretim sürecinde yapılmaktadır. Sürecin işleyişine bağlı olarak Abeysekera ve Dawson bu modeli TYS Modeli olarak tanımlamaktadır. Çünkü geleneksel anlayış öğretmenin sınıfta dersi anlatması ve ardından ev ödevi vermesi şeklinde ilerlerken; TYS Modeli, ders anlatımının ders dışında izlenmesi; ödev olabilecek uygulamaların ise sınıfta yapılması mantığı üzerine kuruludur (Abeysekera & Dawson, 2015).

Son yıllarda eğitim teknolojilerinin gelişmesi ve yaygınlaşması ile birlikte TYS Modeli'ne olan ilgi artmıştır. Bu kapsamda TYS Modeli'nin tarihsel gelişimi ve özellikle konu ile ilgili literatür taranırken FC kavramının farklı anlamları ve kullanım alanları dikkatlice gözden geçirilmelidir. Bunların neler olduğunun bilinmesi oldukça önemlidir. İlgili literatür incelendiğinde doğrudan TYS Modeli'nin tarihini konu edinen yalnızca bir kaynağa rastlanmış (Bates, Almekdash, & Gilchrest-Dunnam, 2017); kavram olarak ne tür kullanımlarının olduğunu konu edinen kapsamlı bir araştırmaya ise rastlanmamıştır. Literatürde ağırlıklı olarak, konu ile ilgili çalışan araştırmacıların model hakkında bilgi verirken bu konulardan kısaca bahsettikleri görülmüştür (Carlisle, 2018; Hayırsever & Orhan, 2018; Little, 2015; Temizyürek & Ünlü, 2015). Dolayısıyla TYS Modeli'nin tarihsel gelişimi ve FC kavramının kullanımları hakkında bilgi edinmek isteyen araştırmacıların literatürü dikkatli olarak incelemesi gerektiği fark edilmiştir. Bu nedenle TYS Modeli'nin ortaya çıkışından bugüne kadar geçirdiği süreci ve mevcut literatürde zaman içerisinde hangi kavramlarla ifade edildiğini ortaya koyan bir araştırmaya ihtiyaç olduğu düşünülmüştür.

Araştırmanın Amacı

Bu araştırmanın temel amacı TYS Modeli'nin tarihsel gelişimi ve FC kavramının literatürde hangi kavramlar ile kullanıldığını ortaya koymaktır. Bu kapsamda aşağıdaki sorulara cevap aranmıştır:

- TYS Modeli'nin tarihsel gelişim süreci nasıl bir yol izlemektedir?

- FC kavramının literatürdeki farklı kullanımları nelerdir?
- Literatürde FC kavramlarının kullanım sıklıkları nelerdir?

Yöntem

Bu araştırmada doküman analizi yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Doküman analizi, araştırma konusu hakkında bilgi içeren basılı ve/veya elektronik belgelerin sistematik bir prosedür ile gözden geçirilip değerlendirildiği bir nitel araştırma yöntemidir (Bowen, 2009; Gross, 2018). Bu araştırma kapsamında incelenen dokümanlara internet üzerinden yapılan tarama ile ulaşılmıştır.

FC Modeli'nin tarihsel gelişimini ortaya koymak amacıyla yapılan doküman analizinde şu prosedür izlenmiştir: Webde *FC* şeklinde yapılan ilk arama ile süreç başlamıştır. Bu amaçla yapılan literatür taramasında ulaşılan her doküman, başka dokümanlara ulaşılmasını sağlamıştır. Konu ile ilgili çok sayıda kitap ve makale incelenmiştir. Ulaşılan veriler öncelik sonralık durumlarına göre analiz edilmiş; kronolojik olarak değerlendirilmiş ve sonuçlar sunulmuştur.

FC kavramının literatürdeki kullanımlarını ve bu kullanımlar arasından hangisinin/hangilerinin daha yaygın olduğunu belirlemek amacıyla yapılan doküman analizinde ise şu prosedür izlenmiştir: İncelenecek dokümanları belirlemek için Web of Science Core Collection, Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), Scopus ve Science Direct veri tabanlarındaki makaleler taranmıştır. Bu veri tabanlarında ilk olarak FC ve inverted classroom kavramları tırnak içerisine alınmadan taranmıştır. Tarama 2000-2021 yılları arasından makale başlıkları, özeti ve anahtar kelimeleri üzerinden; İngilizce dilinde yapılmıştır. Bu kriterlerde yapılan her tarama sonucunda çıkan her farklı kullanım, aynı tarama kriterleri ile tekrar yapılmıştır. Böylece FC kavramını ifade etmek için kullanılan her kavram, yeni kavramlara ulaşmada araç olarak kullanılmıştır. Bu sayede TYS Modeli'ni ifade etmek için kullanılan farklı kavramlar tespit edilmiştir. Veri doygunluğa ulaşıncaya tarama sonlandırılmıştır.

Yapılan ilk literatür taraması sonucunda ulaşılan kavramların kullanım yaygınlık durumunu belirlemek amacıyla ikinci kez tarama yapılmıştır. Ulaşılan her kavram 28 Ağustos 2021 tarihinde Web of Science Core Collection veri tabanında tırnak içine alınarak ayrı ayrı taratılmıştır. Tarama 2000-2021 yılları arasında İngilizce makaleler üzerinden başlıkta özet ve anahtar kelimelerde yapılmıştır.

Bulgular

Araştırma sonuçlarına göre TYS Modeli'nin ortaya çıkmasına zemin hazırlayan fikir ve uygulamalar daha eskiye dayansa da; kavram olarak bugünkü şekliyle ifade edilmesinin 2000 yılında olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca yıllar içerisinde TYS Modeli'ne olan ilginin artarak devam ettiği ve bununla birlikte TYS Modelinin yirmi iki farklı kavram ile ifade edildiği ortaya konulmuştur. Yapılan inceleme sonucunda, bu kavramlar arasından en çok FC'nin kullanıldığı belirlenmiştir. Sırasıyla flipped learning, flipped class ve inverted classroom kavramlarının FC'den sonra en yaygın kullanımı olan kavramlar olduğu ortaya konulmuştur.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Araştırmadan elde edilen ilk sonuç TYS Modeli'nin yaklaşık 20 yıllık bir geçmişe sahip olan güncel bir öğretim modeli olduğudur. Modelin ortaya çıkmasına zemin hazırlayan fikirler daha

eskiye dayansa da TYS Modeli'nin kavram olarak ifade edilmeye başlaması 2000 yılında olmuştur (Baker, 2000; Lage vd., 2000). Modelin yaygınlaşmaya başlaması ise 2007 yılında olmuştur. İki bin yedi yılında Amerika'da Woodland Park High School'da kimya öğretmenliği yapan Jonathan Bergmann ve Aaron Sams'ın, sanal ortamda yayınladığı ders videoları sayesinde TYS Modeli kısa zamanda öğretmenler ve akademisyenler tarafından ilgi görmüştür. Araştırmadan elde edilen sonuçlara göre TYS Modeli'ne olan ilginin her geçen gün artarak devam ettiği söylenebilir.

Yıllar içerisinde TYS Modeli'ne artan ilgi ile birlikte, literatürde modeli ifade etmek için kullanılan kavramlar da çeşitlilik göstermiştir. Yapılan tarama sonucunda kavramın İngilizce'de birbirine yakın fakat farklı yirmi iki kavramla ifade edildiği görülmüştür. Bu kavramların FC, inverted classroom ve reverse classroom temel yapıları üzerinden çeşitlendiği görülmüştür. Ayrıca bu çeşitlilik içerisinde açık ara farkla en yaygın olan kullanım FC kavramıdır. FC'den sonra sırasıyla en yaygın kullanımı olan kavramlar flipped learning, flipped class ve inverted classroom kavramlarıdır.

Araştırma sonuçları bir bütün olarak değerlendirildiğinde TYS Modeli'nin yaklaşık 20 yıllık geçmişe sahip olan bir öğretim modeli olmasına rağmen; kavram olarak oldukça farklı kullanımlara sahip olduğu söylenebilir. Bu durum özellikle konu ile ilgilenen yeni araştırmacılar ve model hakkında bilgi sahibi olmak isteyen eğitimciler için literatür inceleme sürecini karmaşık hale getirmektedir. Ayrıca konuya hakim olan araştırmacıların, güncel literatürü takip ederken ve/veya sistematik inceleme türü araştırmalar yürütürken, yaygın kullanımı olan birkaç kavram ile tarama yapmaları halinde, literatüre tam olarak hakim olamamalarına neden olabilmektedir. Bunun önüne geçmek için araştırma sonuçları ile ortaya konan kavramların tamamının anahtar kelime olarak kullanılması önerilmektedir. Ayrıca kavram olarak bir birlikteliğe varmak için bu konuda yapılacak çalışmalarda FC kavramının kullanılması önerilmektedir.


Özetle bu araştırma sonuçlarının TYS Modeli'nin tarihsel gelişimi ve FC kavramının literatürde hangi kavramlarla kullandığını ortaya koyması açısından alandaki önemli bir eksikliği giderdiği düşünülmektedir. Özellikle bu konuda çalışan ve çalışmaya başlayacak olan araştırmacılara katkılarının olması beklenmektedir.

Acknowledgment

We would like to thank Atatürk University for providing access to the Web of Science Core Collection, ERIC, Scopus, and Science Direct databases within the scope of this research.

Student Teachers' Experiences in an Emergency Remote Microteaching Course: Lessons Learned for the COVID-19 Era and Beyond

Senem Sanal-Erginel, Final International University, senem.erginel@final.edu.tr,

 0000-0003-1956-583X

Keywords

Emergency remote
Microteaching
Initial teacher education
COVID-19

Article Info:

Received : 30-09-2021
Accepted : 07-05-2022
Published : 18-06-2022

DOI: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.005

Abstract

This case study, within the qualitative research paradigm, aimed to focus on the student teachers' experiences in an emergency remote microteaching course that was offered as an undergraduate course at a university in Northern Cyprus during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. The qualitative data, that were gathered from 10 volunteering student teachers through written feedback forms and semi-structured interviews, revealed that the student teachers improved their instructional knowledge and skills. They also stated that they developed self-awareness on their teaching skills. However, the data also indicated that the student teachers felt lost, overwhelmed, and disappointed during this emergency remote microteaching course. The lack of interaction during synchronous lessons, problems and shortages concerning digital devices and skills, and the lack of appropriate learning environments for remote learning led the student teachers to feel lost. Also, the demanding nature of the course with a high number of assignments, as well as its focus on course completion, proved to be overwhelming for the student teachers. Additionally, the data indicated that the lack of authenticity in learning practices and the mismatch between the student teachers' pre-COVID expectations from the course and the realities of emergency remote education led to disappointment. The study suggests improvements, and recommends further research on remote microteaching courses in initial teacher education.

To cite this article: Sanal-Erginel, S. (2022). Student teachers' experiences in an emergency remote microteaching course: Lessons learned for the COVID-19 era and beyond. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 12(1), 89-112. doi: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.005

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic and the subsequent lockdowns across the world had tremendous effects on education, particularly during the first wave of the pandemic. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO) report (2020), more than 1.58 billion learners in 192 countries have been affected by school and university closures. The report prepared by the Economist (2020) on the effects of the pandemic on higher education confirmed that this global-scale crisis has pushed educators to digital learning platforms, often prematurely without sufficient preparation for remote teaching.

Like many higher education institutions, the University where this study took place had to go through the spring term of the 2019-2020 academic year. In this period, the University managed to switch all of its education to emergency remote education in about ten days after the complete lockdown of the country in March 2020. This was a significant challenge for many, particularly for students and educators. The undergraduate course that is entitled 'Microteaching' was offered to sophomore year student teachers in the spring semester of the 2019-2020 academic year. This course was an elective course in the Faculty of Education's English Language Teaching (ELT). The pre-COVID-19 version of the course included microteaching practice during the course tutorials and in authentic settings in the language classrooms of the University. The course also involved authentic classroom observations. However, due to the sudden lockdown and the total closure of the University campus, like all the other courses, this course was shifted to a digital platform. Consequently, in this period, the University hierarchy decided that all the remote courses had to maintain their original pre-COVID course objectives, course structure, assessment, and evaluation procedures without making substantial changes.

Microteaching is a form of teaching that lasts between 5 to 20 minutes, in which student teachers practice their teaching skills, improve classroom performance and experiment with innovative teaching ideas in safe environments. Essentially, it is "... a system of controlled practice that makes it possible to focus on specific teaching behaviors and to practice teaching under controlled conditions" (Allen & Eve, 1968, p. 181). It is true that microteaching is not an authentic act of teaching and that it cannot replace actual teaching in real classrooms (Shi, 2020; Wallace, 1991). Nevertheless, it is a highly beneficial learning process as it provides a worthwhile opportunity for prospective teachers to teach, learn and develop themselves (Kleinfled & Noordhoff, 1988; 1990, as cited in Hatton & Smith, 1995). Furthermore, microteaching provides valuable practices such as close supervision, immediate guidance, diagnostic feedback, and self-evaluation (Allen & Eve, 1968).

Recording microteaching, which is accepted as part of the microteaching process, allows opportunities for teacher candidates to observe, analyze, and reflect on their teaching (Wallace, 1991); therefore, it helps to progress their instructional skills (Kpanja, 2001). Reflection on recorded microteaching is regarded as a valuable strategy to encourage collaborative inquiry among prospective teachers (Weiss & Weiss, 2001). Watching and reflecting on self-teaching and on peers' teaching help to create a collaborative learning environment for prospective teachers (Taggart & Wilson, 2005). An empirical study revealed that observing own recorded teaching and engaging in dialogue enabled student teachers to improve their reflection on their teaching practice and to become aware of their professional skills and competences (Kuter, Gazi, & Aksal, 2012). Teachers' reflective learning stimulates their engagement in

professional learning and the development of teacher competences that includes pedagogical knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Caena, 2013). In addition to reflection on own teaching, in teacher education, video excerpts are also used to enable student teachers to observe others' teaching and to engage in reflective dialogue with peers (Bampffield, Lubelska, & Matthews, 1997).

Engagement in collaborative inquiry, which is the key in reflective practice, is regarded as a process of transformation, in which student teachers evaluate and reconstruct their conception of instruction (Miller, 1990, as cited in Sanal-Erginel, 2009). Dialogue with competent friends as in Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD) maximizes growth (Yost, Sentner, & Forlenza-Bailey, 2000). An empirical study revealed that involvement in continuous self-reflection enabled student teachers to develop self-awareness towards their teaching styles and to understand their preferences in teaching (Sanal-Erginel, 2009). Self-inquiry and self-awareness as part of the dialogic process empower students to look critically and to become conscious of their personal and social reality about their teaching competences. This enables them to overcome their ignorance and dependence so that they could break the "culture of silence" (Freire, 2005, p. 30). However, during the emergency remote education in the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic, the collaborative and dialogic learning environment has been affected. A recent study on an online practicum course revealed that the teacher educators in this period helped student teachers to learn "*about* practice" rather than "*in* practice" while emphasizing the absence of reflective learning in this process (Kidd & Murray, 2020, p. 552).

Darling-Hammond and Hyler (2020) explained that, in the first wave of the pandemic, more was needed to meet the students' academic and social-emotional needs and prepare them for unpredictable learning conditions. This was confirmed by another study on prospective teachers saying that the student teachers were struggling with volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity that occurred due to the pandemic conditions (Hadar, Ergas, Alpert, & Ariav, 2020). This study highlighted the need for social-emotional preparation of future teachers. Another study (Hadar, Alpert, & Ariav, 2020) emphasized that during the crisis period, the teacher education curriculum needed to be responsive and dynamic to meet student teachers' well-being and social-emotional needs. Similarly, Bozkurt and Sharma (2020) urged educators to prioritize building emotional support mechanisms instead of focusing on the course content completion in this period.

Flores and Gago (2020) explained that the transition from face-to-face to online education during the COVID-19 lockdown period was sudden and unexpected. They stated that the biggest challenge in initial teacher education was experienced in practice-based courses. White and Mcsharry's (2021) empirical study confirmed that the transition to remote education in initial teacher education created challenges for student teachers in their school placements. Rice and Deschaine (2020) also agreed that the shift from traditional teacher education to remote was not straightforward. They argued that this type of transformation required substantial pedagogical alterations in instructional design and delivery. Also, it was emphasized that gaining digital competences were crucial in adapting to online teaching (Flores & Swennen, 2020).

Bozkurt and Sharma (2020) warned that the COVID-19 era version of online education, particularly in the first wave of the pandemic, should be considered separately from distant education. Accordingly, these scholars referred to this particular period of online teaching that

emerged during the first wave of the COVID-19 as “emergency remote teaching” (p. i), which is mainly a rushed solution to meet the immediate needs without time to prepare.

During the emergency remote education that took place in this period, the digital divide among students has become more visible (Blackenberger & Williams, 2020; Bozkurt & Sharma, 2020; Flores & Gago, 2020). Educational inequalities due to disparities in access to technology seem to play a significant role in this divide (la Velle, Newman, Montgomery, & Hyatt, 2020). A recent research paper that analyzed numerous studies on emergency remote education found that the digital divide was one of the major areas that created challenges in education in this period (Sezgin, 2021). Bozkurt and Sharma (2020) also stated that the digital divide was a threat affecting access to education in the pandemic period.

This paper aims to shed light on the experiences of a group of student teachers who took a course entitled ‘Microteaching’ during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, the study focuses on what student teachers went through during this course, which was adapted from face-to-face to emergency remote education due to the pandemic conditions. The research question that guided this study is the following: What did the student teachers experience in the emergency remote microteaching course that was offered during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic?

This research is valuable as it aimed to shed light on what a group of student teachers experienced in an emergency remote microteaching course in the context of Northern Cyprus. In this period, Flores and Swennen (2020) encouraged research in initial teacher education to explore how teacher education handled the consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic. They underlined that empirical research that focused on this period could support innovation and improvement of traditional and online teacher education. Consequently, although the study is limited to its context, the findings could be helpful in similar situations and challenges in the COVID-19 pandemic period and beyond.

Method

Research Design

This is a case study, within the qualitative research paradigm, that aimed to portray what student teachers experienced in an emergency remote microteaching course within a timeframe. In qualitative research, perceptions of local actors are captured “... ‘from the inside’, through a process of deep attentiveness, of empathetic understanding...” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.6). A case, within the qualitative paradigm, is a complex phenomenon that includes real and constructed elements that are in connection with the environments surrounding them (Byrne & Callaghan, 2014, as cited in Schwandt & Gates, 2018). Miles and Huberman stated that in case studies, “the emphasis is on a specific case, a focused and bounded phenomenon embedded in its context” (1994, p.10). They considered the collected data to be locally grounded since it is collected in close proximity to the specific situation. In case studies, in-depth data is obtained through multiple methods of inquiry such as interviews, document analysis, and observations to make meaning of the situation within its context (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Marshall & Rossman, 1999; Patton, 1987; Robson 2002; Schwandt & Gates, 2014). Ragin (1992) clarified that a case could be an object, a person, or an event. Accordingly, “casing” is a research operation that includes linking theory to evidence (as cited in Schwandt & Gates, p.602). In this research paper, the phenomenon of interest, i.e., the case, is the student teachers’

experiences in an emergency remote microteaching course that was transformed into the digital platform in the lockdown period.

Research Context

The current study focuses on a group of student teachers who took an undergraduate course entitled 'Microteaching' as part of their initial teacher education during the lockdown of the COVID-19 pandemic in the Spring of 2019-2020 academic year. The course was offered as an elective course as part of the English Language Teaching (ELT) program in the Faculty of Education of the University that is located in Northern Cyprus.

In the emergency remote education process, all the coursework was transferred to the University's digital learning management system (LMS), which was Moodle in this case. The 'Big Blue Button' (BBB) program, which was integrated into LMS, facilitated online live lessons that allowed synchronous lessons to be recorded for asynchronous access. The students' access to synchronous lessons was through the 'viewer' mode by default. Interaction between the course instructor and the students took place via the integrated written chat mode. Besides the online synchronous lessons, LMS could accommodate access to all the course materials and assessment procedures. When all the courses were shifted to the online platform, it was requested by the University administration that the courses should be provided in two major paths: a) synchronous path, which was mainly live online lessons lasting about 50 to 60 minutes; and b) asynchronous path that included all the work to be completed outside the synchronous lessons. Originally, the course was scheduled two hours per week with 3 ECTS and with no prerequisite courses. Initially, the course was envisaged to combine theory with practice through microteaching and observations to be conducted in tutorials and real language classrooms. Also, it was aimed to build on the student teachers' knowledge in language teaching.

As illustrated in the Figure 1, the emergency remote microteaching course involved four major phases: pedagogical input, observations and assignments, microteaching, and course assessment.

Pedagogical input was provided before the online live lessons asynchronously via reading materials and other multimedia on LMS. During the course, synchronously, the course instructor provided a short introduction on the weekly topic with reference to these reading materials. The authentic classroom observations, which were originally envisaged to be conducted in language classrooms of the School of Foreign Language (SFL) of the University, were replaced by video excerpts that were openly available on the world wide web. These excerpts, which lasted between 10 to 30 minutes, were selected by the course instructor based on their lesson structure (presentation-practice-production format) and their language teaching methodology (communicative language teaching – CLT). They were used as part of synchronous lessons as well as observation assignments to be completed asynchronously.

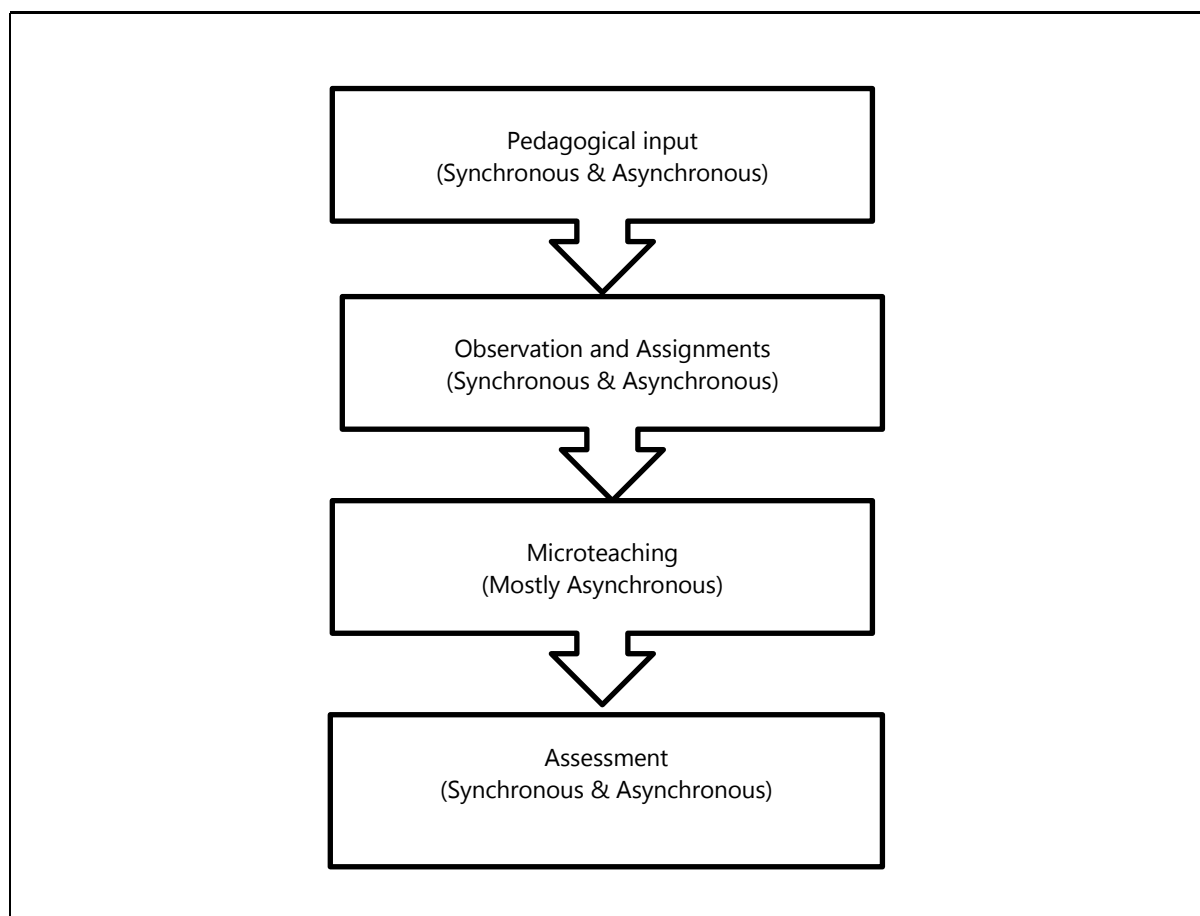


Figure 1. *Emergency Remote Microteaching Course Process*

During the course, the first round of observation was done synchronously. This was followed by completing an assignment asynchronously, which focused on drafting the lesson plan of the teaching video. To do this, the student teachers used a lesson plan template containing presentation, practice, and production format given to them in advance. They were requested to upload their assignments onto LMS within a given deadline for instructor feedback. Once the instructor provided feedback, the student teachers were requested to revise their lesson plans accordingly. The same excerpt was analyzed during the subsequent synchronous lesson. While doing so, the teaching video was paused several times to allow the student teachers to share their opinion on their observations in the chat mode and to verify their lesson plans.

Based on the language teaching skill that was covered in the synchronous lessons, observations, and assignments, the student teachers received a microteaching task with detailed instructions on LMS. The instructions were also clarified in the synchronous lessons. Afterward, the student teachers worked individually to prepare the first draft of their lesson plans and uploaded it on LMS. After the course instructor's feedback, the lesson plans were revised and if necessary, another feedback was received from the instructor. When the lesson plan was ready, the student teachers did their microteaching individually. While doing so, they self-recorded themselves using their smartphones. After recording, as part of their microteaching task, they self-observed their teaching and wrote a self-reflection report using the guiding questions. At first, the student teachers uploaded their microteaching videos on the university's shared drive so that they could share their experience with the course instructor and with their peers to facilitate peer-observations. However, as the course progressed, a

YouTube channel was opened by the course instructor for easier upload and access to the microteaching videos.

As for the assessment procedures, the course included both continuous assessment and mid-term and final assessment procedures as requested by the University administration. Accordingly, all the assignments and microteaching practices were part of the assessment, each one bearing a value as stated in the original course description. The mid-term and final exams were conducted synchronously. Both of these exams were individualized exams aiming to avoid cheating and plagiarism during the online examinations. In these exams, similar to the observations, the student teachers were given a teaching video excerpt and they were asked to draft a lesson plan, and they were also asked to devise their lesson plan based on a given task.

Participants

In this study, purposive sampling method was employed, as the focus was on the experiences of a group of student teachers who took a course entitled 'Microteaching' as emergency remote education in the first wave of the pandemic. Purposive sampling strategy, which refers to an intentional choice of participants, allows the selection of information-rich cases, due to their qualities and experiences, which are important for research purpose (Patton, 1990).

In this case, the research participants were selected based on the purpose of the study, and due to their unique experiences regarding the research question. The purposive sampling method enabled to access information-rich student teachers who were undergoing experiences during the emergency remote microteaching course in the first wave of the pandemic.

The total number of the student teachers who took the course was 13; and the total number of the student teachers who volunteered to participate in the study was 10. The table below provides information about these participants.

Table 1. *Information about the Participants*

<i>Student teachers (ST)</i>	<i>Feedback form</i>	<i>Interview</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Country of origin</i>	<i>Place of residence during the lockdown</i>	<i>Possession of an electronic device</i>	<i>Speed of the internet</i>
ST1	*	*	Male	Turkey	Turkey	Laptop	Slow
ST2	*	*	Male	Turkey	NC	Laptop	Fast
ST3	*	*	Female	Turkey	Turkey	Laptop	Medium
ST4	*	*	Female	Cameroon	NC	Smartphone	Medium
ST5	*	*	Female	Northern Cyprus (NC)	NC	Laptop	Medium
ST6	*	**	Male	NC	NC	Smartphone	Slow
ST7	*	**	Male	Turkey	NC	Laptop	Slow
ST8	*	**	Female	Turkey	NC	Laptop	Slow
ST9	**	*	Female	Russia	NC	Laptop	Slow
ST10	**	*	Male	Turkey	Turkey	Smartphone	No/irregular internet

* refers to Completed

** refers to Not-completed

Data Collection Instruments

In this study, data was collected through a written feedback form, and a semi-structured interview guide. While designing the data collection instruments, immense importance was given to ensure validity and reliability. Validity and reliability are considered vital for a trustworthy study which could lead to reliable findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Henceforth, the following steps were taken to contribute to trustworthiness of the study: The feedback form was prepared taking into account the course components (microteaching, pedagogical input, observations, assignments, feedback, and assessment) and the implementation process so that the student teachers could provide detailed information about their experiences and express their feelings about the process. Similarly, the semi-structured interview guide was designed considering the student teachers' experiences and feelings throughout the course process. Both of these instruments were pilot tested for clarity with volunteer student teachers.

The feedback form contained two sections: The first section included five questions that aimed to seek information on the student teachers' learning context – where they were living (home or dormitory), which country they were connecting from, the electronic device they were using to connect to the lessons, and if they had an internet connection and how fast it was. The second part of the student feedback form focused on the course, its components, structure, and its implementation. This section contained 22 open-ended questions. The semi-structured interview guide contained four open-ended questions and sub-questions on student teachers' feelings, opinions, and suggestions on the course.

Ethical Approval

The researcher obtained ethical approval from the Ethical Committee of the University, in which this research was conducted. Based on this, the researcher informed the course participants on the details of this study both in writing and orally. The course participants were informed that participation was voluntary; nonparticipation would not affect their success in the course, and that their responses would be used only for research purposes. Those willing to participate signed a written consent form for the feedback form and the interview separately. The consent form openly explained the purpose and ethical agreement underlining that those who volunteered could withdraw from the study at any moment. During the analysis and the reporting stages, the participants' names were omitted and replaced with a code for anonymity and confidentiality purposes.

This study is limited to the student teachers who volunteered to participate in this study and to their experiences in an emergency remote microteaching course in the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in the Northern Cyprus context.

Data Collection Process

Once the ethical approval was received from the Ethical Committee, data collection was carried out over a sustained period. Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña (2014) stated that the fact that qualitative data is collected over a "sustained period makes them powerful for studying process (including history)" (p.30). Before the collection of the data, the student teachers were informed that the written feedback form was uploaded on LMS, and that those who volunteered to complete it needed to sign the written consent form. Those who signed the consent form completed the written feedback form and uploaded it on the system. A similar process was carried out for the interviews as well. At the end of the course, the student teachers

were informed that interviews were to be conducted with volunteers. Those who volunteered signed a consent form allowing the researcher to audio-record the interview for the research purpose. In addition, at the beginning of the interview, the researcher read out loud the research purpose and how the data was to be used. All the interviews were conducted in the English language.

Although the total number of the student teachers who volunteered to participate in the study was 10, this number varied per data collection instrument. That is to say, written feedback form was completed by eight, and interviews were carried out with seven volunteering student teachers. As participation was based on voluntary basis, the student teachers' decision to whether or not to complete the written feedback form or attend the interview was not interfered based on ethical considerations.

The written feedback forms were available on LMS for their voluntary completion. Those who volunteered to complete the form uploaded their completed responses on LMS. The interviews were scheduled in advance and all were done online, each taking around 20 minutes. Five of the interviews were conducted individually. Additionally, one interview was done as a focus group interview including two student teachers. Both of the students in the focus group had no other time available for them to participate in the interview so they were scheduled to be interviewed together at the same time. This could be regarded as a limitation in this study as most interviews were conducted individually. However, focus group interview method is regarded as an effective technique in obtaining rich data on the participants' experiences (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005); and group interviews are regarded appropriate in cases where a homogenous group of participants is involved in a study (Patton, 1990).

Data Analysis

The qualitative data that was obtained through the feedback form and interviews were analyzed using the content analysis that "... aims at describing, with optimum objectivity, precision, and generality, what is said on a given subject in a given place at a given time" (Lasswell et al., 1952, as cited in Macnamara, 2018, p.2). Miles et al. (2014) described this process as the analysis of words that "... can be assembled, subclustered, or broken into segments. They can be reorganized to permit the researcher to compare, contrast, analyze, and construct patterns out of them" (p.28).

In this study, prior to the data analysis, the researcher transcribed the interviews. While doing so, the participants' names were omitted; and each participant was given a code as ST (as in a student teacher). Therefore, while reporting, 'ST1FF' referred to 'ST' as student teacher, '1' as the number given to the student teacher during the analysis, and 'FF' for the 'feedback form' which was the data collection instrument; and ST1Int – 'ST' and '1' as explained earlier, and 'Int' for the 'Interview', which was the data collection instrument.

During the data analysis, firstly, the data were read several times and organized as negative and positive experiences and feelings. At this stage of the analysis, the data from the feedback form and the interviews were analyzed separately using the same method. Next, the analysis of the data from the feedback form and the interviews were merged and combined into one matrix. This was followed by a further reading and rereading to construct the interpreted meaning of the data. In this process, coding continued for extensive detailing to indicate interrelationships (Miles et al., 2014).

Next, a further coding was conducted as pattern coding to gather the associated codes and sub-codes under broader thematic categories which reflected relations among these codes (Miles et al., 2014; Patton, 2002; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005). This phase was followed by the verification of the categories and codes against the raw data. The thematic categories that reflect the student teachers' experiences are displayed in Table 2 and Table 3 in the following section on the results of the study. This analysis was reported below using a narrative description that is supported by direct quotations from the student teachers, to allow their voices to be heard directly, and also to enable the reader to have direct access to the original raw data.

During the research process, the following methods were employed to enhance the trustworthiness of the study: Reflexive journal, peer-debriefing, and critical friend (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993; Miles et al., 2014; Sparkes & Smith, 2014, as cited in McGannon, Smith, Kendellen, & Gonslaves, 2019). Throughout the study, the researcher, who was the instructor of the microteaching course, kept a regular reflexive journal in which she recorded the study process, the steps that she took throughout the course, and her methodological decisions. These journals were incorporated in the peer debriefing process. The peer was a competent teacher educator and researcher outside this study context. As part of this process, the peer debriefer asked inquisitive questions, 'played devil's advocate' (Erlandson et al., p.140), and questioned the researcher for her analysis and interpretation. This process is considered valuable since it could allow the researchers to release any frustration or emotions that could overshadow the research. Additionally, the debriefer acted as a critical friend who read the whole study report along with the raw data which enabled her to cross-check the findings. This was followed by engagement in a critical dialogue on the analysis process, understandings, and interpretations. Miles et al. (2014) stated that engaging a critical friend who could respond to the research work could compensate for the problem of working alone, which is often the case in qualitative research.

Results

This study aimed to find out about the student teachers' experiences in the process of an emergency remote microteaching course during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. The results of the study revealed that the student teachers improved their instructional knowledge and skills, and they developed self-awareness, as part of their pedagogical experiences during the emergency remote microteaching course. Also, the data indicated that the student teachers experienced emotional difficulties in this process. Accordingly, they felt lost, overwhelmed, and disappointed in this process of emergency remote microteaching course. The below section reports and elaborates on these research findings.

Experiences at Pedagogical Dimension

As displayed in the Table 2, the research findings revealed that the student teachers developed their instructional knowledge and skills, and improved their self-awareness towards their strengths and weaknesses in teaching through engaging in various tasks and activities in the course.

Table 2. *Thematic Categories Reflecting Student Teachers' Experiences at Pedagogical Dimension*

<i>Thematic categories</i>	<i>Codes</i>	<i>Sub-codes</i>
Experiences at pedagogical dimension	Development of instructional knowledge and skills	Microteaching practice Pedagogical input through accessible reading materials Observation of video excerpts and drafting lesson plans Regular and detailed feedback
	Development of self-awareness	Self-reflection on microteaching Demand for guidance for reflection

Development of Instructional Knowledge and Skills

As part of the experiences within the pedagogical dimension, many student teachers (ST2FF, ST3FF, ST5FF, ST2Int, ST4Int, ST5Int, ST9Int, ST10Int), both in the feedback forms and in the interviews, explained that in this course process, they developed their instructional competences as future teachers. This included gaining more knowledge and skills on selecting effective teaching tasks and activities, writing learning objectives, and designing lesson plans. The student teachers underlined that practicing microteaching has been effective in helping them gain more teaching competences. For example, one student teacher said "At the beginning, I had no idea of classroom control, I had no idea of lesson plans or methods; but now, I believe I can do everything in my class..." (ST5Int).

Some of the student teachers (ST4FFF, ST8FF, ST3FF) stated that the pedagogical input that was provided as background reading also helped them gain more knowledge and skills on classroom instruction. Several of them (ST4Int, STFF7, ST3Int, ST2Int) viewed that these reading materials were well-structured which provided easy access on the LMS. For example, one student said "I am happy with the whole materials on LMS There are good reading materials which can support our knowledge about the course and its context" (ST7FF).

Several student teachers (STFF2, ST3FF, ST4FF, ST5FF, ST7FF, ST8FF, ST9Int, ST2Int, STInt3, ST5Int, ST10Int), both in the feedback form and in the interviews, stated that they developed their instructional knowledge and skills through observation of the teaching video excerpts and by drafting the lesson plans of these videos. For example, one of the student teachers (ST2FF) explained "Under these conditions, I think this method that we use currently is a very suitable and effective way for us. Video observations and analysis are the most important parts of our lesson for me". Some students (ST3FF, ST8FF, ST9Int, ST3Int) also considered that the video excerpts were accessible as they could watch them multiple times, unlike in real-time classroom observations which happen in real-time. Also, some student teachers (ST1FF, ST3FF, ST5FF, ST10Int) thought that observing peers helped them to learn from friends and develop their instructional knowledge.

Furthermore, the data from the interviews revealed that some student teachers (ST2Int, ST3Int, ST10Int) considered that they gained new knowledge and skills through regular and detailed feedback from the course instructor. Many of them (ST3FF, ST4FF, ST7FF, ST2Int, STInt3Int), both in the form and in the interview, mentioned that drafting lesson plans and receiving feedback on the lesson plans also helped them to learn.

Development of Self-awareness

Within the experiences at pedagogical dimension, the data that was obtained from the feedback forms and the interviews indicated that many student teachers (ST5FF, ST7FF, ST8FF, ST5Int, ST2Int, ST3Int, ST9Int) felt that they developed self-awareness in this process through self-reflection, which was part of the microteaching process. It was mentioned by several students (ST2FF, ST3FF, ST5FF, ST7FF, ST8FF) in the feedback forms that they became aware of their strong and weak points in teaching through self-reflection. Having said this, some (ST1Int, ST2Int, ST9Int) demanded more direct guidance for self-awareness. For example, one student teacher (ST9Int) explained "... I learn when you give feedback because you are the expert if I watch myself again without your feedback, I just see what I know. It would be better if you give feedback and then we watch it".

Experiences at Emotional Dimension

In addition to the experiences at pedagogical level, the student teachers underwent experiences that were categorized as emotional dimension. As displayed in the Table 3, they felt lost, overwhelmed, and disappointed in this emergency remote education process. This is explained below in detail.

Table 3. *Thematic Categories Reflecting Student Teachers' Experiences at Emotional Dimension*

<i>Thematic categories</i>	<i>Codes</i>	<i>Sub-codes</i>
Experiences at emotional dimension	Feeling lost	Lack of interaction
		Technological problems
		Shortage of digital devices/competences
		Additional responsibilities at home context
		Lack of appropriate learning environment
	Feeling overwhelmed	Demanding and numerous assignments
		Digital challenges
	Feeling disappointed	Prioritizing course expectations over students' needs
		Lack of authenticity in learning practices
		Mismatch of original expectations and realities

Feeling Lost

As part of the emotional experiences, several student teachers (ST1Int, ST3Int, ST4Int, ST9Int) expressed that they felt lost especially at the beginning of the course. Some (ST1Int, ST3Int) felt that they were not heard, seen, or cared for due to the limited opportunity for interaction during the synchronous lessons as their access to these lessons was restricted; they could only attend the lesson as 'viewers'. One student teacher (ST3Int) explained "Sometimes mimics can make a difference. We can't do that because we cannot see each other. It affects our connection and communication... If we could see each other, we would be able to join the lesson more willingly".

Many student teachers (ST1FF, ST4FF, ST5FF, ST6FF, ST7FF, ST8FF, ST1Int, ST2Int, ST9Int, ST10Int), both in the feedback form and in the interviews, explained that they felt lost and thought that online course was a disadvantage. They explained that due to technological problems such as slow, irregular, or no internet connection their access to the lessons was affected. Some of the student teachers reported interruptions due to slow or distorted internet connection during online lessons or assignment completions. For example, one student teacher

(ST1FF) explained "Recording video is the hardest part. To be honest, I don't want to record and upload a video because it is really hard for me since my internet connection is too bad".

Also, some student teachers did not have the appropriate technological devices, and some stated that they had difficulties as they did not have adequate digital competences. For example, a student (ST1Int) expressed "Most of the time I feel lost because I am not effective in technological stuff; so sometimes, I was not even able to find the class online to attend it." Another student teacher (ST6FF) who lived in a village and who only had a smartphone to connect with irregular access to the internet voiced his frustration about his problems in accessing remote education in this period:

... the conditions of every student are not the same. Somebody else from the class is more advantageous than me while doing homework or taking the exam.... In my opinion, teachers have to behave equally to everyone. Students do not have the same opportunities.... It is unfair.

Also, the results obtained through the feedback forms and the interviews showed that many of the student teachers (ST1FF, ST4FF, ST1Int, ST3Int, ST10Int) felt lost due to their additional obligations and responsibilities in their home environment, such as helping with chores or helping at the family store during the lockdown.

Another challenge was that some student teachers (ST1Int, ST3Int, ST9Int, ST10Int) did not have an appropriate learning environment at home for remote learning saying that this affected their concentration on the course, therefore, on their learning. For example, one student (ST3Int) reported:

Sometimes I cannot focus on the lesson. I have a lot of noise around me. But if I focus, I can get 100 percent advantage or benefit from the lessons and this lesson especially. It's my only down point I must say. If I had a study room or a quiet environment it would be much better for me.

Feeling Overwhelmed

As part of the experiences at emotional level, the data analysis revealed that many of the student teachers felt overwhelmed during the course. Several of them (ST3FF, ST5FF, ST8FF, ST1Int, ST4Int, ST5Int, ST10Int) were stressed due to the demanding nature of the course, particularly concerning the number of assignments. For example, one student teacher thought that the course was overwhelming because it was online believing that if it was face-to-face most work would have been covered during the tutorials instead of getting assignments. She said, "If we were in the actual classroom, then we could have done verbal reflection in the classroom, but at the moment, it is not possible so we have to write assignments" (ST3FF).

In addition, some students (ST4FF, ST7FF, ST8FF) felt anxious while teaching, recording and uploading teaching videos, as they thought that they did not have the necessary digital skills, or as they experienced technological problems. For example, a student (ST7FF), despite that he was known in the group for his advanced digital competences, explained that he was stressed because of the problems related to technology. He recalled his experience of recording, and uploading microteaching on the shared drive was "... a really stressful process since it was very troublesome. I have faced several difficulties..." (ST7FF).

Furthermore, student teachers (ST6FF, ST8FF, ST10FF) explained that they were overwhelmed as they thought the course expectations were prioritized over their needs in this period. They explained that there was a need of receiving care from the course instructor during this particular time of the pandemic. One student teacher (ST6FF) criticized that in this period people's lives and feelings were more important than completing the course content. The students thought that the course instructor should divert her attention from the course assignments and course completion to the actual pandemic conditions and their emerging needs of care. For example, one (ST8FF) said "You don't have to give very difficult assignments and lessons because it is an online course. We are in the pandemic We are having a hard time doing these assignments." Another student (ST10Int) explained that he was having sleeping problems as he was worried, he could catch the COVID-19 virus. He further explained that he was suffering psychologically as he was worried about the elderly in his family.

Feeling Disappointed

Within the experiences at emotional dimension, the data analysis revealed that many student teachers (ST1FF, ST4FF, ST6FF, ST1Int, ST5Int, ST7Int, ST10Int), both in the feedback form and in the interviews, felt disappointed and nostalgic during the course. Part of the disappointment was related to the observation practices in the emergency remote microteaching course. The student teachers complained that observations were not authentic and that they preferred real classroom observations. Similarly, there was disappointment among the student teachers concerning the lack of authenticity in microteaching practices; as in most cases, they had to teach by themselves. For example, one student teacher explained that her lesson plan was not authentic as she did not have access to a real classroom environment. She said "I need a real class to do my lesson plan because I don't know how the students would react to my teaching. If they do not understand what I teach, what would I do? I don't have any experience with it. I am doing it but it seems it's not real" (ST5Int).

Furthermore, some students (ST1Int; ST10Int) expressed that they felt disappointed as their pre-COVID expectations have not been met. This was particularly concerning the lonely experience of emergency remote education. Accordingly, the student teachers explained that they had envisaged being involved in active learning by conducting observations and microteaching in actual classrooms; whereas, they were isolated since they had to do the course all alone in their homes in the lockdown conditions due to the pandemic. One student teacher (ST1Int) said "... at the beginning of the class, we were talking about going to real language classes. I was dreaming about it actually. But right now, I am alone in my room and making lesson plans. That's all. This was not my dream...".

Discussion, Conclusion and Implications

This study aimed to shed light on the student teachers' experiences in the process of an undergraduate course entitled 'Microteaching' which was offered as emergency remote education at a University in Northern Cyprus during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. The results of the study revealed that the student teachers gained instructional knowledge and skills. It was found out that the student teachers believed that in this course they developed self-awareness towards their strengths and weaknesses in teaching. However, at the same time, they felt that they were lost, overwhelmed, and disappointed throughout the course process.

Although the student teachers did not have the opportunity to practice microteaching with their peers in a physical classroom environment or to conduct classroom observations in authentic language classrooms, they reported on several occasions that they developed teacher competences since they reported that they improved their instructional knowledge and skills in this course process. This could lead to understanding that this emergency remote course on microteaching provided the student teachers with the learning opportunities for their development (Allen & Eve, 1968; Kelnfled & Noordhoff, 1988; 1990, as cited in Hatton & Smith, 1995; Kpanja, 2001). This is worth noticing as the course was rushed to be delivered on the digital platform as emergency remote education due to the sudden outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic (Bozkurt & Sharma, 2020). In this regard, the data revealed that despite the challenging conditions, professional learning and development of teacher competences that are essential for effective teaching have been attained (Caena, 2013; Karababa & Çalışkan, 2012). Having said this, the student teachers on several occasions expressed that they were disappointed due to the lack of authenticity of learning practices. They also stressed that the social and interactive aspects of education were absent in this emergency remote learning process.

It is established in the literature that diagnostic feedback and guidance are important in microteaching as they facilitate prospective teachers' instructional competence and development (Allen & Eve, 1968). During the emergency remote microteaching course, the microteaching practices and observations were not followed by interactive reflective dialogues since such an opportunity did not exist during the synchronous lessons. The participation of the student teachers' during the synchronous lessons was limited to written chats only. The lack of opportunity for reflective learning during an online practicum course in the pandemic period has been indicated by Kidd and Murray (2020) as well.

In the study, several student teachers expressed their frustration as they felt isolated and demotivated. This was confirmed by another empirical study that was conducted on online school practice in this period with student teachers (White and Mcsharry, 2021). It was stated that the student teachers felt isolated and detached as a consequence of the removal of social human contact in learning.

Reflection on recorded teaching is regarded to be a valuable method in teacher education since it enables collaborative inquiry and learning (Weiss & Weiss, 2001). This enables them to progress their teaching skills (Kpanja, 2001; Kuter, Gazi, & Aksal, 2012; Wallace, 1991). In the current study, the fact that the student teachers recorded their microteaching and reflected on their teaching created an opportunity for their learning, and this helped them become aware of their strong and weak points in their teaching. In addition, the student teachers were engaged in observation and analysis of video excerpts, which are accepted to facilitate reflective dialogue (Bampfield, Lubelska, & Matthews, 1997). However, it should be noted that in this process, the collaborative aspect of reflective learning was absent. It could be argued that the deficiencies concerning technology had an important role in this respect. For example, the student teachers could not collaborate or carry out a reflective dialogue with one another as their participation was restricted to viewing mode and written chats only during the synchronous lessons.

Furthermore, due to the aforementioned conditions, the student teachers did not have the opportunity to engage in social interaction orally with friends during the course process. It is

possible to say that this situation could have affected the student teachers' professional development and growth (Yost, Sentner, & Forlenza-Bailey, 2000). It could be argued that the lack of an appropriate environment for reflective dialogue and collaborative inquiry may have created a disempowering environment for the student teachers as in a "culture of silence" (Freire, 2005, p.30).

In this study, several student teachers expressed that they needed attention and emotional support in the course process. They complained that the course was demanding with many assignments and that there was an emphasis on task completion and course content completion. Bozkurt and Sharma (2020) recommended that in times of crisis, emotional support should be prioritized over course completion. This was also confirmed by other researchers (Hadar, Ergas, et al., 2020; Hadar, et al., 2020) stating that the well-being and social-emotional needs of prospective teachers should be put first as they struggled in uncertain and ambiguous pandemic environments. Carillo and Flores (2020) also emphasized that social interaction, through regular discussions and authentic experiences, was vital in achieving social presence in learning. Also, Hadar, et al. (2020) underlined the need for having a responsive and dynamic initial teacher education curriculum to meet the social and well-being needs of the student teachers during the unprecedented times of the pandemic.

The growing need among novice teachers to have adequate digital competencies made itself more visible in this crisis period (Dvir & Schatz-Oppenheimer, 2020; Mumford & Dikilitaş, 2020). A study that was conducted in the German context showed that digital teacher competences and teachers' opportunities to learn digital competences were essential in adapting to remote education during the school closures due to the COVID-19 pandemic (König, Jäger-Biela, & Glutsch, 2020). This was also true in this case as well, as several student teachers explained that they had problems while engaging in the course and while completing the course assignments as they did not feel technologically competent. The problems that the student teachers experienced with regard to the access to the internet, the lack of possession of appropriate digital devices, and their perceived inadequate digital competences led them to feel lost and frustrated during the course process.

The insufficiencies in the technological infrastructure and the difficulties in access to technology have created awareness towards the digital divide in emergency remote education in this context (Blankenberger & Williams, 2020; Bozkurt & Sharma, 2020; Flores & Gago, 2020; la Velle et al., 2020). Likewise, an extensive study on the research on emergency remote education in the pandemic era confirmed that the digital divide created challenges in access to remote education in this period (Sezgin (2021).

To conclude, this study revealed that the student teachers gained instructional knowledge, skills, and self-awareness; however, they felt lost, frustrated, and disappointed during the process of the emergency remote course on microteaching, which was offered as an undergraduate course at a University in the context of Northern Cyprus.

The study showed that it is important that the curriculum is responsive to the immediate needs and conditions of the pandemic era. Reducing the curriculum content and adjusting instructional delivery could allow appropriate time and space to attain the student teachers' social-emotional and well-being needs in times of crisis. Also, as far as the curriculum is concerned, the student teachers could benefit from additional support and opportunities to attain digital competences as part of their initial teacher education. This could enable them to

feel more competent and confident in their involvement in remote learning and teaching both as student teachers and as future teachers.

Despite that the student teachers were engaged in self-reflection, collaborative inquiry and reflective dialogue, which are regarded fundamental in microteaching practice, were missing in this process mainly due to the digital inadequacies. It is essential that in a remote microteaching course, opportunities need to be created for student teachers to teach interactively in a digital platform and to engage in reflective dialogue that could maximize their development and growth. For this purpose, appropriate technological conditions and infrastructure need to be provided. Also, innovative instructional strategies and delivery methods need to be incorporated in remote teacher education (Rice & Deschaine, 2020). This could help to facilitate a collaborative learning environment. Additionally, such an environment would enable the student teachers to have social interaction which could contribute to improving their well-being and growth.

Based on the findings and discussions, further research is suggested on remote online microteaching practices focusing on their design and implementation. Such research could include other stakeholders, such as teacher educators, cooperating teachers, and administrators. This type of research could also focus on opportunities for reflective interaction and collaborative inquiry within online microteaching courses. Additionally, it is recommended to research the initial teacher education concerning its role and efficiency in preparing future teachers for online learning and teaching in terms of equipping them with digital skills. Also, more research could be conducted on the extent to which the initial teacher education process considers student teachers' social-emotional and well-being needs particularly during practice-based courses in the COVID-era, and beyond.

References

- Allen, D. W., & Eve, A. W. (1968). Microteaching. *Theory into Practice*, 7(5), 181-185. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405846809542153>
- Bampffield, A., Lubelska, S., & Matthews, M. (1997). *Looking at language classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.
- Blankenberger, B., & Williams, A.M. (2020). COVID and the impact on higher education: The essential role of integrity and accountability. *Administrative Theory & Praxis*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10841806.2020.1771907>
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1998). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods*. Allyn & Bacon.
- Bozkurt, A., & Sharma, R. C. (2020). Emergency remote teaching in a time of global crisis due to CoronaVirus pandemic. *Asian Journal of Distance Education*, 15(1), i-vi. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3778083>
- Caena, F. (2013). *Supporting Teacher Competence Development: For Better Learning Outcomes*. European Commission. http://ec.europa.eu/education/school-education/teacher-cluster_en.htm.
- Carillo, C., & Flores, M. A. (2020). COVID-19 and teacher education: a literature review of online teaching and learning practices. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(4), 466-487. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2020.1821184>
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Hyler, M. E. (2020). Preparing educators for the time of COVID and beyond. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(4), 457-465. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2020.1816961>
- Dvir, N., & Schatz-Opppenheimer, O. (2020). Novice teachers in a changing reality. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(4), 639-656. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2020.1821360>
- Erlandson, D. A., Harris, E. L., Skipper, B. L., & Allen, S. D. (1993). *Doing naturalistic inquiry: A guide to methods*. Sage.
- Flores, M.A., & Gago, M. (2020) Teacher education in times of COVID-19 pandemic in Portugal: national, institutional and pedagogical responses. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 46(4), 507-516. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2020.1799709>
- Flores, M. A., & Swennen, A. (2020). The COVID-19 pandemic and its effects on teacher education. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(4), 453-456. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2020.1824253>
- Freire, P. (2005). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (30th Anniversary Ed.). Continuum.
- Hadar, L. L., Ergas, O., Alpert, B., & Ariav, T. (2020). Rethinking teacher education in VUCA world: student teachers' social-emotional competencies during the Covid-19 crisis. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(4), 573-586. <https://doi.org/10.1090/02619768.2020.1807513>
- Hadar, L. L., Alpert, B., & Ariav, T. (2020). The response of clinical practice curriculum in teacher education to the Covid-19 breakout: A case study from Israel. Prospects. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11125-020-09516-8>

- Hatton, N., & Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education: Towards definition and implementation. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 11 (1), 33-49. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X\(94\)00012-U](https://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X(94)00012-U)
- International Labour Organization. (2020). *COVID 19 Sectoral Brief*. <https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/coronavirus/sectoral/lang--en/index.htm>
- Karababa, Z. C., & Çalışkan, G. (2013). Teacher competencies in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70(2013), 1545-1551. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.222>
- Kidd, W., & Murray, J. (2020). The Covid-19 pandemic and its effects on teacher education in England: how teacher educators moved practicum learning online. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(4), 542-558. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2020.1820480>
- König, J., Jäger-Biela, D. J., & Glutsch, N. (2020). Adapting to online teaching during COVID-19 school closure: teacher education and teacher competence effects among early career teachers in Germany. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(4), 608-622. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2020.1809650>
- Kpanja, E. (2001). A study of the effects of video tape recording in microteaching training. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 32(4), 483-486. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8535.00215>
- Kuter, S., Gazi, Z.A., & Aksal, F. A. (2012). Examination of co-construction of knowledge in videotaped simulated instruction. *Educational Technology & Society*, 15 (1), 174–184.
- la Velle, L., Newman, S., Montgomery, C., & Hyatt, D. (2020). Initial teacher education in England and the Covid-19 pandemic: challenges and opportunities. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 46(4), 596-608. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2020.1803051>
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Sage Publications.
- Macnamara, J (2018). Content analysis. In P. Napoli (Ed.), *Mediated Communication* (pp.191-212). de Gruyter Mouton. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110481129-012>
- McGannon, K. R., Smith, B., Kendellen, K., & Gonslaves, C. A. (2019). Qualitative research in six sport and exercise psychology journals between 2010 and 2017: An updated and expanded review of trends and interpretations. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 19(3), 359-379. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1612197X.2019.1655779>
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G.B. (1999). *Designing qualitative research*. Sage.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *An Expanded Sourcebook Qualitative data analysis* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative Data Analysis: A Methods Sourcebook* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Mumford, S., & Dikilitaş, K. (2020). Pre-service language teachers' reflection development through online interaction in a hybrid learning course. *Computers & Education*, 144(2020). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2019.103706>
- Patton, M. Q. (1987). *How to use qualitative methods in evaluation*. Sage Publications.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods*. Sage.

- Rice, F. M., & Deschaine, M.E. (2020). Orienting toward teacher education for online environments for all students. *The Educational Forum*, 84(2), 114-125. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00131725.2020.1702747>
- Robson, C. (2002). *Real world research* (2nd ed.). Blackwell.
- Sanal-Erginel, S. (2009). *Developing Reflective Teachers: A Study on Perception and Improvement of Reflection in Pre-Service Teacher Education*. VDM Verlag.
- Schwandt, T. A., & Gates, E. F. (2018). Case Study Methodology. In N. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (5th ed.). (pp. 600-630). Sage Publications.
- Sezgin, S. (2021). Acil uzaktan eğitim sürecinin analizi: Öne çıkan kavramlar, sorunlar ve çıkarılan dersler. *Anadolu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 21(1), 273-296.
- Shi, J. (2020). A critical analysis of the assessment for micro-teaching program for English language teachers in the secondary education in mainland China. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 10(2), 168-175. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1002.04>
- Taggart, G. L., & Wilson, A. P. (2005). *Promoting reflective thinking in teachers: 50 action strategies*. Corwin Press.
- The Economist Intelligence Unit. (2020). *Covid-19 and the crisis for higher education*. <https://www.eiu.com/n/campaigns/covid-19-and-the-crisis-for-higher-education/>
- Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge University Press.
- Weiss, E., M., & Weiss, S. (2001). Doing reflective supervision with student teachers in a professional development school culture. *Reflective Practice*, 2(2), 125-154.
- White, I., & Mcsharry, M. (2021). Preservice teachers' experiences of pandemic related school closures: anti-structure, liminality and communitas. *Irish Educational Studies*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03323315.2021.1916562>
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2005). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri* (5th ed.). Seçkin.
- Yost, D. S., Sentner, S. M., & Forlenza-Bailey, A. (2000). An examination of the construct of critical reflection: Implications for teacher education programming in the 21st century. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51(1), 39-49. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002248710005100105>



TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Acil Uzaktan Mikro-öğretim Dersinde Öğretmen Adaylarının Deneyimleri: COVID-19 Dönemi ve Sonrası İçin Çıkarılan Dersler

Giriş

COVID-19 pandemisinin ilk dalgası sırasındaki karantina döneminin eğitim üzerinde önemli etkileri olmuştur. Uluslararası Çalışma Örgütü raporuna göre (2020) pandemi sırasında yaşanan karantina dönemlerinde 192 ülkede 1,58 milyar öğrenci üniversitelerin ve okulların kapanmasından etkilenmiştir. Bu çalışma Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti'nde bulunan bir Üniversite'de COVID-19 pandemisinin ilk karantinasının yaşandığı dönemde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu çalışmanın odağında olan 'Mikro-öğretim' dersi üniversitenin Eğitim Fakültesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği 2. sınıf öğrencilerine 2019-2020 bahar döneminde zorunlu seçmeli ders olarak verilmiştir. COVID-19 öncesi süreçte izleneye göre ders haftada iki saat olarak yapılacaktı ve ders içeriğinde öğretmen adaylarının mikro-öğretim uygulamaları ve sınıf içi gözlemleri yer almaktaydı. Fakat pandeminin baş göstermesi nedeniyle ülkede yaşanan ani tam kapanma ve karantina döneminin başlamasıyla birlikte Üniversite'deki tüm dersler Moodle üzerinden ivedilikle dijital platforma taşınmış ve acil uzaktan eğitime geçilmiştir. Bu kapsamda Mikro-öğretim adlı ders de acil uzaktan eğitim olarak uygulanmaya başlanmıştır.

Mikro-öğretim sırasında öğretmen adayları 5 ile 20 dakikalık zaman diliminde ders yaparlar. Bu zaman zarfında öğretim ve sınıf yönetimi becerilerini geliştirme ve aynı zamanda yeni öğretim yöntemlerini uygulama fırsatı elde ederler (Allen & Eve, 1968). Mikro-öğretim sürecinin bir parçası da öğretmen adaylarının yaptıkları dersi daha sonra incelemek üzere kaydetmeleridir. Bu süreçte öğretmen adayları yansıtıcı düşünme tekniğini kullanarak işbirlikli öğrenme ortamında sınıf arkadaşlarıyla diyalog içine girerler ve bu süreç onların bilgi ve becerilerini geliştirmede büyük rol oynar (Kuter, Gazi, & Aksal, 2012; Taggart & Wilson, 2005; Weiss & Weiss, 2001; Sanal-Erginel, 2009).

Pandemi döneminde ani ve beklenmedik bir şekilde acil uzaktan eğitime geçilmesi eğitim ve öğretim alanında ciddi zorluklar yaşanmasına sebep olmuştur. Bozkurt ve Sharma'ya (2020) göre pandeminin bu ilk döneminde zorunlu olarak geçilen acil uzaktan eğitim uygulamalarını uzun bir süredir mevcut çevrimiçi uygulamalardan farklı değerlendirmek gerekmektedir. Tam kapanma döneminde yüzyüze eğitime geçiş ani ve beklenmedik bir şekilde gerçekleşmiştir ve bu dönemde öğretmen eğitimi alanında en büyük zorluklar uygulamalı derslerde yaşanmıştır (Flores & Gabo, 2020).

Darling-Hammond ve Hyler (2020) pandeminin ilk başgösterdiği dönemde öğrencilerin akademik ve sosyal-duygusal ihtiyaçlarının değerlendirilmesi gerektiğini ifade etmişlerdir. Bu dönemde yapılan diğer çalışmalar öğretmen eğitimi programlarının böyle bir dönemde

öğretmen adaylarının ihtiyaç duyduğu desteğe fırsat verecek şekilde düzenlenmesinin önemine işaret etmişlerdir (Hadar, Ergas, Alpert, & Ariav, 2020; Hadar, Alpert, & Ariav, 2020). Bu çalışmalar öğretmen adaylarının pandeminin ilk karantina döneminin getirdiği belirsizlik ve karmaşadan dolayı zorluklar yaşadıklarını ve hem sosyal hem duygusal açıdan desteğe ihtiyaç duyduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Flores ve Swennen (2020) COVID-19 döneminde öğretmen eğitiminde araştırma yapmak ve yaşananlara ışık tutmak gerektiğini ifade etmişlerdir. Bu tür çalışmaların yenilikçi uygulamaların geliştirilmesine katkı sağlayacağı belirtilmiştir..

Bu çalışma Kuzey Kıbrıs'ta bir üniversitede pandeminin başlangıcında yaşanmış olan bir döneme odaklanmaktadır. Çalışma bu dönemde dijital ortamda acil uzaktan eğitim kapsamında verilen Mikro-eğitim dersi sürecinde öğretmen adaylarının deneyimlerini incelemeyi hedeflemektedir. Bu çerçevede her ne kadar kısıtlı bir gruba yoğunlaşmış olsa da yukarıda bahsedilen nedenlerden ötürü bu çalışmanın bulgularının öğretmen eğitimi alanına katkı sağlayabileceği düşünülmektedir.

Yöntem

Bu çalışmada nitel araştırma desenlerinden durum çalışması desenikullanılmıştır. Araştırmada veri toplama araçları olarak açık uçlu sorular içeren öğrenci geri-bildirim formu ve yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşme soruları kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar 'Mikro-öğretim' adlı dersi alan öğretmen adayları olup çalışmaya gönüllülük esasına bağlı olarak katılmışlardır. Bu çerçevede çalışmaya toplam 10 öğretmen adayı katılmıştır. Tüm çalışma etik kuralları çerçevesinde gerçekleşmiş, görüşmelerde katılımcılardan yazılı ve sözlü izin alındıktan sonra gönüllülük esasıyla çalışmaya katılmışlar ve görüşmeler sırasında ses kaydı alınmıştır. Veriler içerik analizi yöntemiyle analiz edilmiştir. Bu yöntemle kodlama yolu kullanılarak anlamlı bütünler halinde verilerin altında yatan kavramlar ve kavramlar arasında bulunan ilişkiler ortaya çıkarılmıştır (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005).

Bulgular

Araştırmada öğretmen adayları Mikro-öğretim dersinde yeni bilgiler, beceriler ve öz farkındalık edindiklerini ifade etmişlerdir. Bu ders kapsamında verilen kavramsal bilginin öğrenmelerini olumlu yönde etkilediğini belirtmişlerdir. Bunun yanında video üzerinden yapmış oldukları gözlemlerin ve gözlemledikleri bu dersler üzerine hazırladıkları ders planlarının öğrenmelerine katkı sağladığını aktarmışlardır. Ayrıca, dersin öğretim elemanının düzenli ve detaylı geri bildirimlerinin öğrenmelerine yardımcı olduğunu ifade etmişlerdir.

Öğretmen adayları bu ders kapsamında uygulanan mikro-öğretim sürecinin kendilerinin öğretim bilgilerinin ve becerilerinin gelişmesinde yararlı olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Bunun yanında mikro-öğretim sürecinin bir parçası olan yansıtıcı düşünme sürecinin öz farkındalıklarının gelişmesinde rol oynadığını ve bu sayede öğretimde güçlü ve zayıf yönleri hakkında farkındalık geliştirdiklerini ifade etmişlerdir.

Aynı zamanda öğretmen adayları bu süreçte kaybolmuşluk hissi yaşadıklarını, kendilerini baskı altında hissettiklerini ve hayal kırıklığı yaşadıklarını ifade etmişlerdir. Öğretmen adayları dijital platform üzerinden yapılan acil uzaktan mikro-öğretim dersi sırasında seslerini duyuramamalarından ve derslere görüntülü katılamamalarından dolayı kaybolmuşluk hissine kapıldıklarını aktarmışlardır. Aynı zamanda süreçte öğretmen adayları teknoloji kaynaklı sorunlar yaşamışlardır. Bunlar şöyledir: internet bağlantısı ile ilgili sorunlar, dijital altyapı ile ilgili zorluklar, ve öğretmen adaylarının dijital becerilerinde yaşadıkları yetersizlikler. Tüm bu

sorunların onların kaybolmuşluk hissine kapılmalarında etkisinin olduğu bulunmuştur. . Bunların yanında öğrenciler bu dönemde evlerinde uygun çalışma ortamı olmamasından ve evde üstlendikleri sorumluluklardan dolayı konsantrasyon sorunları yaşadıklarını aktarmışlardır.

Öğretmen adayları bu dönemde özellikle ders yükünden dolayı baskı altında hissettiklerini ifade etmişlerdir. Bazı öğrencilerin teknolojik becerilerindeki yetersizlikler de bu baskıyı artırmıştır. Aynı zamanda öğretmen adayları bu ders süresince özellikle gözlemlerin ve mikro-öğretimlerin gerçek ortamda yapılmamasından dolayı hayal kırıklığı yaşadıklarını ifade etmişlerdir. Öğrencilerin normal okul düzenini ve sosyal ve interaktif ortamını özledikleri saptanmıştır.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Bulgular öğretmen adaylarının akademik anlamda olumlu deneyimler yaşadıklarını ve bu süreçte yeni bilgi ve beceriler edindikleri ve öz farkındalıklarının geliştiğini göstermiştir. Tüm öğretmen adayları zor bir süreç yaşamışlardır. Araştırmada öğretmen adayları bu dönemde hayal kırıklığı yaşadıklarını, baskı altında hissettiklerini ve kaybolmuşluk hissine kapıldıklarını ifade etmişlerdir.

Mikro-öğretim dersinde gerçek sınıf ortamında ders yapamamış olmalarına rağmen öğrencilerin öğretmenlik yeterliliklerini geliştirmiş olduklarını düşünmeleri dersin onlara yararlı öğrenme fırsatları yarattığını göstermektedir (Allen & Eve, 1968; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Kpanja, 2001). Acil uzaktan mikro-öğretim dersinde gözlem internette bulunan videolar üzerinden yapılan gözlemler şeklinde yapılmıştır. Bu yöntem, yansıtıcı düşünme ve etkileşim oluşturmak için uygun bir yöntem olarak görülmektedir (Bampffield, Lubelska, & Matthews, 1997). Çalışmada öğretmen adayları bu gözlem yönteminin mesleki gelişimlerine katkı sağladığını ifade etmişlerdir. Fakat buna rağmen adaylar bu gözlem yöntemi yerine gerçek sınıf ortamında gözlem yapmayı tercih etmişlerdir. Nitekim, insanlardan uzak yalnız başına video üzerinden gözlem ve mikro-öğretim yapmak öğretmen adaylarında hayal kırıklığına sebep olabilir. Eğitimde sosyal ve etkileşime dayalı boyutlarda yaşanan sınırlılıkların öğretmen adaylarının yalnızlık hissine kapılmalarında etkili olduğu ifade edilmiştir (White & McSharry, 2021). Benzer bulgular diğer araştırmacılar tarafından da doğrulanmıştır (Hadar, Ergas, et al., 2020; Hadar et al., 2020) doğrulanmıştır. Carillo ve Flores (2020) pandemi döneminde öğretmen adaylarıyla sosyal etkileşimde olmasının önemli olduğunu vurgulamıştır. Aynı zamanda öğretmen eğitiminde uygulanan programı pandemi dönemi koşullarına ve gereksinimlere cevap verecek şekilde esnek olabilmesinin önemi vurgulanmıştır (Hadar et al., 2020).

Öğretmen adaylarının mikro-eğitim yaparken kaydetmiş oldukları derslerine yönelik yansıtıcı düşünme kapsamında öz değerlendirme yapmış olmaları öğrenme ve gelişmelerine katkı sağlamış ve öğretim becerilerinde farkındalık geliştirmelerine yardımcı olmuştur (Kuter, Gazi & Aksal, 2012; Kpanja, 2001; Wallace, 1991). Fakat bu sürecin bir parçası olan etkileşim ve iş birliği eksik kalmıştır. Bunda öğrencilerin eş zamanlı dersler sırasında kendi ses ve videoları kapalı bir şekilde sadece dinleyici olarak derse katılımları büyük rol oynamıştır. Öğretmen adayları bireysel olarak yansıtıcı düşünme yapmış olmalarına rağmen sürecin normal parçası olan sosyal etkileşim ve diyalog eksikliği nedeniyle süreç olumsuz etkilemiştir (Yost, Sentner, & Forlenza-Bailey, 2000). Öğretmen adaylarının seslerinin duyulamaması onları bir nevi güçsüzleştirmiştir. Bu durum Freire'in 'sessizlik kültürü' olarak adlandırdığı durumu çağırıştırılmaktadır (Freire, 2005, s.30).


Tüm bunların yanında, internet bağlantısında yaşanan sorunlar, teknolojik altyapı eksiklikleri ve bazı öğrencilerin teknolojik araçlara erişiminde yaşadığı eksiklikler acil uzaktan eğitime ulaşmada yaşanan eşitsizliği ve dijital uçurumu göz önüne getirmiştir (Blankenberger & Williams, 2020; Bozkurt & Sharma, 2020; Flores & Gago, 2020; Sezgin, 2021).


Araştırma sonuçları ve tartışmalar ışığında uzaktan ve çevrim içi yapılan mikro-öğretim derslerinin geliştirme ve uygulama süreçleri hakkında daha fazla araştırma yapılması önerilmektedir. Bu tür araştırmalarda dersin öğretim elemanının, uygulama öğretmenlerinin ve süreç içinde görev alan diğer paydaşların da katılımı ve çevrim içi sürecin onların gözünden de değerlendirilmesi önerilmektedir. Aynı zamanda, bu araştırmalar uzaktan ve çevrim içi mikro-öğretim derslerinde yansıtıcı etkileşim ve işbirlikli sorgulama uygulamalarına yoğunlaşabilir. Ayrıca, öğretmen eğitiminde öğretmen adaylarının dijital becerilerinin ne derece geliştirildiği ve çevrimiçi öğrenme ve öğretime hazırlanma konuları araştırılabilir. Ek olarak, COVID-19 salgını ve sonrasındaki dönemde özellikle uygulama ağırlıklı derslerde öğretmen adaylarının sosyal-duygusal gereksinimlerinin ders süreçlerinde ne ölçüde dikkate alındığı konusunda daha fazla araştırma yapılabilir.

Acknowledgments

The researcher expresses her gratitude to the student teachers who volunteered to participate in this study.

Economic and Political Analysis of Initial Teacher Education from Consensus and Conflict Perspectives in Documents of International Institutions

Abdullah Açar, Bursa Uludağ University, aacar@uludag.edu.tr  0000-0001-5985-7410

Banu Yücel Toy, Yıldız Technical University, byuceltoy@gmail.com  0000-0003-0460-4656

Keywords

Initial teacher education
Entrepreneurship
Life-long learning
Diversity
Accountability

Article Info:

Received : 30-10-2021
Accepted : 01-03-2022
Published : 18-06-2022

DOI: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.006

Abstract

This study aims to reveal the economic and political issues underlying the remarks related to initial teacher education (ITE) in the documents published by international institutions, European Union (EU), Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and United Nations (UN), and to examine these issues from the perspective of consensus and conflict approaches to education. The study is designed as a systematic review. ITE-related 67 documents published by UN, EU, and OECD were analyzed following several coding steps. According to the results, international institutions promote entrepreneurship, life-long learning, and information and communication technologies as economic issues in ITE. As political issues, they put forward social themes including preparing for diversity, quality in ITE including accountability and standards, and structure of ITE including flexibility and autonomy. Although the documents are mainly parallel with the consensus approach, economic and political issues revealed in the study were discussed from perspectives of both approaches. One perspective considers promoting the economic issues in ITE the economic efficiency and growth which is beneficial for all. The other reminds that division of this benefit may include class-based inequalities. Also, different perspectives emphasize different social themes and they bring different explanations for how the quality assurance functions.

To cite this article: Açar, A., & Yücel Toy, B. (2022). Economic and political analysis of initial teacher education from consensus and conflict perspectives in documents of international institutions. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 12(1). 113-146. doi: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.006

Introduction

Education always undertakes very important roles for the society. Without a doubt, its role can be appreciated differently from different perspectives such as the consensus and conflict approaches to education. The consensus approach considers society as an organism, and each institution of this organism has specific functions (Lauder, Brown, Dillabough, & Halsey, 2006). According to Durkheim (2006), the functions of the education institutions are the selection and socialization of children in the process of defining their own future roles in order to create a social and democratic environment. In this context, the first function is considered as contributing to the economic efficiency by selecting a qualified labor force (Becker, 2006) and social justice by ensuring the fairness of selection based on meritocracy (Young, 1961). Yet, the second functions to help individuals to adapt to the society so that the benefit of society is prioritized rather than the interests of individuals (Durkheim, 2006); therefore, it contributes to social harmony and order.

The conflict approach questions fairness of selection and cost of social order instead of taking them for granted. Proponents of this approach believe that the students from different social classes do not have equal opportunities to be successful in education and obtain well-paid and prestigious jobs in return (Bourdieu, 2015; Bowles & Gintis, 2011; Halsey, Heath, & Ridge, 1980), thus, there is a systematic inequality in selection. Also, they defend that education is based on the ideology of the upper classes and transmits dominant ideologies (Althusser, 2016). This causes not only the reproduction of class-based inequalities. But also, there are inequalities based on gender, race, and cultural differences (Apple, 2004; Arnot & Dillabough, 1999; Gillborn & Youdell, 2009). Therefore, socialization directed to ensure social order is criticized and seen as a control mechanism. The concepts of the consensus and conflict approaches to education and the conceptual model used this study are summarized in Figure 1.

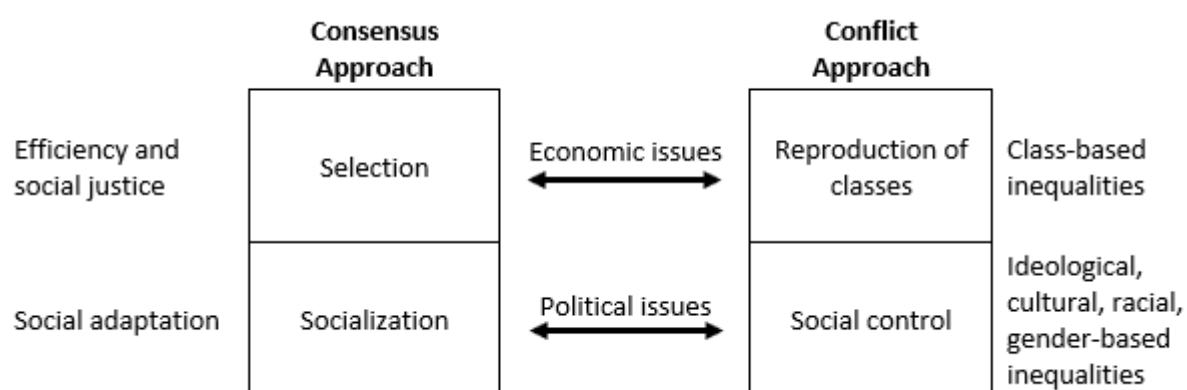


Figure 1. *The Model for Economic and Political Issues Categorization*

As it can be seen in Figure 1, the functions and assumptions of education according to the consensus and conflict approaches are compared and categorized into two groups: economic issues and political issues. At this point, to make operational definitions of the two categories, it can be said that economic and political issues correspond to all kinds of content, goals, approaches, etc. in the educational context. Both approaches discuss economic issues related to education, but their perspectives differ from and even contradict one another. The consensus approach includes the creation of a qualified labor force (Sönmez, 2012) among the

very first aims of education. The conflict approach defines this aim as to “produce labor power with the skills and ideologically compliant attitudes to develop a workforce from which surplus value can be extracted” (Hill, 2007, p. 204). Also, the consensus approach considers political issues in education as adapting individuals to the community so as to ensure social order and harmony (Durkheim, 2006). However, according to the conflict approach these issues can cause cultural (Apple, 2004), racial (Ladson-Billings & Tate IV, 2006), and gender-based (Arnot & Dillabough, 1999) inequalities.

Consensus and conflict approaches portray two different landscapes of education, it can be said that teacher education has a place in these landscapes. Because the teacher plays a key role on that education looks like to which one of the landscapes. It is possible to say that the curriculum includes economic and political issues (Kelly, 2009) but that the determinant of the extent to which this content reaches students is the teacher. Therefore, teacher education gains importance, and the question of how these issues are incorporated into teacher education comes to mind. Because, in determining the quality of education, the most significant variable is the teacher (Darling-Hammond, 2012), and teacher education is the prior condition for improving, reorganizing, or changing education (Flores, 2016). Furthermore, initial teacher education (ITE) is generally seen as a more responsible, criticized, and intervened dimension of the teacher education continuum (Loughran & Hamilton, 2016), and most reconstruction and remediation processes focus on ITE. In addition to these, teacher education is a value-added area (Hansen, 2008) and approaches to teacher education vary just like approaches to education. Therefore, economic and political issues in teacher education are also worthy of discussion, especially from different perspectives.

In this regard, an important thing is which actors have a role in designing ITE and its curriculum. Actually, the main actors shaping teacher education are not only at the national level but also international level. At the international level, international organizations like the UN, EU, and OECD with their goals, standards, criteria, and advice for their member and prospective countries (Buchberger; Campos, Kallos, Stevenson, 2000) and international examinations like Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) and Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) (Craig, 2016) have the potential to affect what is important in teacher education. To understand their focus and views about ITE, examining their documents is a proper way. However, to follow this proper way properly requires a systematic review of documents. At this point, the aims of the systematic review can be stated as the purpose of the study.

Purpose of the Study

In light of this information, this study aims to reveal economic and political issues underlying utterances related to ITE in the documents published by international institutions, and to discuss these issues from the perspectives of consensus and conflict approaches to education. The research questions leading to this study are as follows:

- (1) What kind of economic issues related to ITE exist in the documents published by European Union (EU), Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and United Nations (UN).
- (2) What kind of political issues related to ITE exist in the documents published by EU, OECD, and UN.

Method

Research Design

The present study, which aims to reveal economic and political issues embedded in international documents related to teacher education, has a qualitative approach by nature. The study is designed as a systematic review to analyze the documents. Document analysis is defined as systematic review, analysis, and evaluation of documents (Bowen, 2009). On this basis, in this study, the methodology of systematic review is used to design document analysis. Originally, systematic reviews mainly focus on analyzing original previous studies and collecting empirical evidences from them (Higgins, Thomas & Lasseron, 2019; Torgerson, 2003). However, many research organizations underline the importance of grey literature, which includes policy papers, government reports, and other documents not published by commercial publishers, in systematic reviews (Aromataris & Munn, 2020; Lefebvre et al., 2019). This study reviews the documents as pieces of gray literature using stages of systematic review (Karaçam, 2013; Torgerson, 2003). The aims of the systematic review are presented in the introduction part and other details of the protocol or plan of the systematic review are presented in the method part of the article.

Data Sources

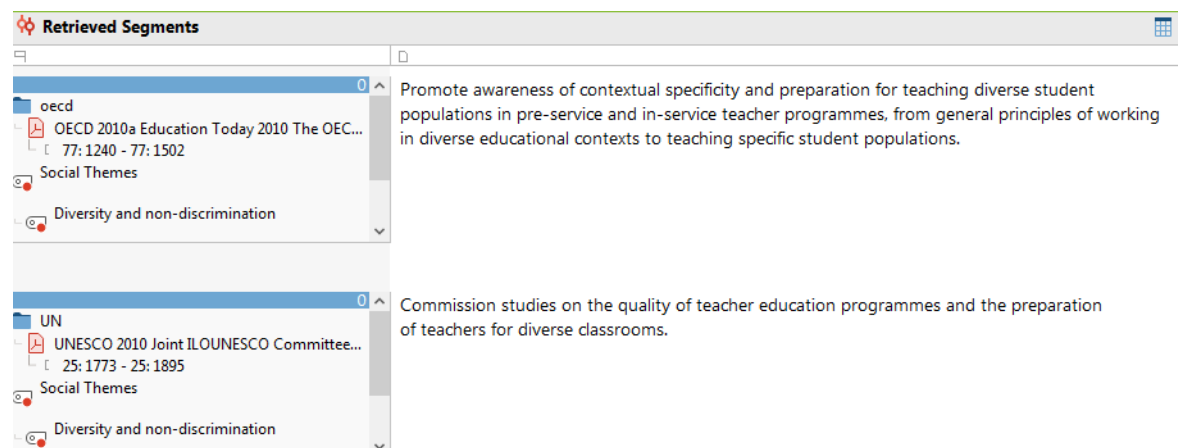
The data of the research are comprised of international documents related to teacher education. As the search (Torgerson, 2003) or scanning (Karaçam, 2013) stage of the systematic review, the documents to be analyzed were determined in a few steps. Firstly, the international organizations having published documents were selected based on the following criteria: (1) having teacher education as an area of interest, (2) making evaluations of teacher education and sharing results and advice online, and (3) having a wider impact area. In this way, the UN which targets to increase qualified teacher supply in sustainable development goals (United Nations [UN], 2016); EU which aims to improve quality of teacher education in its legislation (European Union [EU], 2007) and OECD which specifies initial teacher preparation as an area of work (OECD, n.d.) were selected as document publishers. Documents of these institutions were selected based on the following inclusion and exclusion criteria (Torgerson, 2003). Documents, including policy papers, reports, council conclusions, etc., published by these organizations between 2000 and 2018 were included in the study. Here, the year 2000 was selected as the beginning point because after that time the institutions published their documents online more frequently. 2018 was the endpoint because the document analysis started in 2019. At first, online libraries of these organizations were scanned with the criterion of including key words teacher education, teacher training, teacher, and faculty of education in full texts. In this way, 459 documents related to teacher education were collected and reviewed. Based on the criterion of having content on economic and political issues in ITE, a considerable number of documents were excluded. What is done here corresponds to scoping or mapping stage of systematic review since the documents for full systematic review were decided (Torgerson, 2003). In the end, 67 documents – 23 published by the UN, 32 by the EU, and 12 by the OECD – were analyzed qualitatively in the study. Table 1 shows the number of documents, the publication year, and total pages. The list of the documents is available in Appendix.

Table 1. *Summary Information About Documents*

<i>International Institution</i>	<i>Number of Documents</i>	<i>Publication Years</i>	<i>Total Pages</i>
UN	23	2000-2018	1272
EU	32	2002-2017	1954
OECD	12	2002-2018	1678

Data Analysis

In the study, Strauss and Corbin's (1998) qualitative analysis steps were used in such a way as to accommodate them with the aims and data of the study. With this analysis, the data extraction stage of systematic review (Torgerson, 2003) is realized. During the analysis, MAXQDA 2018 was utilized. After examining all documents related to teacher education, data concerning economic and political issues were coded through open coding, in which codes begin to be revealed in the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). That is, coding was based on concepts that emerged in the data rather than on the pre-determined codes. Firstly, the documents were read one by one and candidate code names were attached to the relevant parts of them. Then, the code candidates and document parts they represented were compared, and the established codes were extracted. In Figure 2, a screenshot from the "retrieved segments" window of MAXQDA 2018 in which the comparisons were made, was presented.

Figure 2. *The Screenshot of Retrieved Segments Window in MAXQDA2018*

In the axial coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), the emergent codes were examined in terms of similarities, differences and hierarchies. Then, the codes were organized based on these relations, and thereby, the themes and sub-themes were extracted.

Trustworthiness of the Research

In this study, to enhance credibility, some of the strategies suggested by Patton (2015) were utilized. Firstly, "constant comparison" (Patton, 2015, p. 658) was a useful strategy to ensure consistency and accuracy of codes, sub-themes and themes. During the open coding process, when coding new data in a document, all data coded with that code were retrieved from all documents in one page via MAXQDA2018 and compared with the new data. Also, in the axial coding, multiple comparisons were made among themes, sub-themes and codes. The second strategy was "keeping the analysis qualitative" (Patton, 2015, p. 660). In this vein, neither coding

frequencies were presented, nor were coded with higher frequency focused on more. Instead of numbers, many quotations from the documents were included in the article to show connections between data, and codes or themes.

Furthermore, having two adverse perspectives – consensus and conflict approaches – in the study also contributed to the credibility. Deriving conclusions based on findings and discussing these conclusions from the two perspectives made it easier to undertake “theory triangulation” (Patton, 2015, p. 671). The two perspectives also made “generating alternative conclusions and rival explanations” possible in the data analysis because the two perspectives made it necessary to examine the data with different eyes. The examination of the data with different eyes, in other words, “analyst triangulation” (Patton, 2015, p. 665) or “double data extraction” (Torgerson, 2003, p. 25), was realized literally by the two researchers of the study. The researchers have different but somehow complementary features. While one has taught teacher candidates for many years, the other has taught in K-12. Also, in terms of the intellectual positioning one stands closer to the conflict approach whereas the other to the consensus approach. Their role was to reflect the competing perspectives into the study so that its credibility was enhanced.

Results

The results are given under two main headings in line with the sub-research questions which focus on economic issues and political issues related to ITE in the documents.

Results on Economic Issues Related to ITE in the Documents

The themes of entrepreneurship, life-long learning (LLL), and Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) emerged as economic issues in the document analysis. and sub-themes and codes under them were presented in Table 2.

Table 2. *Findings concerning Economic Issues Related to ITE in the Documents*

Theme	Sub-theme	Code	Documents
Entrepreneurship	Entrepreneurship in education	Emphasizing entrepreneurship in education and entrepreneurship education	EU (2003, 2006a, 2006c, 2009, 2010, 2011a, 2011b, 2012b, 2014e, 2016a)
		Emphasizing entrepreneurship in ITE	EU (2002, 2003, 2006a, 2006b, 2010, 2011a, 2011b, 2014e, 2016a)
	Entrepreneurship in ITE	Determining needs and deficiencies in ITE	EU (2002, 2011a, 2011b)
		Regulations in curriculum and teaching methods in ITE	EU (2006b, 2011a, 2011b)
		LLL for keeping pace with change and evolution	EU (2005, 2009b, 2013a); OECD (2002a, 2005)
Life-Long Learning		Teachers' competence in LLL	EU (2013d)
		LLL in ITE	EU (2005, 2013a, 2014c, 2015b)
		LLL for teacher educators	EU (2013a)
		Continuous professional development as an LLL process	EU (2005, 2007, 2009b, 2012a, 2013d, 2013e, 2015b); OECD (2005, 2009, 2010, 2014)
			UN (2003a, 2010, 2015c)
Information and Communication Technologies		Promoting and requiring teachers to use ICT	EU (2005, 2007, 2012, 2013d, 2014c, 2016b, 2016c); OECD (2002a, 2010a); UN (2003a, 2003b, 2013b, 2014, 2015a)
		Defining ICT competences and standards for teachers	EU (2014c, 2014d, 2016b); UN (2000, 2003b, 2013b, 2015b, 2016)
		ICT in ITE	EU (2014c, 2016c), OECD (2010a, 2011b); UN (2000, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c, 2003a, 2003b, 2003c, 2013b, 2015b, 2015c, 2016b)
		A pedagogic dimension of ICT is needed	UN (2003b, 2003c)

Theme 1: Entrepreneurship

The entrepreneurship theme was classified as an economic issue since it is defined as creating business in order to make a profit by taking risks (Oxford, n.d.). The sub-theme regarding entrepreneurship in education, EU documents emphasize the promotion of entrepreneurship understanding through education and the development of entrepreneurship skills of students. For this, it is recommended to encourage entrepreneurship education and teachers to include entrepreneurship in their lessons.

"Education and training should contribute to encouraging entrepreneurship, by fostering the right mindset, awareness of career opportunities as an entrepreneur and skills." (EU, 2003, p. 12).

"Set-up incentives at school level to enable teachers to teach entrepreneurship, for instance utilizing setting up staff development funds ..." (EU, 2006b, p. 2).

It can be said that especially the issues of entrepreneurship education and encouragement of teachers about entrepreneurship contribute to the fact that entrepreneurship became important for ITE. Moreover, there are documents emphasizing entrepreneurship in ITE explicitly. Firstly, needs and deficiencies concerning entrepreneurship in ITE are mentioned. Another issue revealed is making regulations in the curriculum and teaching methods in ITE, such as adapting course contents and instruction so as to improve teacher candidates' entrepreneurship and teaching skills for entrepreneurship.

"... teachers need to be trained and sensitized to entrepreneurship education." (EU, 2011b, p. 22).

"The current provision of specific training for teachers on the subject of entrepreneurship is largely insufficient, both as regards initial training in teachers' colleges and further vocational training available for the teachers during their career. This is a major obstacle to introducing the concept of entrepreneurship into the classes." (EU, 2002, p. 8).

"Adopt innovative methods to train teachers in entrepreneurship. These would include case studies and other interactive methods, such as involving teachers in real work on enterprise projects or even in running themselves a mini-company. By acquiring direct experience, teachers will be more effective when using these methods with the students." (EU, 2006b, p. 2).

To sum up, entrepreneurship is an important economic issue in ITE-related documents published by international organizations. Therefore, possible effects like regulations in courses, aims, contents, methods, etc. are expected to be reflected in the national ITE curricula of countries that are in the impact area of these organizations.

Theme 2: Life-Long Learning (LLL)

LLL theme was classified as an economic issue since it is mostly associated with labor productivity. Competent teachers need to improve and update their knowledge and skills life-long. This process is named as continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers (Scales, 2008; Scales et al., 2011) and it can be associated with the economic productivity of labor in the education sector.

In the documents of the international organizations, the importance of LLL in keeping pace with change and evolution is emphasized. The point that emerges here is that science, technology, and people, and so the world and knowledge, have been changing rapidly and teachers, before everyone, need to keep up with these, and the way to achieve this is LLL.

"Teachers should be encouraged to review evidence of effective practice and engage with current innovation and research in order to keep pace with the evolving knowledge society." (EU, 2005, p. 2).

"Greater efforts are needed to engage the teaching profession and the general public with the implications of education for lifelong learning and the opportunities which it provides." (OECD, 2002a, p. 31).

According to the documents, teachers need to be competent in LLL and this can be possible if LLL is included in teacher education, both initial and in-service.

"Teachers should be equipped to respond to the evolving challenges of the knowledge society, participate actively in it and prepare learners to be autonomous lifelong learners." (EU, 2005, p. 1).

"Initial Teacher Education needs to be considered as a starting point for this ongoing process of professional development. It lays the foundation for this mindset and this approach." (EU, 2015b, p. 8).

Providing LLL-related courses or course contents, teaching methods, or more extensively, a pedagogic approach in ITE that can internalize LLL, is suggested. However, such an effort needs teacher educators to improve themselves in LLL because, without the teacher educator dimension, any effort to improve ITE in terms of LLL is condemned to fail.

"Teacher educators should be responsible for providing high-quality support to (student) teachers, modeling attitudes of lifelong learning." (EU, 2013a, p. 36).

"The context in which teacher educators work changes over the years. Structures... curriculum, and the teaching profession itself are all subject to change ... Thus, lifelong learning is important for sustaining the high-quality performance of teacher educators." (EU, 2013a, p. 22).

CPD for teachers is a concept of in-service teacher education. However, CPD is one of the application areas of teachers' LLL skills on which teacher candidates are supposed to become competent during ITE. Creating opportunities for CPD and giving incentives for CPD are referred to frequently in the documents related to teacher education.

"View teachers' development as a lifelong learning experience in order to cater for the rapid changes in schools, the potentially long careers of many teachers, and the need for updating skills. Improve the interconnection of initial teacher education, induction and professional development to create a more coherent learning and development system for teachers." (OECD, 2005, p. 11).

Therefore, it can be said that teacher education is in its nature a LLL process and requires LLL skills for teachers.

Theme 3: Information and Communication Technologies (ICT)

ICT theme is classified as an economic issue since it has a big market, and the education sector has a significant effect on the size of this market. Moreover, ICT literacy contributes a great deal to creating a labor force that possesses the qualifications needed today.

Promoting and requiring teachers to use ICT and defining ICT competencies and standards for teachers are two suggestions frequently referred to in the documents. These suggestions point out the importance of ICT competence in all processes of recruitment, tenure, and promotion in the teaching profession and thus, make ICT competence necessary for teacher candidates.

"Meeting the internationally recognized education goals by 2015 will require significant investments in teacher training. ITE is helping Member States address the situation by focusing on improving the ICT skills of teachers." (UN, 2013b, p. 2).

"The rapid expansion of digital learning tools and Open Educational Resources also creates the need for teachers to acquire sufficient understanding of these to be able to develop relevant digital competencies and make effective and appropriate use of them in teaching." (EU, 2014, p. 2).

It was noticed that the importance of ICT in ITE is frequently emphasized in the documents. This includes integrating ICT into the ITE curriculum to equip teacher candidates with ICT skills so as both to facilitate students' learning and improve students' ICT.

"There is a clear need for countries to formulate their basic standards/benchmarks and ICT competencies for teachers, managers, and students that can serve as a basis for developing teacher training programs on ICT." (UN, 2003b, p. 35).

"The curriculum for teacher educators is often rich with strategies for presenting subject matter and pedagogy; however, it may be lean in terms of integrating technological tools for supporting that learning. Consequently, curriculum developers for teacher preparation programs must be vigilant in identifying appropriate ways to apply ICT tools throughout the coursework and experiences planned for preservice teachers." (UN, 2002c, p. 59).

"ICT should be taught in initial and in-service teacher training so that teachers become confident users of new technologies in the classroom. ICTs also offer valuable possibilities for distance CPD or blended learning courses, which combine some presence-based training with an autonomous study using digital materials." (UN, 2015c, p. 19).

The need for a pedagogic dimension of ICT is also mentioned in the documents, albeit rarely. In education, not only the use of ICT but especially the pedagogy of using ICT has been put forward; this has led to the emergence of the phenomenon of techno-pedagogical knowledge. It seems that the importance of ICT pedagogy or techno-pedagogical knowledge has not been adequately reflected in these documents.

"... these plans still need to be looked into more carefully to link them to the broader ICT for development and education goals – they need to be updated, encouraging a movement from developing basic computer literacy competencies to ICT-integrated teaching/learning. Many countries are realizing that they have developed their ICT in education policy from the technology perspective and understand the need to revise and overhaul the policy from the pedagogy-based perspective." (UN, 2003b, p. 35).

A point that should be approached carefully here is that putting such emphasis on the importance of ICT in ITE and the ICT competence of teacher candidates may result in an increase in the use of ICT in education and the expansion of the ICT market economically.

Results on Political Issues Related to ITE in the Documents

As political issues, the themes of social themes, quality in ITE, and structure of ITE emerged in the document analysis. These themes and sub-themes and codes under them were presented in Table 3.

Table 3. *Findings concerning Political Issues Related to ITE in the Document*

Theme	Sub-theme	Code	Documents
Social Themes	Gender equality	Emphasizing gender equality in ITE	UN (2003a, 2005, 2007, 2013a, 2015a, 2016, 2018)
	Sustainable development	Emphasizing sustainable development in ITE	UN (2002a, 2015a, 2015c, 2017a, 2018)
	Human rights	Emphasizing human rights in ITE	UN (2015a, 2015c)
	Global citizenship	Emphasizing global citizenship in ITE	EU (2017b), UN (2002b, 2015a, 2017a, 2018b)
	Diversity and inclusion	Preparing teachers for diversity via in-service TE	EU (2012a, 2015d, 2017a, 2017b), OECD (2009, 2010a, 2010b), UN (2014, 2016b)
		Preparing teacher candidates for diversity during ITE	EU (2014c, 2016b, 2017a, 2017b) OECD (2010a, 2010b); UN (2005, 2010, 2014, 2015a, 2015c, 2017a, 2018a)
		Campus environment and events	UN (2005)
	Procedure Suggestions to Include Social themes in ITE	Teaching skills for incorporating the issues	EU (2017a); UN (2005, 2013a, 2017a)
		Capacity building for teacher educators	UN (2002a, 2005, 2014, 2017a)
		Relevant course modules and content	EU (2017a); UN (2005, 2017a)
		Benefit from NGOs	UN (2005, 2015c, 2017a)
Quality in ITE	Quality assurance system	Accountability in ITE	OECD (2009); UN (2010, 2014, 2017a)
		Performance / outcome focus	OECD (2005, 2009)
		Measuring and evaluating ITE curricula	OECD (2005); UN (2017a, 2017b)
	Standardization	Accreditation in ITE	OECD (2005, 2010c); UN (2010)
		Standards in teaching profession	EU (2009, 2012a, 2013e); UN (2013a)
Structure of ITE	Flexibility	Standards in ITE	OECD (2007, 2018); UN (2003a, 2007, 2014)
		Flexibility in ITE	OECD (2010c)
		Possibilities arising from ITE curriculum flexibility	OECD (2005, 2010c, 2011a)
	Autonomy and involvement	Alternative routes in ITE	OECD (2005, 2010a, 2010c)
		Autonomy and involvement in ITE	OECD (2005); UN (2016b)
		Benefit from collaboration	EU (2015b)
		Teacher involvement in ITE policy making	OECD (2005, 2007); EU (2013a)
		Teacher involvement in education policy making	OECD (2005), UN (2016b)

Theme 1: Social Themes

This theme is classified as a political issue since each of the social themes shown below has a place in the political agenda and is interpreted somehow differently by different political perspectives. In the international documents, some social themes are emphasized and suggested to be covered in ITE., gender equality, sustainable development, human rights, and global citizenship were the social themes most frequently referred to.

"The ILO and UNESCO should assist governments to develop more gender-inclusive content in teacher and professional training materials." (UN, 2007, p. 18).

"Education for sustainable development (ESD) and global citizenship education (GCED), human rights, peace, and inter-cultural understanding can be seen within a range of courses for the initial training and continuing professional development of teachers." (UN, 2017a, p. 2).

"They contribute to preparing learners to be globally responsible in their role as EU citizens." (EU, 2005, p. 3).

In addition to these, preparing teacher candidates and teachers for diversity has particular importance since it is referred to more elaborately in the documents. In terms of preparing for diversity, ITE is especially emphasized, and including diversity-related mandatory courses and contents in ITE is suggested.

"Promote awareness of contextual specificity and preparation for teaching diverse student populations in preservice and in-service teacher programs, from general principles of working in diverse educational contexts to teaching specific student populations." (OECD, 2010a, p. 77).

"Discuss social equity (e.g., gender, racial, ethnic, and generational) with student teachers and identify ways in which the local community exhibits social tolerance, societal intolerance, equity, and discrimination." (UN, 2005, p. 42).

"Initial Teacher Education (ITE) should also ensure that teacher education addresses equality and non-discrimination, potential gender stereotypes and ways of dealing with diversity in the classroom." (EU, 2016b, p. 26).

"The introduction of mandatory courses aimed at better preparing teachers for diversity is a necessary step to making the curriculum more relevant to all learners, but is more effective when accompanied by an integrated curricula approach." (EU, 2017a, p. 103).

The analysis showed that the documents suggest different procedures to include social themes in ITE: (1) campus environment and events, (2) teaching skills for incorporating the issues, (3) Capacity building for teacher educators, (4) Relevant course modules, and content, (5) Benefit from NGOs

"To enhance skills for integrating issues of sustainability into a range of school subjects and classroom topics." (UN, 2002a, p. 5).

"The preparation of teacher educators is one of the key challenges that ITE systems face when integrating diversity-related issues into the curriculum. ... Teacher educators should be better selected and prepared to teach student teachers for diversity. ... ITE curricula should address societal diversity-related issues. This should be done by adapting existing programs and incorporating diversity throughout curricula. In parallel, specially designed mandatory and specialized elective courses on diversity-relevant theoretical and methodological issues should be introduced." (EU, 2017a, p. 104, 106).

Availability of these elaborate and obvious procedure suggestions means that international institutions do aim to increase the inclusion of social themes in ITE curricula. Especially, procedures of relevant course modules and contents, and teaching skills for integration may lead to developing and adding courses to the ITE curriculum.

Theme 2: Quality in ITE

Quality in the ITE theme is classified under political issues because emerging codes related to quality assurance are essentially about the political processes of managing, administering, governing, or control. The first sub-themes that emerged was the quality assurance system. The analysis revealed that there are several suggestions and emphases on accountability in the documents. Besides, performance- or outcome-focused ITE, the need for measuring and evaluating initial and in-service TE curricula and accreditation in ITE are referred to in the documents and these issues can be seen as efforts to increase accountability in ITE.

"A major challenge in progressing the influence of the SDGs within teacher education is to secure meaningful engagement and a culture of accountability amongst policy-makers and bodies responsible for the delivery of the training of teachers." (UN, 2017a, p. 25).

"Consider accreditation by an independent agency to assure quality in teacher education. ... Ensure that accreditation criteria focus on the outcomes of programs rather than on their inputs, curriculum, and processes." (OECD, 2005, p. 12).

Standardization is another issue that emerged in the analysis. In some documents standards in the teaching profession are referred to with advice for determining standards. Also, for quality, the importance of standards in ITE is underlined in the international documents.

"Development of standards, qualifications, appraisal and evaluation frameworks and support systems for teachers." (UN, 2013a, p. 4).

"Initial teacher education in high-performing countries starts with clear standards that define what teaching staff is expected to know and to be able to do upon graduation from their Initial Teacher Education." (EU, 2012a, p. 32).

"Internationally agreed standards need to be established for teacher education programs so that their comparability is ensured." (UN, 2014, p. 53).

The emphasis on standards both in the teaching profession and ITE means that standardization is promoted. As a result, it can be said that the international documents give importance to accountability and accreditation as elements of quality assurance system and to standards and standardization process as a reference point of these elements.

Theme 3: Structure of ITE

The structure of the ITE theme is classified as political because the issues are associated with decentralization and empowerment. The first sub-theme flexibility in ITE is underlined and suggested in the documents. The suggestions have two specific dimensions. One is about possibilities arising from flexibility in ITE curricula and the other concerns providing alternative routes in ITE so as to increase flexibility diversity of student teachers, and therefore, of future teachers.

"Provide curriculum structures that enable people to enroll in part-time or via distance education and to combine teacher education with work or family responsibilities. ... Increase the common components of teacher preparation for different types of schools and levels of education to increase opportunities for working in different schools. ... Provide consecutive or post-graduate

programs of teacher education to give opportunities to train as a teacher after having completed studies in another field." (OECD, 2005, p. 11).

The issue of autonomy and involvement also emerged in the analysis of the teacher education-related documents. Both autonomy and involvement in ITE are important because they contribute to the status of the profession and empower ITE institutions and educators. Furthermore, the benefit coming from the collaboration of different actors in ITE is also underlined.

"Involving different stakeholders in the policy-making process, whilst respecting each partner's autonomy, leads to stronger ITE systems, based on collaborative governance. This could include reforms which bring together the national and local coordination of ITE, cluster providers at the regional level, or help institutions work together to establish a joint core curriculum and final examinations." (EU, 2015b, p. 12).

Findings showed that flexibility, autonomy, involvement, and collaboration are put forward in the documents. At this stage, the key concern is the extent to which these issues are included in national ITE curriculum development efforts.

Discussion, Conclusion and Implications

In this study, the ITE-related international documents were analyzed to reveal economic and political issues. According to the results, entrepreneurship, LLL, and ICT emerged as economic issues; social themes, quality in ITE, and structure of ITE emerged as political issues.

Entrepreneurship education is based on the assumption that entrepreneurship can be learned and taught (Gorman, Hanlon & King, 1997). At first, entrepreneurship education was confined to business studies and their methods. Later on, both the understanding and practices of entrepreneurship education were improved and a pedagogical approach, which was extended to all dimensions of education, developed. The present study shows that the international institutions emphasize entrepreneurship in teacher education in order to promote entrepreneurship education in K-12. In this sense, they suggest incenting teachers, defining deficiencies and needs in ITE, and regulating ITE curriculum and methods in ITE. The findings are consistent several studies in terms of suggesting to promote entrepreneurship in ITE (Adeyemo, 2009; Baranović & Stibrić, 2007; Devci & Seikkula-Leino, 2018) and regulations in ITE curriculum for this promotion (Fagan, 2006; Gustafsson-Pesonen & Remes, 2012; van Dam, Schipper & Runhaar, 2010). Pedagogically, for entrepreneurship education to be more effective, it needs to be integrated into different subjects. Including entrepreneurship in ITE curricula may enable such integration.

Sociologically, from the consensus perspective, emphasizing and integrating entrepreneurship in ITE and K-12 can be seen as a step for education's function of selection for economic efficiency. Students will improve their entrepreneurship skills in education, and the ones who do this more effectively will enjoy the better career and income opportunities. As a result, total productivity will increase. Leffler and Svedberg (2005), Guedalla Herlau, Armer and Qasier (2001), and Henry et al. (2003) claim that entrepreneurship education contributes to economic growth, and so both individuals and the community benefit from it. On the other hand, from the conflict perspective, the idea that education provides equal opportunities for students to become entrepreneurs can be questioned. Entrepreneurship is generally associated with recognizing opportunities. However, Kwiatkowski (2004) reminds us that the possibility of

using resources to realize opportunities is also important and that social capital – one's social circle providing support in terms of economic know-how or increasing opportunities – is a very key resource. Social capital is mainly formed regardless of education. There are also other out-of-school experiences improving skills directly related to entrepreneurship. Moreover, Holmgren and From (2005) claim that entrepreneurship education aims to improve students' entrepreneurial identity – appreciating entrepreneurs and desiring to be one of them – rather than entrepreneurship skills. In this way, Holmgren and From (2005) puts entrepreneurship education into the symbolic control area defined by Bernstein (2000) and considers it a realization of a neoliberal restructuring process. In other words, when entrepreneurship skills are included in objectives of education, students from higher socio-economic classes tend to achieve more in favor of opportunities and experiences provided by their status rather than entrepreneurship education in school. Moreover, non-achievers do not consider this situation problematic, because although they are left behind in terms of entrepreneurial skills, they achieved in gaining an entrepreneurial identity via education.

The LLL is gaining skills and competencies to keep learning throughout life. Schools are generally taken as the place where LLL skills are developed (Selvi, 2011) and teachers are responsible for improving both their students' and their own LLL skills (Scales, 2008). Therefore, LLL is already an important issue for a teacher and in teacher education. The results of this study show that the international institutions consider LLL as important for the teaching profession and suggest promoting it in both initial and in-service teacher training. The suggestions include integrating LLL-related courses into national ITE curricula and an LLL-based pedagogic approach into ITE. Integrating LLL into ITE seems to be very advantageous for teacher candidates because it seems not only the subject matter, but also student characteristics and teaching and learning approaches are changing continuously, and a teacher's keep with up all these changes requires CPD (Scales et al., 2011) after ITE (Dolan, 2012). Suggestions of including LLL related courses and approaches into ITE seem consistent with studies (Crawley, 2012; Hunde & Tacconi, 2014) revealing the effectiveness of such courses in ITE. However, as can be understood from the results, improving teachers' LLL skills is not the only aim of emphasizing LLL in teacher education. Another aim is to improve their students', and so LLL skills of any individual in the community.

At first, an economic contribution based on an increase in employment is expected from the acquisition of LLL skills by more people (Selvi, 2011). For example, integrating LLL into higher education is considered as a relationship between universities and the market that enables a reciprocal exchange of demands and services (Kogan, 2001). Such expectations and relationships seem consistent with the economic efficiency goal of the consensus approach. More basically, individuals with LLL skills can be considered as prone to accommodate themselves to change – i.e., gaining new skills and competencies demanded by the labor market. Therefore, they are expected to contribute to economic efficiency more. However, another perspective, which disturbs this sacred perception and position of LLL, can be found. Fejes and Nicoll (2008) claim that LLL should be politically analyzed with a Foucauldian perspective and that power relations in LLL resulting from productive strategies should be discussed. In this context, LLL can be considered as a form or means of governance to control or determine the discourse of education. From a similar perspective, Fogde (2008) blames LLL for becoming an instrument of self-governance in the labor market. In other words, the self of the individual is shaped to accommodate what the employer demands. To realize this,

employment- and skill-related learning are promoted while other types of learning are neglected (Andersson, 2008). An example is a focus on practice-related skills in teacher education, rather than the intellectual development of teacher candidates.

ICT in education has been one of the hot topics in education for a long time. International institutions are seen to promote teachers' ICT usage. With this aim, they suggest defining ICT competencies for teachers and including ICT in ITE more. These results seem consistent with other studies focusing on ICT in ITE (Bhattacharjee & Deb, 2016; Gudmundsdottir & Hatlevik, 2018). For many years, courses on using computers were included in ITE curricula. However, because ICT in education has already crossed that line, teachers are expected to integrate ICT into their teaching more comprehensively, and this requires a more dynamic and extensive place for ICT in ITE curricula (Martinovic & Zhang, 2012; Reyes, Reading, Doyle, & Gregory, 2017). Training future teachers to become more competent in ICT is obviously necessary and beneficial because ICT provides golden opportunities for accessing, transforming and even producing knowledge.

As explained above, emphasizing ICT in the ITE curriculum aims to improve teachers' and students' ICT competencies and their usage of ICT. Furthermore, as in education, the visibility of ICT has increased in business life and all types of jobs – both higher-paid and lower-paid – require ICT skills. Based on this, improving students' ICT skills probably results in making future labor more qualified. In this context, education functions to select and lead students to proper career paths according to their performance in education and to enhance economic efficiency. However, just as in entrepreneurship, improvement in ICT skills does not occur only in school. Economic opportunity differences may create substantial inequalities in improving ICT skills. Moreover, two individuals from different social classes but having the same ICT skills are most probably presented with highly different career and income opportunities because of their social capital. Beyond these, it can be said that increasing ICT usage in ITE and K-12, etc., will expand the ICT market incrementally. It is obvious that the expected return for the increase in importance and usage of ICT should be pedagogic progress because the context is educational. However, many "ICT in education" discussions, and even full-scale ICT practices in education (Pamuk, Ergun, Çakir, Yilmaz, & Ayas, 2013), maybe miss this pedagogic return aspect. Therefore, the conflict perspective may question the direction of ICT growth in education: from market to pedagogy or from pedagogy to market.

The results of the document analysis show that the international institutions suggest involving the social themes of gender equality, sustainable development, human rights, global citizenship, and diversity in ITE and its curriculum. They also provide procedure suggestions-including curriculum regulations – showing how to involve these issues. Findings on promoting human rights (Adami, 2014), gender (Lahelma, Tainio, 2019; Skelton, 2007), and preparing for diversity (Banks & Banks, 2001; Florian et al., 2010; Rowan, Bourke, Brownlee & Ryan 2021; Valentin, 2006; Yuan, 2018) themes in ITE is consistent with the relevant literature. Even, emphasizing diversity among other social themes is also consistent. This is not surprising because most of the other social themes can be addressed using diversity. Day by day, the world is becoming a smaller place and diversity becomes a phenomenon even for small communities. Therefore, each teacher needs to prepare diversity, and the most important role and responsibility of this preparation are given to ITE (Townsend & Bates, 2007). ITE is expected to help teacher candidates think about diversity factors like race, gender, ethnicity, cultures (Banks & Banks, 2001) and become aware of their own beliefs and in the end transform these

beliefs (Gay, 2010). Such processes require diversity-related courses and content. According to the results of this study, the documents suggest such courses and contents as compulsory in the ITE curriculum. Similar suggestions are also available in the literature (Valentin, 2006). In terms of gender, this study found that the documents, published in several years from 2003 to 2018, emphasize the promotion of gender quality in ITE. About this issue, Lahelma and Tainio's (2019) document analysis resulted that even there is progress, the promotion of gender equality is a difficult and long mission. From this perspective, maintaining to emphasize gender equality in the documents seems meaningful.

The social themes seem to be related to the social justice dimension (Hansen, 2008) of teacher education and it is obvious that integrating them into ITE curricula is beneficial for teacher candidates, their future students, and society. Firstly, teacher candidates educated with these concerns will be more competent pedagogically because teachers need to be prepared for diverse classes in terms of gender, race, religion, language, socio-economic level, and disabilities. Also, because teaching is a social profession, equipping teachers with more social themes will be helpful in any context.

Including social themes in ITE seems to be appreciated by the consensus approach since teachers with awareness of these issues can contribute to the socialization function of education (Durkheim, 2006). Especially human rights and equality which can be seen as keystones of modern society should be transmitted to future generations. However, when it comes to inclusion and diversity, the situation can be a bit complicated. In the consensus approach's ideal society in which social cohesion and order are indispensable (Durkheim, 1956), the promotion of diversity can be problematic (Lauder et al., 2006). Also in the socialization process, the perception of diversity has an evolution "from melting pot to multiculturalism" (Reisch, 2008, p. 788), that is, from a society in which differences are melted down and mixed to unify them, to a society in which differences can exist together whilst preserving their originality. Therefore, the relationship between social themes and the consensus approach highly depends on its temporal definition of socialization.

On the other hand, from the conflict approach's perspective, teachers' equipping with such social themes can provide remedies for the inequalities in the educational context. Here, social inclusion and diversity have special importance. These issues require social inclusion of the diverse groups in society and non-hierarchical recognition of their differences and subjectivities. Without these requirements, education may function as assimilation of the minority into the majority. However, how these issues are discussed in ITE will determine their actual function. For instance, in the literature different understandings of gender equality (Chatillon et al., 2018), even different conceptualizations of gender (Jagose, 1996) are available. In ITE, content focusing on gender equality may underline binary gender understanding and undermine others. Even the pedagogical approach used to discuss social themes in ITE can be decisive. Therefore, it can be said that integration of social themes into ITE to improve teacher candidates in terms of these issues is appreciated by the conflict approach either. However, how to discuss these issues and what these issues mean are important for the conflict approach since they can be both social remedies and means of social control.

According to the results, the documents rely on accountability, accreditation, and standards for the quality of ITE. TE literature on these issues agrees with these results. Firstly, accountability is quite important to increase the quality of ITE and standard-based evaluations

as one of the elements of accountability aim not only rating but also improvement (Darling-Hammond, 2020). However, some others criticize assuming accountability's taken for granted contribution to quality and assert that this may hide power relations underlying accountability (Cochran-Smith et al., 2017; Tuck, 2013). Although accountability is originally a democratic process of being responsible to students, parents, and the rest of the society, it shifted to technical and directorial issues aiming to establish external and central audits (Jenlink, 2017). Also, accreditation is defined as an indicator of quality (Zumwalt & Craig, 2009) since pieces of evidence of quality are presented and recorded in an accreditation process. However, in the ITE context finding or presenting this evidence of quality is quite difficult by nature of teaching to teach (Wilson & Youngs, 2009). Finally, standardization contributes to quality in ITE since it is to guarantees meeting the minimum qualifications (Roth & Piphoo, 1990). But what the standards are and by whom they are defined are very important. Because, they may have detrimental effects like increasing centralization and weakening the profession by overemphasizing the technical dimension of teaching (Bates, 2007; Mayer & Rein, 2016). It is obvious that quality issues are important for ITE but the moral and social quality of ITE should be considered besides the academic quality.

About the structure of ITE, flexibility, autonomy, and involvement issues emerged in the documents. Flexibility in ITE is generally associated with alternative programs to traditional higher education level programs. Although, studies on the effectiveness of alternative ITE programs seem indecisive (Zumwalt & Craig, 2009) and views are supporting these programs (Kitchen & Petrarca, 2016), it is asserted that evidence-based studies step forward traditional programs (Mayer & Rein, 2016; Roth & Piphoo, 1990). Emphasizing autonomy in ITE so emancipation of ITE institution is seen as important and expected to enhance TE and teacher quality (Bates, 2007). Also, the involvement of different stakeholders in teacher education policymaking contributes to both the democratization and social justice dimension of TE (Zeichner, 2016). Although about alternative programs, findings in the documents are not supported sufficiently in ITE literature, autonomy and involvement are desired issues for ITE.

All in all, in the teacher education-related documents published by international institutions, different economic and political issues emerged. The institutions suggest that these are emphasized in ITE and integrated into ITE curricula. Although the documents are mainly in parallel with the consensus approach, it is thought that these issues should be handled with perspectives of both the consensus and the conflict approaches in ITE. At this point, the extent to which these issues and suggestions are included in national ITE curriculum development efforts is important. Therefore, further studies can be done in order to examine national documents from the consensus and conflict approaches points of view. Comparative analysis among different countries would also be helpful to understand the differences in the reflection of international policies. This study is limited to ITE, however, an analysis of documents in terms of in-service teacher education would be very beneficial for revealing perspectives in teachers' professional development.

References

- Adami, R. (2014). Toward cosmopolitan ethics in teacher education: An ontological dimension of learning human rights. *Ethics and Education*, 9(1), 29-38. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17449642.2014.890272>.
- Adeyemo, S. A. (2009). Understanding and acquisition of entrepreneurial skills: A pedagogical Re-orientation for the classroom teacher in science education. *Journal of Turkish Science Education*, 6(3), 57-65.
- Althusser, L. (2016). *İdeoloji ve devletin ideolojik aygıtları [Ideology and ideological state apparatus]* (A. Tümerterkin, Çev.). İstanbul: İthaki.
- Andersson, P. (2008). Recognition of prior learning as a technique of governing. In A. Fejes & K. Nicoll (Eds.), *Foucault and lifelong learning: Governing the subject* (pp. 126-137). London: Routledge.
- Apple, M. W. (2004). *Ideology and curriculum* (3rd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Arnot, M., & Dillabough, J. A. (1999). Feminist politics and democratic values in education. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 29(2), 159-189.
- Aromataris E., & Munn Z. (Eds.). (2020). JBI manual for evidence synthesis. Retrieved from <https://synthesismanual.jbi.global>. <https://doi.org/10.46658/JBIMES-20-01>
- Bacchus, M. K. (1996). The role of education in development. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 42(2), 77-86. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-19597-7_2
- Ballantine, J. H., & Hammack, F. M., & Stuber, J. (2017). *The sociology of education* (8th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Banks, J. A., & Banks, J. A. (2001). Citizenship education and diversity: Implications for teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 52(1), 5-16. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487101052001002>
- Baranović, B., & Marina, S. (2007). The development of entrepreneurial competence in Croatian compulsory education. *Meeting in Related to Key Competencies Skills for Life*, London, United Kingdom.
- Bates, R. (2007). Regulation and autonomy in teacher education: system or democracy? In T. Townsend and R. Bates (Ed.), *Handbook of teacher education: globalization, stand, ards and professionalism in times of change* (pp. 127-140). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Becker, G. S. (2006). The age of human capital. In H. Lauder, P. Brown, J. A. Dillabough, & A. H. Halsey (Eds.), *Education, globalization, and social change* (pp. 292-294). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bernstein, B. (2000). *Pedagogy, symbolic control, and identity: Theory, research, critique*. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Bhattacharjee, B., & Deb, K. (2016). Role of ICT in 21 st century's teacher education. *International Journal of Education and Information Studies*, 6(1), 1-6.
- Bourdieu, P. (2015). *Yeniden üretim: Eğitim sistemine ilişkin bir teorinin ilkeleri [Reproduction: Principles of a theory on education system]*. (L. Ünsaldı, A. Sümer, Ö. Akkaya, Çev.). Ankara: Heretik.
- Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27-40. <https://doi.org/10.3316/QRJ0902027>
- Buchberger, F., Campos, B. P., Kallos, D., & Stevenson, J. (2000). *Green paper on teacher education in Europe: High-quality teacher education for high-quality education and training*. Umea: Umeå Universitet.

- Chatillon, A., Maria, C., & Bradley, K. (2018). Gender Ideologies. In B. J. Risman, C. M. Froyum, & W. J. Scarborough (Eds.), *Handbook of the sociology of gender* (2nd ed.), (pp. 217-226). Cham: Springer.
- Cochran-Smith, M., Baker, M., Burton, S., Chang, W. C., Cummings Carney, M., Fernández, M. B., ... & Sánchez, J. G. (2017). The accountability era in US teacher education: Looking back, looking forward. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(5), 572-588. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017.1385061>
- Craig, C. J. (2016). Structure of teacher education. In J. Loughran & M. L. Hamilton (Eds.), *International handbook of teacher education* (pp. 69-135). Singapore: Springer
- Crawley, J. (2012). "On the brink" or "Designing the future"? Where next for lifelong learning initial teacher education? *Teaching in Lifelong Learning*, 4(1), 2-12. <https://doi.org/10.5920/till.2012.412>
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2012). *Powerful teacher education: Lessons from exemplary programs*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2020). Accountability in teacher education. *Action in Teacher Education*. 42(1). 60-71. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01626620.2019.1704464>
- Deveci, İ., & Seikkula-Leino, J. (2018). A review of entrepreneurship education in teacher education. *Malaysian Journal of Learning and Instruction*, 15(1), 105-148. <https://doi.org/10.32890/mjli2018.15.1.5>
- Dolan, A. M. (2012). Reforming teacher education in the context of lifelong learning: The case of the bed degree programme in Ireland. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(4), 463-479.
- Durkheim, E. (1956). *Education and sociology*. Retrieved from https://books.google.com.tr/books?id=QnvuzwY_zYC
- Durkheim, E. (2006). Education: Its Nature and Its Role. In H. Lauder, P. Brown, J. A. Dillabough, & A. H. Halsey (Eds.), *Education, globalization, and social change* (pp. 76-87). Oxford University Press.
- European Union [EU]. (2007). Education, training, youth, sport. Retrieved from https://eur-lex.europa.eu/summary/chapter/15.html?expand=1501#arrow_1501
- Fagan, C. (2006). Three Es for Teachers: Economics, enterprise and entrepreneurship. *Teacher Development*, 10(3), 275-291.
- Fejes, A., & Nicoll, K. (2008). *Foucault and lifelong learning: Governing the subject*. London: Routledge.
- Flores, M. A. (2016). Teacher education curriculum. In J. Loughran & M. L. Hamilton (Eds.), *International handbook of teacher education* (pp. 187-230). Singapore: Springer.
- Florian, L., Young, K., Rouse, M., Florian, L., Young, K., & Rouse, M. (2010). Preparing teachers for inclusive and diverse educational environments: studying curricular reform in an initial teacher education course. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 14(7), 709-722. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603111003778536>
- Fogde, M. (2008). Self-governance in the job search: Regulative guidelines in job seeking. In Fejes A. & K. Nicoll (Eds.), *Foucault and lifelong learning: Governing the subject* (pp. 102-113). London: Routledge.
- Gay, G. (2010). Acting on beliefs in teacher education for cultural diversity. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(1), 143-152.
- Gillborn, D., & Youdell, D. (2009). Critical perspectives on race and schooling. In J. A. Banks (Ed.) *The Routledge international companion to multicultural education* (pp. 173-185). New

York: Routledge.

- Gorman, G., Hanlon, D., & King, W. (1997). Some research perspectives on entrepreneurship education, enterprise education and education for small business management: A ten-year literature review. *International Small Business Journal*, 15(3), 56-77.
- Gudmundsdottir, G. B., & Hatlevik, O. E. (2018). Newly qualified teachers' professional digital competence: implications for teacher education. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 41(2), 214-231. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017.1416085>
- Guedalla, M., Herlau, H., Armer, M., & Qasier, S. (2001). The KUBUS system - a holistic approach to enterprise and entrepreneurship. In R. H. Brockhaus, G. E. Hills, H. Klandt, & H. P. Welsch (Eds.), *Entrepreneurship education: A global view* (pp. 104-127). London: Ashgate.
- Gustafsson-Pesonen, A., & Remes, L. (2012). Evaluation of entrepreneurial development coaching: changing the teachers' thinking and action on entrepreneurship. *Annals of Innovation & Entrepreneurship*, 3(1), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.3402/aie.v3i0.17292>
- Halsey, A. H., Heath, A. F., & Ridge, J. M. (1980). *Origins and destinations: Family, class and education in modern Britain*. Oxford: Clerandian Press.
- Hansen, D. T. (2008). Values and purpose in teacher education. In S. Feiman-Nemser, M. Cochran-Smith, D. J. McIntyre, & K. E. Demers (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education: Enduring questions in changing contexts* (3rd ed.) (pp. 10-26). London: Routledge.
- Henry, C., Hill, F., & Leitch, C. (2003). *Entrepreneurship education and training: The issue of effectiveness*. London: Routledge.
- Higgins, J. P., Thomas, J., Lasseron, T. J. (2019). Starting a review. In J. P. Higgins, J. Thomas, J. Chandler, M. Cumpston, T. Li, M. J. Page & V. A. Welch (Eds.), *Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions* (pp. 3-12). New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hill, D. (2007). Critical teacher education, new labour, and the global project of neoliberal capital. *Policy Futures in Education*, 5(2), 204-225. <https://doi.org/10.2304/pfie.2007.5.2.204>
- Holmgren, C., & From, J. (2005). Taylorism of the mind: Entrepreneurship education from a perspective of educational research. *European Educational Research Journal*, 4(4), 382-390. <https://doi.org/10.2304/eeerj.2005.4.4.4>.
- Hunde, A. B., & Tacconi, G. (2014). Teacher educators' practices from the view of building lifelong learning capabilities in student teachers. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 136, 496-500.
- Jagose, A. (1996). *Queer theory: An introduction*. Ne York: New York University Press.
- Jenlink, P. M. (2017). Democracy distracted in an era of accountability: Teacher education against neoliberalism. *Cultural Studies - Critical Methodologies*, 17(3), 163-172.
- Karaçam, Z. (2013). Sistematik derleme metodolojisi: Sistematik derleme hazırlamak için bir rehber. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Hemşirelik Fakültesi Elektronik Dergisi*, 6(1), 26-33.
- Kelly, V. (2009). *The curriculum: Theory and practice* (6th ed.). London: Sage.
- Kitchen, J., & Petrearca, D. (2016). Approaches to teacher education. In J. Loughran & M. Lynn Hamilton (Eds) *International Handbook of Teacher Education* (Volume 1) (pp. 137-186). Singapore: Springer.
- Kogan, M. (2001). Lifelong learning and power relations and structure. *European Journal of Education*, 36(3), 351-360.
- Kwiatkowski, S. (2004). Social and intellectual dimensions of entrepreneurship. *Higher Education in Europe*, 29(2), 205-220. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0379772042000234848>
- Ladson-Billings, G., & Tate IV, W. F. (2006). Toward a Critical Race Theory of Education. In H.

- Lauder, P. Brown, J. A. Dillabough, & A. H. Halsey (Eds.), *Education, globalization, and social change* (pp. 570-585). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lahelma, E., & Tainio, L. (2019). The long mission towards gender equality in teacher education: Reflections from a national project in Finland. *Nordic Studies in Education*, 39(1), 69-84.
- Lauder, H., Brown, P., Dillabough, J. A., & Halsey, A. H. (2006). Introduction: The Prospects for Education: Individualization, Globalization, and Social Change. In H. Lauder, P. Brown, J. A. Dillabough, & A. H. Halsey (Eds.), *Education, globalization, and social change* (pp. 1-70). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lefebvre, C., Glanville, J., Briscoe, S., Littlewood, A., Marshall, C., Metzendorf, M. I., ... & Cochrane Information Retrieval Methods Group. (2019). Searching for and selecting studies. In J. P. Higgins, J. Thomas, J. Chandler, M. Cumpston, T. Li, M. J. Page & V. A. Welch (Eds.), *Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions* (pp. 67-107). New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Leffler, E., & Svedberg, G. (2005). Enterprise learning: A challenge to education? *European Educational Research Journal*, 4(3), 219-227. <https://doi.org/10.2304/eeerj.2005.4.3.6>
- Loughran, J., & Hamilton, M. L. (2016). Developing an Understanding of Teacher Education. In J. Loughran & M. L. Hamilton (Eds.), *International Handbook of Teacher Education*. Singapore: Springer.
- Martinovic, D., & Zhang, Z. (2012). Situating ICT in the teacher education program: Overcoming challenges, fulfilling expectations. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(3), 461-469. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2011.12.001>
- Mayer, D., & Rein, J. (2016). Professionalising teacher education: evolution of a changing knowledge and policy landscape. In J. Loughran & M. L. Hamilton (Eds.), *International Handbook of Teacher Education* (pp. 453-486). Singapore: Springer.
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD]. (n.d.). Initial teacher preparation (Strand I). Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/education/teachers-professional-learning-study/initial-teacher-preparation/>
- Oxford. (n.d.). *Entrepreneurship*. Oxford Learner's Dictionaries. Retrieved from <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/entrepreneurship?q=entrepreneurship>
- Pamuk, S., Ergun, M., Çakir, R., Yilmaz, H. B., & Ayas, C. (2013). The use of tablet pc and interactive board from the perspectives of teachers and students: Evaluation of the FATİH project. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Bilimleri*, 13(3), 1815-1822. <https://doi.org/10.12738/estp.2013.3.1734>
- Patton, M. (2015). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (4th ed.). London: Sage.
- Reisch, M. (2008). From melting pot to multiculturalism: The impact of racial and ethnic diversity on social work and social justice in the USA. *British Journal of Social Work*, 38(4), 788-804.
- Reyes, V. C., Reading, C., Doyle, H., & Gregory, S. (2017). Integrating ICT into teacher education programs from a TPACK perspective: Exploring perceptions of university lecturers. *Computers and Education*, 115, 1-19.
- Roth, R. A., & Chris P. (1990). Teacher education standards. In W. R. Houston, M. Haberman, & J. Sikula (Eds.) *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 119-135). New York: Macmillan.
- Rowan, L., Bourke, T., Brownlee, J. L., & Ryan, M. (2021). How does initial teacher education research frame the challenge of preparing future teachers for student diversity in schools?: A systematic review of literature. *Review of Educational Research*, 91(1), 112-158.

<https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654320979171>

- Scales, P. (2008). *Teaching in the lifelong learning sector*. Berkshire: Mc Graw Hill Open University Press.
- Scales, P., Pickering, J., Senior, L., Headley, K., Garner, P., & Boulton, H. (2011). *Continuing professional development in the lifelong learning sector*. Berkshire: Mc Graw Hill Open University Press.
- Selvi, K. (2011). Teachers' lifelong learning competencies. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 1(1), 61-69.
- Skelton, C. (2007). Gender, policy, and initial teacher education. *Gender and Education*, 19(6), 677-90.
- Sönmez, V. (2012). *Eğitim bilimine giriş* [Introduction to educational science] (10th ed.). Ankara: Anı yayıncılık.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.
- Torgerson, C. (2003). *Systematic reviews*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Townsend, T., & Bates, R. (2007). Teacher education in a new millennium: Pressures and possibilities. In T. Townsend & R. Bates. (Eds.) *Handbook of teacher education: globalization, standards, and professionalism in times of change* (pp. 3-24). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Tuck, E. (2013). Neoliberalism as nihilism? A commentary on educational accountability, teacher education, and school reform. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies*, 11(2), 324-47.
- United Nations [UN]. (2016, January). Goal 4 | Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Retrieved from <https://sdgs.un.org/goals/goal4>
- Valentin, S. (2006). Addressing diversity in teacher education programs. *Education*, 127(2), 196-203.
- van Dam, K., Schipper, M. Runhaar, P. (2010). Developing a competency-based framework for teachers' entrepreneurial behaviour. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(4), 965-71.
- Wilson, S. M., & Youngs, P. (2009). Research on accountability processes in teacher education. In M. Cochran-Smith & K. M. Zeichner (Eds.), *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education* (591-644). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Young, M. (1961). *The rise of meritocracy 1870-2033: An essay on education and equality*. Baltimore: Penguin.
- Yuan, H. (2018). Preparing teachers for diversity: A literature review and implications from community-based teacher education. *Higher Education Studies*, 8(1), 9-17. <https://doi.org/10.5539/hes.v8n1p9>
- Zeichner, K. (2016). Advancing social justice and democracy in teacher education: Teacher preparation 1.0, 2.0, and 3.0. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 52(4), 150-155. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00228958.2016.1223986>
- Zumwalt, K., & Craig, E. (2009). Teachers' characteristics: Research on the indicators of quality. In M. Cochran-Smith & K. M. Zeichner (Eds.), *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education* (pp. 157-260). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.



TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Uluslararası Kuruluşların Belgelerinde Hizmet Öncesi Öğretmen Eğitiminin Uzlaşmacı ve Çatışmacı Bakış Açılıyla Ekonomik ve Politik Analizi

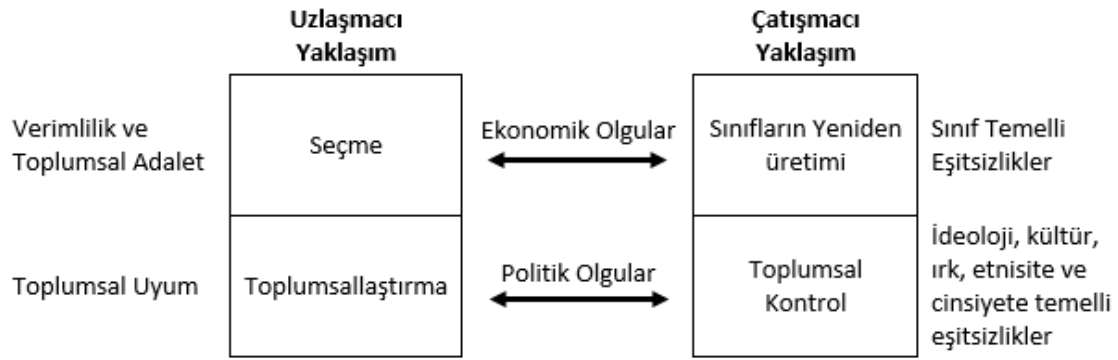
Giriş

Uzlaşmacı yaklaşıma göre eğitimin işlevi, bireylerin çıkarlarından ziyade toplumun yararının ön planda tutulduğu sosyal ve demokratik bir ortam yaratmak için, gelecekteki rollerini tanımlama sürecinde çocukların seçilmesi ve toplumsallaştırılmasıdır (Durkheim, 2006). Bu tanımlamadaki seçme işlevinin ekonomik verimlilik varsayımı eğitim yoluyla nitelikli bir işgücünü seçme fırsatı ile açıklanmaktadır. Seçimin adaletli olduğu varsayımı ise Young'ın (1961) meritokrasi kavramına dayanmaktadır. Çatışmacı yaklaşım, farklı sosyo-ekonomik gruplardan öğrencilerin eğitimde başarılı olmak ve geliri ve saygınlığı yüksek olan işler elde etmek için eşit fırsatlara sahip olmadığını savunmaktadır (Bourdieu, 2015). Çatışmacı yaklaşımın eleştirel bağlamını genişleten diğer bazı görüşler ise eğitimin kültüre (Apple, 2004), ırka (Ladson-Billings & Tate IV, 2006), toplumsal cinsiyete (Arnot & Dillabough, 1999) dayalı eşitsizlikler ürettiğini savunmaktadır. Bu eleştirilerin de uzlaşmacı yaklaşımın eğitime yüklediği toplumsallaştırma işlevini sorguladığı söylenebilir.

Eğitimde uygulanacak yaklaşımın seçiminde ise öğretmen önemli bir görev üstlenmektedir. Çünkü öğretim programlarında yer alan ekonomik ve politik olguların (Kelly, 2009), öğrencilere ne kadarının ve nasıl ulaşacağını belirleyicisi öğretmenlerdir. Bu noktada, ekonomik ve politik olguların öğretmen eğitimine nasıl yansıdığı sorusu akla gelmektedir. Burada hizmet öncesi öğretmen eğitiminin önemi (HÖE) daha fazla önce çıkmaktadır. HÖE'nin belirlenmesinde çoğunlukla ulusal düzeydeki aktörler söz sahibi olmakla birlikte uluslararası düzeyde Birleşmiş Milletler (BM), Avrupa Birliği (AB) ve Ekonomik Kalkınma ve İş Birliği Örgütü (OECD) gibi aktörler, ülkelere öğretmenler ve öğretmen eğitimi ile ilgili hedefler, standartlar ve tavsiyeler sunmakta ve ülkeler arasında karşılaştırılabilir değerlendirmeler yaparak HÖE üzerinde etkili olabilmektedir.

Bu bilgiler ışığında çalışmanın amacı uluslararası kuruluşların – BM, AB ve OECD – dokümanlarında yer alan, HÖE ile ilgili ekonomik ve politik olguların ortaya çıkarmak ve bu olguları uzlaşmacı ve çatışmacı bakış açıları ile tartışmaktır. Bu çalışmanın; öğretmenlerin yetiştirilmesinde görev alan eğitimcilerin, HÖE programı geliştirenlerin ve karar vericilerin dikkatini uluslararası dokümanlarda yer alan bu tür olgulara çekmesi ve bu olguları farklı bakış açıları ile değerlendirebilmesine yardımcı olması beklenmektedir.

Şekil 1'de uzlaşmacı ve çatışmacı yaklaşımların kullandıkları kavramlar ve bu çalışma kapsamında kurulan kavramsal model özetlenmiştir.



Şekil 1. Ekonomik ve Politik Olgular Kategorilerinin Kavramsal Modeli

Yaklaşımların ortaya koydukları eğitimin işlev ve varsayımlar iki kategoriye ayrılmıştır: ekonomik olgular ve politik olgular. Çalışma kapsamında dokümanlarda aranacak olan bu olgular şu şekilde tanımlanabilir. Ekonomik ve politik olgular, eğitimin içinde ekonomi veya politika ile ilgili olan her türlü içerik, hedef, yaklaşım vb. olgulara karşılık gelmektedir.

Yöntem

Sistematiik derleme türündeki bu çalışmada öğretmen eğitimi konusunda uluslararası kuruluşların yayınladıkları dokümanlar incelenmiştir. Bowen'in (2009) doküman analizini sistematiik bir inceleme olarak tanımlamasından da yola çıkarak, çalışmanın tasarımı ve gerçekleştirilmesinde sistematiik derlemenin aşamaları izlenmiştir (Karaçam, 2013; Torgerson, 2003). Çalışmanın veri kaynağını uluslararası kuruluşlarının yayınladıkları öğretmen eğitimi ile ilgili dokümanlar oluşturmaktadır. Çeşitli kriterle dayalı olarak (Torgerson, 2003), öncelikle doküman yayınlayan kuruluşlar, ardından bunların çalışmaya dahil edilecek dokümanları belirlenmiştir. Dokümanları seçme kriterleri öğretmen eğitimi ile ilgili olma, ekonomik ve politik olgularla ilgili içeriğe sahip olma, 2000-2018 yılları arasında çevrimiçi olarak yayınlanma şeklindedir. Toplamda 23 BM, 35 AB ve 12 OECD dokümanı üzerinde kodlama yapılmıştır.

Analiz, Strauss ve Corbin'in (1998) nitel analiz adımlarının çalışmaya uygun olarak izlenmesi ile gerçekleştirmiştir. Bu adımlar dokümanları tekrar tekrar okunup veri parçalarının işaretlendiği mikro analiz, işaretli kısımlara veriden çıkarılan isimlerin verildiği açık kodlama, kodlar arasında karşılaştırma, gruplama ve hiyerarşi kurma işlemleri ile temaların ve alt temaların oluşturulduğu eksensel kodlama şeklindedir. Veri analizi MAXQDA 2018 yazılımı ile yapılmıştır.

Çalışmanın inandırıcılık, tutarlılık ve teyit edilebilirlik özelliklerini artırmak adına Patton'ın (2015) önerdiği sürekli karşılaştırma, analizi nitel tutma, teori çeşitlemesi, alternatif sonuçlar ve karşıt açıklamalar üretme ve analist çeşitlemesi önlemlerinden yararlanılmıştır.

Bulgular

Dokümanlarda girişimcilik olgusu, eğitimin genelinde girişimcilik ve girişimcilik eğitimi ile; HÖE'de ise ihtiyaç ve eksikliklerin belirlenmesi ve program önerileri ile vurgulanmaktadır. Diğer bir ekonomik olgu olan Hayat Boyu Öğrenme (HBÖ) ise dokümanlarda öğretmenlerin değişime ve gelişime ayak uydurmaları için, HBÖ yetkinliğine ihtiyaç duydukları, bu yüzden HÖE'de ve hizmet içi öğretmen eğitiminde HBÖ'nün yer alması gerektiği, bu bakımdan, öğretmen

eğitimcilerinin de HBÖ yetkinliklerinin gelişmesi gerektiği vurgulanmaktadır. Uluslararası dokümanlarda ekonomik olguların sonuncusu olan Bilgi ve İletişim Teknolojileri (BİT) öğretmenler tarafından kullanımının teşvik edilmesi ve gerekli kılınması, öğretmenler için BİT yetkinlikleri ve standartlarının belirlenmesi, bunları karşılamak için HÖE'de BİT eğitiminin verilmesi ve bu eğitimde BİT'in pedagojik boyutunun vurgulanması gerektiğine ilişkin bulgulara rastlanmıştır.

Uluslararası dokümanlarda, toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliği, sürdürülebilir kalkınma, insan hakları ve küresel vatandaşlık gibi bazı sosyal konuların HÖE'de yer alması gerektiği vurgulanmaktadır. Ayrıca, çeşitlilik içeren gruplara öğretmeye hazırlama konusu dokümanlarda daha sık ve daha ayrıntılı olarak yer almıştır. Dokümanlarda sosyal konuların HÖE'ye nasıl dahil edileceğine ilişkin program düzenlemelerini de içeren önerilere rastlanmıştır. Bulgulara göre, dokümanlarda, HÖE'de kalite kapsamında hesap verilebilirlik ile akreditasyon süreçlerine ve bunlara rehberlik edecek standartlara ve standartlaşma eğilimine önem verildiği anlaşılmaktadır. Bulgular; esneklik, otonomi, katılım ve iş birliğinin uluslararası kuruluşlar tarafından yayınlanan HÖE ile ilgili dokümanlarda öne çıkan olgular olduğunu ve HÖE'ye katkı sağlayacak olgular olarak görüldüğünü göstermektedir.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Uluslararası dokümanlarda HÖE bağlamında vurgulanan girişimcilik (Deveci & Seikkula-Leino, 2018), HBÖ (Crawley, 2012) ve BİT (Bhattacharjee & Deb, 2016) ekonomik olgularının HÖE literatüründe de benzer şekilde ele alındığı görülmektedir. Bu olguların HÖE'de ve eğitimde yer almasının genellikle ekonomik verimliliğe katkı sağladığını öne süren görüşler ağırlıktadır (Henry, Hill & Leitch, 2003; Selvi, 2011). Ancak, durumun bundan daha karmaşık olduğunu savunanlar, eğitim ile gerçekleşen seçimin adaletini sorgulamaktadır. Bu noktada, girişimciliği sembolik kontrol alanına yerleştirerek neoliberal yeniden yapılanmanın bir parçası olarak görme (Holmgren & From, 2005), HBÖ'nün bireyi kendi benliğini piyasaya göre şekillendirmesine götürebileceği (Fodge, 2008); HÖE ve eğitimde BİT'in yaygınlaşmasının pazardan pedagojiye doğru olan bir büyüme olması riski gibi görüşler dikkat çekmektedir. Sonuç olarak, söz konusu ekonomik olguların HÖE için önemli olduğu açıktır. Ancak bunların HÖE'de ve eğitimde daha fazla ele alınması ile beklenen getirilerin topluma nasıl dağılacığına ilişkin tartışmanın da sürekli olarak gündemde tutulması gerekmektedir.

Dokümanlarda politik olgular bakımından öne çıkarılan sosyal konuların birçoğunun HÖE literatüründe de genel kabul gören olgular olduğu söylenebilir. Ancak, bazı sosyal konular için bu durum mümkün olmayabilir. Dokümanlarda vurgulanan çeşitliliğe hazırlama konusunun, uzlaşmacı yaklaşımın bireyin topluma uyumu kaygısına uygunluğu tartışılabilir (Lauder, Brown, Dillabough, Halsey, 2006). Öte yandan, farklılıklardan kaynaklı eşitsizliklere dikkat çeken eleştirel görüşler için ise çeşitliliğe hazırlama HÖE için olmazsa olmazlardandır. Sosyal konuların HÖE'de nasıl ele alınacakları da oldukça önemlidir. Hesap verilebilirlik, akreditasyon ve standartların kaliteye katkı sağlayacağı açıktır. Ancak bu katkıyı garanti görmemek gerektiğine (Cochran-Smith ve diğerleri 2017) ve bu olguların aşırı vurgusunun doğurabileceği denetim, merkezileşme ve mesleğin teknikerliğe indirgenmesi gibi sorunlara yol açabileceğine ilişkin görüşler (Bates, 2007; Jenlink, 2017) anlamlı bulunmaktadır. Son olarak, otonomi ve katılım konusunda dokümanların ve HÖE literatürünün uyumlu olduğu söylenebilir.

Sonuç olarak, söz konusu ekonomik ve politik olguların dokümanlarda uzlaşmacı yaklaşımın ile uyumlu olarak ele alındığı söylenebilir. Ancak, yukarıda tartışıldığı bu olgulara yönelik alternatif değerlendirmeler de yapılabilmektedir. Bu sebeple, bu olguların gerek HÖE tartışmalarında gerekse HÖE programlarında farklı bakış açılarını yansıyacak biçimde ele alınması önerilmektedir.

Appendix

List of the Documents included in the Study

European Union Documents

- European Union [EU]. (2002). *Final report of the expert group best procedure project on education and training for entrepreneurship*. Retrieved from <https://ec.europa.eu/docsroom/documents/23144/attachments/1/translations/en/renditions/pdf>
- European Union [EU]. (2003). *Green paper: Entrepreneurship in Europe*. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/invest-in-research/pdf/download_en/entrepreneurship_europe.pdf
- European Union [EU]. (2004). *Joint interim report - Education and training 2010 – The success of the Lisbon strategy hinges on urgent reforms*. Retrieved from <https://op.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/59381b9f-3a72-4bca-9b8f-1f9029644152/language-cs>
- European Union [EU]. (2005). *Common European principles for teacher competencies and qualifications*. Retrieved from <http://www.pef.uni-lj.si/bologna/dokumenti/eu-common-principles.pdf>
- European Union [EU]. (2006a). *Implementing the community Lisbon programme: Fostering entrepreneurial mindsets through education and learning*. Retrieved from <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52006DC0033&from=EN>
- European Union [EU]. (2006b). *The Oslo agenda for entrepreneurship education in Europe*. Retrieved from <https://ec.europa.eu/docsroom/documents/8968/attachments/1/translations/en/renditions/pdf>
- European Union [EU]. (2007). *Council conclusions on improving the quality of teacher education*. Retrieved from <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=celex%3A52007DC0392>
- European Union [EU]. (2009a). *Council conclusions on a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training*. Retrieved from <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=celex%3A52009XG0528%2801%29>
- European Union [EU]. (2009b). *Council conclusions on the professional development of teachers and school leaders*. Retrieved from <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2009:302:0006:0009:EN:PDF>
- European Union [EU]. (2010). *Towards greater cooperation and coherence in entrepreneurship education*. Retrieved from <https://ec.europa.eu/docsroom/documents/9269/attachments/1/translations/en/renditions/pdf>
- European Union [EU]. (2011a). *Entrepreneurship education. Enabling teachers as a critical success*. Retrieved from <https://ec.europa.eu/docsroom/documents/9272/attachments/1/translations/en/renditions/native>
- European Union [EU]. (2011b). *Order 129: Mapping of teachers' preparation for entrepreneurship education*. Retrieved from https://www.ab.gov.tr/files/ardb/evt/1_avrupa_birligi/1_9_politikalar/1_9_4_egitim_politikasi/mapping_en.pdf
- European Union [EU]. (2012). *Supporting the teaching professions for better learning*

- outcomes*. Retrieved from <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=SWD:2012:0374:FIN:EN:PDF>
- European Union [EU]. (2013a). *Supporting teacher educators*. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/assets/eac/education/policy/school/doc/support-teacher-educators_en.pdf
- European Union [EU]. (2013b). *Amendment to the 2013 annual work program on grants and contracts for the 'Lifelong Learning Programme'*. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/default/files/file_import/Annual_work_programme_2013_Grants_and_contracts_for_the_lifelong_learning_programme_amendment_C%282013%291787_en_0.pdf
- European Union [EU]. (2013c). *Funding of education in Europe 2000-2012*. Retrieved from <https://op.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/ec383cc3-a5c9-4146-846c-fb18dea32aca>
- European Union [EU]. (2013d). *Supporting teacher competence development*. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/assets/eac/education/experts-groups/2011-2013/teacher/teachercomp_en.pdf
- European Union [EU]. (2013e). *Study on policy measures to improve the attractiveness of the teaching profession in Europe*. Retrieved from <https://op.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/eb4f3b89-5f9b-4d8e-997b-426a9e3a41cd>
- European Union [EU]. (2014a). *The European Union explained: Education, training, youth, and sport*. Retrieved from <https://op.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/452770ed-fa44-492b-8dc8-e3c898f720a2>
- European Union [EU]. (2014b). *Erasmus+: A guide to European Union opportunities in education, training, youth, and sport changing lives, opening minds*. Retrieved from <https://op.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/2345b829-46c0-4e11-81c1-6c910a34e5e3>
- European Union [EU]. (2014c). *Council conclusion on effective teacher education*. Retrieved from [https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52014XG0614\(05\)&from=EN](https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52014XG0614(05)&from=EN)
- European Union [EU]. (2014d). *New modes of learning and teaching in higher education*. Retrieved from http://portal3.ipb.pt/images/icm/1.2_2014_modernisation_en.pdf
- European Union [EU]. (2014e). *Report on Indicators on entrepreneurial learning and competence*. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/education/library/reports/2014/entrepreneurial-expert-report_en.pdf
- European Union [EU]. (2015a). *Strengthening teaching in Europe*. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/assets/eac/education/library/policy/teaching-profession-practices_en.pdf
- European Union [EU]. (2015b). *Shaping career-long perspectives on teaching: Initial teacher education*. Retrieved from <https://epale.ec.europa.eu/en/resource-centre/content/shaping-career-long-perspectives-teaching-guide-policies-improve-initial>
- European Union [EU]. (2015c). *The teaching profession in Europe: Practices, perceptions, and policies*. Retrieved from https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/content/teaching-profession-europe-practices-perceptions-and-policies_en
- European Union [EU]. (2016c). *Survey on policies and practices of digital and online learning in Europe*. Retrieved from <https://op.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/->

[/publication/621e32df-4a75-43e3-b594-2d1dccc44640](#)

European Union [EU]. (2016a). *Entrepreneurship education at school in Europe*. Retrieved from https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/content/entrepreneurship-education-school-europe_en

European Union [EU]. (2016b). *2016 financing decision for the contributions allocated to the European Institute of Innovation and Technology*. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/info/publications/financing-decisions-2016-contributions-eit_en

European Union [EU]. (2017a). *Preparing teachers for diversity: The role of initial teacher education*. Retrieved from <https://op.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/b347bf7d-1db1-11e7-aeb3-01aa75ed71a1>

European Union [EU]. (2017b). *Policies to promote social and civic competences – from the Paris Declaration to global citizenship education*. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/education/sites/default/files/social-civic-competences-report-2017_en.pdf

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Documents

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2002a). *“teacher education and the teaching career in an era of lifelong learning”*. Retrieved from https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/teacher-education-and-the-teaching-career-in-an-era-of-lifelong-learning_226408628504

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2002b). *“Teacher demand and supply; improving teaching quality and addressing teacher shortages”*. Retrieved from https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/teacher-demand-and-supply_232506301033

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2005). *Teachers matter: Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers*. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/education/school/attractingdevelopingandretainingeffectiveteachers-finalreportteachersmatter.htm>

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2007). *Reviews of national policies for education: Basic education in Turkey 2007*. Retrieved from https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/reviews-of-national-policies-for-education-basic-education-in-turkey-2007_9789264030206-en

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2009). *Creating effective teaching and learning environments: First results from TALIS*. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/education/school/43023606.pdf>

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2010a). *Education today 2010: The OECD perspective*. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/education/educationtoday2010theoecdperspective.htm>

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2010b). *Educating teachers for diversity: Meeting challenges*. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/education/ceri/educatingteachersfordiversitymeetingthechallenge.htm>

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2010c). *Initial teacher education and continuing training policies in a comparative perspective*. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED529644.pdf>

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2011). *ICT and initial teacher education: National policies*. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd->

- [ilibrary.org/education/ict-and-initial-teacher-education_5kg57kjj5hs8-en](https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/ict-and-initial-teacher-education_5kg57kjj5hs8-en)
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2011). *Building a high-quality teaching profession: Lessons from around the world*. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/education/school/programme-for-international-student-assessment-pisa/building-a-high-quality-teaching-profession-lessons-from-around-the-world.htm>
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2014). *TALIS 2013 results: An international perspective on teaching and learning*. Retrieved from https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/talis-2013-results_9789264196261-en
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2018). *What difference do standards make to educating teachers? A review with case studies on Australia, Estonia, Singapore*. Retrieved from https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/what-difference-do-standards-make-to-educating-teachers_f1cb24d5-en

United Nations Documents

- United Nations [UN]. (2000). *Research seminar on teacher training for information society: Moscow*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000121473?posInSet=1&queryId=234fd976-c0ea-4c87-82a8-e8e2fbfcc926>
- United Nations [UN]. (2002a). *Teaching and learning for a sustainable future a multimedia teacher education programme booklet*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000125238?posInSet=2&queryId=4a2ffa5a-1b99-4907-b047-72de3c52f64a>
- United Nations [UN]. (2002b). *Teaching and learning for a sustainable future a multimedia teacher education programme*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000161849?posInSet=1&queryId=4a2ffa5a-1b99-4907-b047-72de3c52f64a>
- United Nations [UN]. (2002c). *Information and communication technologies in teacher education. a planning guide*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000129533?posInSet=1&queryId=20a34070-b236-42cd-af68-8df4f9eb0cf4>
- United Nations [UN]. (2003a). *Joint ILO/UNESCO committee of experts on the application of the recommendations concerning teaching personnel: 8th session, Paris*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000133693?posInSet=1&queryId=61652ad8-a81d-4393-96fe-a54e3608b7d3>
- United Nations [UN]. (2003b). *Teacher training on ICT use in education in Asia and the Pacific. overview from selected countries*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000132979?posInSet=1&queryId=755e4ae1-1ae9-407e-a172-bbe0b82935ef>
- United Nations [UN]. (2003c). *Proceed of international subregional seminar on the use of distance education ICT in teacher education trends, policy, and strategy considerations*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000133486?posInSet=1&queryId=0a5b5b20-d3cb-431e-9458-58bb51be9e89>
- United Nations [UN]. (2005). *Guidelines and recommendations for reorienting teacher education to address sustainability*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000143370?posInSet=1&queryId=820980a4->

[8c92-4429-bf90-823fed54fd65](https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000151685?posInSet=1&queryId=0e6987f2-2b92-4517-9256-36144e357a94)

United Nations [UN]. (2006). *Research analysis attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers a global overview of current policies and practices*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000151685?posInSet=1&queryId=0e6987f2-2b92-4517-9256-36144e357a94>

United Nations [UN]. (2007). *Report by the director-general on the ninth session of the joint ILO/UNESCO committee of experts on the application of the recommendations concerning teaching personnel (CEART), and report by the committee on conventions and recommendations thereon*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000149766?posInSet=1&queryId=8bc62870-dc42-4d09-9d15-0215a79ee11b>

United Nations [UN]. (2010). *Joint ILO/UNESCO committee of experts on the application of the recommendations concerning teaching personnel*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000150949?posInSet=3&queryId=49a39fd7-8190-4fc1-a4d9-7fbd6d7197cf>

United Nations [UN]. (2013a). *Teachers*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000222128?posInSet=1&queryId=b6ef7c40-90b5-4d23-9020-bfc7700c9cbf>

United Nations [UN]. (2013b). *Report by the governing board of the UNESCO Institute for Information Technologies in Education (IITE) on the activities of the institute for 2012-2013*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000222665?posInSet=1&queryId=b80ee38d-3d35-4e71-b6bc-12c036e2b8a8>

United Nations [UN]. (2014). *Teaching and learning achieving quality for all; EFA global monitoring report, 2013-2014; summary*. Retrieved from https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000225654_khm?posInSet=1&queryId=48d8143b-f9e8-4a92-9e1a-265dc188da4c

United Nations [UN]. (2015a). *Education 2030 framework for action*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000245656?posInSet=3&queryId=8f1e342e-8c50-467c-99c8-8bf342c47b90>

United Nations [UN]. (2015b). *Report by the governing board of the UNESCO International Institute for Capacity-Building in Africa (IICBA) on the institute's activities for 2014-2015*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000234478?posInSet=8&queryId=dbe458cc-952c-4aee-87d0-2a2417ba72e2>

United Nations [UN]. (2015c). *Teacher policy development guide*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000235272>

United Nations [UN]. (2016a). *Diverse approaches to developing and implementing competency-based ICT training for teachers a case study*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000246003?posInSet=1&queryId=277feffd-a101-40d7-ad5e-29f91fd3acfb>

United Nations [UN]. (2016b). *A Review of evaluative evidence on teacher policy*. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000244373?posInSet=1&queryId=54b64b9e-1979-496a-8692-0e96a5ff8d2c>

United Nations [UN]. (2017a). *A Review of education for sustainable development and global*

citizenship education in teacher education. Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000259566?posInSet=1&queryId=b4a6bf5e-18cb-4bb9-991b-656464d7ced7>

United Nations [UN]. (2017b). *Improving the global measurement of teacher training.* Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000259584?posInSet=1&queryId=cadbbe91-e39c-4e1c-ab33-95d8627bf4e7>

United Nations [UN]. (2018a). *International task force on teachers for education 2030 strategic plan 2018-2021.* Retrieved from <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000261708?posInSet=1&queryId=8ef18afc-f798-44a0-9250-bfcb82015b31>

United Nations [UN]. (2018b). *Sustainable development goal 4 and its targets.* Retrieved from <https://sdg4education2030.org/the-goal>

Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs regarding Out-of-School Learning Activities

Engin Demir, Bandırma Onyedi Eylül University, edemirakademik@gmail.com, 000-0002-6280-5467



Filiz Çetin, Gazi University, ficetin@gazi.edu.tr, 0000-0002-6806-0160

Keywords

Teacher Training
Out-of-School Learning
Self-Efficacy
Non-Formal Learning

Article Info:

Received : 14-11-2021
Accepted : 07-05-2022
Published : 18-06-2022

Abstract

Learning activities employed in out-of-school learning activities (OOSLA) provide students with a different learning experience while enabling teachers to discover, implement, and evaluate different teaching approaches. This study intends to investigate the self-efficacy beliefs levels of teachers as regards OOSLA and whether these self-efficacy levels differ significantly depending on their gender, graduated faculty, educational status, seniority, and department graduated from. It adopts the descriptive survey design. The sample is composed of 308 teachers. The data were collected utilizing the "Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs Toward Out-of-School Learning Activities Scale". Parametric test statistics were used in data analysis. The results revealed that teachers had a high level of self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA and that gender was not a determinant of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. It was also found that the participants who completed graduate studies had firmer self-efficacy beliefs than those who did not. The teachers with 21 years and above of teaching experience had higher self-efficacy levels than those with 6-10 and 11-15 years of teaching experience. On the other hand, graduates of mathematics and science education departments had lower self-efficacy levels than primary education, Turkish education, and social science education departments. Finally, researchers recommend encouraging pursuing graduate studies, collaborating with experienced teachers, eliminating institutional obstacles to out-of-school activities, and supporting teachers in increasing their self-efficacy regarding out-of-school learning activities.

DOI: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.007

To cite this article: Demir, E., & Çetin, F. (2022). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding out-of-school learning activities. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 12(1), 147-166. doi: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.007

Introduction

Multifaceted development of teachers has become increasingly essential and highlights the importance of teaching methods to fulfill this necessity. The recent developments in teaching

and learning have demonstrated that learning experiences are not limited to the classroom or school environment, generating the idea that any environment conducive to learning can be utilized. Similarly, learners are not restricted to the learning experiences provided at schools in the classroom environment but can experience learning outside of the classroom environment (Şen, Ertaş-Kılıç, Oktay, Ekinci & Kadirhan, 2021). Şimşek and Kaymakçı (2015) defined out-of-school learning as all planned and programmed learning experiences that include people, areas, institutions, and resources outside the school building, as well as all curricula. Out-of-school learning is a multidimensional process involving employing structured learning activities outside the classroom in various settings such as society and nature (Bunting, 2006). The out-of-school learning concept encompasses a variety of environments, from different life spaces outside the school boundaries to virtual learning platforms (Şen, 2019). Şimşek (2011) defines out-of-school learning environments as where learning-teaching is carried out outside the school. Any environment conducive to learning, such as museums and archeological sites, national parks, zoos, art ateliers, exhibitions, industrial plants, and schoolyards, is typical of out-of-school learning environments. OOSLA is the whole of activities outside of school, including educational aims and acquisitions (Karademir, 2013). All activities that involve excursions, observations, or experiments in these environments are called OOSLA. Learning activities in these out-of-school learning environments provide the students with a unique learning experience while enabling the teachers to discover, implement, and evaluate different teaching approaches.

Children's experiences in and outside the school profoundly impact their academic performance and social functions (Resnick, 1987). OOSLA offers different learning opportunities that are not present in the traditional learning environments (Ertaş-Kılıç & Şen, 2014), including informal and non-formal learning platforms. Eshach (2007) defines non-formal learning environments as learning environments that support structured and pre-planned learning, under the leadership of teachers, where learning is not generally evaluated, allowing for the construction and development of knowledge. He defines informal learning as not purposeful and planned environments, where learning is not evaluated, and learning takes place under the learner's leadership. In the learning process, informal environments can be used following the curriculum (Türkmen, 2019). OOSLA, which promotes learning by doing and experiencing, and developing a critical approach (Ay, Anagün, & Demir, 2015), lead to permanent learning and greater interest in learning experiences (Bozdoğan & Ustaoglu, 2016; Sontay, Tutar & Karamustafaoğlu, 2016; Tortop & Özek, 2013).

In recent years, many studies have been conducted in various fields on the effect of OOSLA on education and training. These studies have generally focused on student attitudes about learning, academic achievement, motivation, and effects on other skills. According to the results obtained from the research, the following results were obtained, respectively:

The teacher plans OOSLA well. They are a source of motivation for students. They are fun and entertaining environments to make trips and observations (Arabacı & Akgül, 2020). Teaching biology out of school has a positive cognitive and influential effect on 13-15-year-old Swedish high school students (Fägerstam & Blom, 2013). Students exhibited positive attitudes regarding out-of-school excursions (Nadelson & Jordan, 2012), and middle school students in the museum group learned more than in the classroom group (Sturm & Bogner, 2010).

Moreover, they make the abstract learning outcomes concrete and observable (Laçın Şimşek, 2011). OOSLA, which has been shown to have positive effects on learners, serves the curriculum's purposes to a great extent when carefully designed and implemented (Andrew, Maggie & Sarah, 2010; Nelson, 2012). Students' learning experiences based on cause-effect relationships outside of school and curriculum-based learning through mutual interaction support their holistic development. Out-of-school learning environments in Turkey were introduced with the guidebooks for out-of-school learning environments prepared by some provincial directorates of National Education. The learning outcomes and venues were associated according to the grade level.

Regardless of how perfect the curriculum looks on paper, it still depends on the teachers since they are implementing them. At this point, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors are critical to the success of a curriculum. Teachers need to have high levels of self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA. Because teacher's perception of self-efficacy affects the quality of teaching, the methods and techniques used, the inclusion of students in learning, and student's understanding of the subjects taught (Aydın, Haşioğlu & Kunduracı, 2016). On the other hand, teachers need to have firm self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA because only such teachers can encourage other teachers, parents, and students to get involved in OOSLA. Nevertheless, teachers are reluctant to use and have concerns about OOSLA for such reasons as complex control of the process, time problems, supervision-security concerns (Yaşar Çetin, 2021), economic obstacles, and reluctance to take on responsibility (İnce & Akcanca, 2021), and lack of motivation (Ay, Anagün & Demir, 2015; Çiçek & Saraç, 2017). In addition, they conceive that OOSLA is not adequately supported in Turkey (Büyükkaynak, Ok & Aslan, 2016). The problems teachers encounter influence their self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA.

Teachers' self-efficacy is an essential predictor of teachers' behaviors in the future. Bandura first defined the concept of self-efficacy belief in 1977. He asserts that self-efficacy beliefs have a significant effect on human behaviors and defines the term as "one's self-judgment about his or her capacity of organizing and applying activities to accomplish a task" and "an individual's belief in his or her capacity of performing a task" (1977, 1994, & 1997). Bandura (1994) attributed individuals' self-efficacy beliefs to four primary sources. The first and the most effective one is personal experiences. The second is others' experiences. The third source is the assurance from others, and the final one is self-judgment about the person's skills. Regardless of failures or resistance to hardships, perseverance also indicates self-efficacy. Individuals with low self-efficacy tend to overestimate the difficulty of tasks and have difficulty overcoming problems because they might have a narrow perspective (Kaptan & Korkmaz, 2002). Therefore, self-efficacy is vital in teachers' "planning," "implementation, and assessment" of OOSLA. They require painstaking preparation and planning. It is essential to have high levels of self-efficacy in going beyond the traditional classroom environment, as legal procedures might be demanding. Thus, it is vital to determine teachers' self-efficacy levels regarding OOSLA. When the studies in the introduction are examined, studies on OOSLA can be classified into two parts. The first is research on the effects of OOSLA on students, and the second is teachers' views on OOSLA. The focus of this study is teachers' self-efficacy perceptions for OOSLA. It is known that OOSLA serves the purposes of the curriculum (Andrew, Maggie & Sarah, 2010; Nelson, 2012) and that the teachers' self-efficacy perception affects the quality of teaching and the methods and techniques used (Aydın, Haşioğlu & Kunduracı, 2016). In this context, researching teacher self-efficacy, which is also valid for OOSLA, will contribute to the literature. The present study

intends to determine the self-efficacy beliefs levels of teachers as regards OOSLA and whether these self-efficacy levels differ significantly depending on their gender, graduated faculty, educational status, seniority, and department graduated from. The variables used in this study were determined by examining the variables in similar studies (Azar, 2010; Ekici, 2008; Saracaloğlu, Yenice & Özden, 2013; Üstüner et al., 2009) on teacher and self-efficacy. To this end, it seeks answers to the following research questions:

1. What is the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA?
2. Do the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA differs by gender?
3. Do the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA differ by graduated faculty?
4. Do the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA differs by educational status?
5. Do the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA differs by seniority?
6. Do the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA differ by department graduated from?

Method

Research Design

The study is based on the descriptive survey design since teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA are revealed in this study. Descriptive survey design involves reaching a large sample group by mail, phone, or in-person to ask the same set of questions, and descriptive survey design describes the event or situation that is the subject of the study as it exists (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyu, 2012, Karasar 2014).

Study Group

The non-probability sampling method, convenience sampling, was used in the data collection process. In inconvenience sampling, researchers form their sample starting from the easiest respondents to reach (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018). The data was collected online from the teachers who were active in the teacher groups on social media platforms during the COVID-19 pandemic when schools were closed. A total of 396 teachers were involved in the study. Because of outliers and data loss, 88 were excluded from data analysis. Ultimately, 308 teachers comprised the study group. Table 1 presents the demographic information about the participants.

Table 1. *Demographic Characteristics of Participants*

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Gender	Female	186	60.4
	Male	122	39.6
Graduated faculty	Faculty of Education	234	76.0
	Others	74	24.0
Educational status	Undergraduate	222	72.1
	Graduate	86	27.9
Seniority	1-5 years	40	13.0
	6-10 years	52	16.9

Table 1. (Cont.)

Department from	graduated	11-15 years	73	23.7
		16-20 years	67	21.8
		21 years and above	76	24.7
		Department of Primary education	90	29.2
		Mathematics and Science Education	66	21.4
		Department of Turkish and Social Sciences	71	23.1
		Others	81	26.3

As can be observed in Table 1, female teachers and teachers who graduated from the departments of education faculty were more than half of the study group. Teachers who have a graduate degree (master's or Ph.D. degree) form part 28% of the study group. The shares of senior participants are close to each other. Teachers have graduated from 29% dept. Of primary education, 21% mathematics and science education, 23 % dept. of Turkish and social sciences, and 26% of other departments of education faculty (foreign languages education, dept. of computer and instructional technologies education, dept. of special education, dept. of fine arts education,)

Data Collection Tool

The present study's data were collected employing the "Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs toward OOSLA" scale developed by Göloğlu Demir and Çetin (2021). It is a 5-point Likert scale consisting of four factors with 29 items. The four factors are entitled as follows: "Planning Self-Efficacy," "Implementation and Assessment Self-Efficacy," "Self-Efficacy to Support Learning," and "Knowledge and Experience Self-Efficacy." The exploratory factor analysis of the scale was found to account for 61.01% of the total variance. The confirmatory factor analysis results revealed that the scale had a good model fit ($\chi^2/df=0.27$, RMSEA=.072, SRMR=.06, PNFI=.87, and PGFI=.7) and perfect model indices (CFI=.97, NFI=.90, NNFI=.95, IFI=.97, RFI=.94). The Cronbach Alpha and combined reliability coefficients were calculated to determine reliability. It was revealed that the Cronbach's Alpha (α) reliability coefficients of the measures for the four factors and the overall scale were respectively: .95, .90, .86, .78, and .94

The Cronbach's Alpha (α) reliability values were calculated for the sub-factors and the overall scale in the present study. The Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient for the overall scale was found to be .94, while the Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficients for the sub-factors were as follows: planning self-efficacy=.92, implementation and assessment self-efficacy=.87, self-efficacy to support learning and knowledge=.81 and experience self-efficacy=.76. These indices reveal that the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency values for the "Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs Toward OOSLA" scale and each of its sub-dimension were .70 and above, indicating that the scale's internal consistency was at an acceptable level (Pallant, 2017).

Data Collection Process

In this research, the data were collected by online survey method in 2021. The reason for selecting this method is that schools were closed because of the COVID-19 pandemic. An online survey was designed using Google Forms and shared with participants. Information was given about the research in the online form, and voluntary consent (informed consent form) was requested at first. The data was collected online from the active teachers in the teacher

groups on social media platforms. The research was conducted upon the approval of Bandırma Onyedi Eylül University's Social and Human Sciences Ethics Committee (date 18.06.2020, issue number 20 20-3).

Data Analysis

The normality test was run to identify whether the variables displayed a normal distribution before the data obtained from the "teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA" were analyzed within the scope of the study. Table 2 presents the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test results.

Table 2. *Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results*

<i>Scale Components</i>	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Planning	.080	308	.000
Implementation and Assessment	.085	308	.000
Supporting Learning	.117	308	.000
Knowledge and Experience	.085	308	.000
OOSLA (Overall Scale)	.040	308	.200*

As can be observed in Table 3, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test results indicated that the data in the overall "teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA" scale show a normal distribution ($p > 0.05$). Thus, the standard distribution curve's histogram Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients were examined. The Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients these calculations yielded are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. *Values for the Self-Efficacy Beliefs regarding OOSLA and the Sub-Dimensions*

<i>Scale Components</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Skewness Standard Error</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>	<i>Kurtosis Standard Error</i>
Planning	-.111	.139	-.296	.277
Implementation and Assessment	-.115	.139	.064	.277
Supporting Learning	-.244	.139	-.474	.277
Knowledge and Experience	-.002	.139	-.474	.277
OOSLA (Overall Scale)	.057	.139	-.519	.277

As measures of the normality assumption, the Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients are expected to be between -1 and +1 (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner & Barrett, 2004). Thus, the values in the present can be claimed to display a normal distribution. Moreover, z-score values obtained by dividing the Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients by the standard error and fall between -1.96 and +1.96 are regarded as sufficient for the normality assumption of the distribution (Field, 2009). Hence, the results obtained indicate that the sub-dimensions of the scale also display normal distribution.

In data analysis, the t-test was employed for the independent samples to identify whether or not the average scores from the overall "teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA" scale and the sub-dimensions of the scale varied by gender, type of faculty graduated from, and educational status. On the other hand, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to identify whether the mean scores varied by years of seniority and department. After ANOVA, the Levene

test was used to find that the variances of the distributions were homogeneous. Since variances are homogenous, and the sample size is close equity in each group (Kayri, 2009), Tukey's multiple comparison techniques were utilized. The results of the analyses were interpreted based on the .05 significance level by reporting the percentage, frequency, mean, and standard deviation values of the variables. The eta chi-square statistic was calculated to identify whether the significant variation was affected by the difference between the mean scores. The values obtained via eta square were interpreted as follows: .01= small effect, .06= moderate effect, .14=large effect (Cohen, 1988). In addition to this, 1.00-1.79=Strongly Disagree, 1.80-2.59= Disagree, 2.60-3.39= Moderately Agree, 3.40-4.19=Strongly Agree, 4.20-5.00=Completely Agree intervals were used (Karagöz, 2019; Pimentel, 2010) in order that descriptive interpretation of the teachers' mean scores of their self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA.

Results

The first research question was, "What is the level of teachers' self-efficacy regarding OOSLA? Descriptive statistical techniques (min, max, \bar{x} , s) were employed to respond to this question, and the results obtained are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. *The Distribution of Teachers' Self-Efficacy Belief Scores*

<i>Scale Components</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	\bar{x}	<i>s</i>
Planning	308	1.91	5.00	3.84	.61
Implementation and Assessment	308	2.00	5.00	3.77	.63
Supporting Learning	308	2.40	5.00	3.97	.61
Knowledge and Experience	308	1.50	5.00	3.65	.73
OOSLA (Overall Scale)	308	2.55	5.00	3.82	.53

It can be observed in Table 4 that the teachers' mean scores of their self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA ranged between 3.65-3.97. Hence, their self-efficacy beliefs can be regarded to be at a high level.

An independent sample t-test was conducted to respond to the second sub-question of research: "Do the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA differs by gender?" The findings showed that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding the OOSLA did not differ a significant variation by gender. The analysis results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. *T-Test Analysis Results by Gender*

<i>Scale Components</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>n</i>	\bar{x}	<i>S</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Planning	Female	186	3.85	.60	306	.281	.78
	Male	122	3.83	.64			
Implementation and Assessment	Female	186	3.74	.59	306	-1.240	.22
	Male	122	3.83	.68			
Supporting Learning	Female	186	4.00	.60	306	.910	.36
	Male	122	3.93	.63			
Knowledge and Experience	Female	186	3.65	.73	306	.036	.97
	Male	122	3.64	.74			
OOSLA (Overall Scale)	Female	186	3.81	.52	306	-.142	.89
	Male	122	3.82	.56			

As can be observed in Table 5, the scores obtained from the sub-dimensions and the overall scale of the "teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA" did not show a significant variation by gender ($p>0.05$).

The third sub-questions of the research were "Do the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA differs by graduated faculty?" According to the independent sample t-test, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding the OOSLA did not show a significant variation among graduated faculty. The analysis results are given in Table 6.

Table 6. *t-Test Analysis Results regarding Type of Graduated Faculty*

<i>Scale Components</i>	<i>Faculty Type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>\bar{x}</i>	<i>sd</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Planning	Education Faculty	234	3.85	.60	306	.295	.76
	Others	74	3.82	.67			
Implementation and Assessment	Education Faculty	234	3.75	.63	306	-1.046	.29
	Others	74	3.84	.61			
Supporting Learning	Education Faculty	234	3.98	.61	306	.246	.80
	Others	74	3.96	.63			
Knowledge and Experience	Education Faculty	234	3.64	.73	306	-1.36	.89
	Others	74	3.66	.77			
OOSLA (Overall Scale)	Education Faculty	234	3.81	.52	306	-.229	.81
	Others	74	3.83	.57			

As can be observed in Table 6, the scores obtained from the sub-dimensions and the overall scale of the "teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA" did not show a significant variation by type of faculty graduated from ($p>0.05$).

An independent sample t-test was conducted to respond to the fourth sub-questions research question: "Do teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA differ by educational status?" The self-efficacy beliefs of teachers regarding the OOSLA differed. A significant variation in educational status was found. The analysis results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. *t-Test Analysis Results regarding Educational Status*

<i>Scale Components</i>	<i>Educational status</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>\bar{x}</i>	<i>sd</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Eta Square</i>
Planning	Undergraduate	222	3.77	.61	306	-3.205	.001	.032
	Graduate	86	4.02	.60				
Implementation and Assessment	Undergraduate	222	3.71	.63	306	-2.702	.007	.023
	Graduate	86	3.93	.61				
Supporting Learning	Undergraduate	222	3.93	.61	306	-2.082	.038	.014
	Graduate	86	4.09	.60				
Knowledge and Experience	Undergraduate	222	3.58	.74	306	-1.36	.015	.019
	Graduate	86	3.81	.70				
OOSLA (Overall Scale)	Undergraduate	222	3.75	.52	306	-3.270	.001	.034
	Graduate	86	3.83	.57				

As can be observed in Table 7, the scores obtained from the sub-dimensions and the overall scale of the "teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA" showed a significant variation in whether or not a graduate degree was pursued ($p>0.05$). The teachers with a graduate degree had firmer self-efficacy beliefs than those who did not. The effect size of the significance of the

sub-dimensions and the overall scale can be small as the eta square values ranged between .01 and .06.

The ANOVA test was run to respond to the fifth research sub-question how do teachers' self-efficacy levels regarding OOSLA differ by seniority? Findings obtained from the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs scale regarding OOSLA showed a significant difference in seniority. The analysis results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. ANOVA Results regarding the Variable of Seniority

Scale Components	Seniority	<i>n</i>	\bar{x}	<i>sd</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Sig. Variance	Eta-Square
Planning	1) 1-5 years	40	3.80	.64	3.666	.006	2-5	.046
	2) 6-10 years	52	3.63	.58				
	3) 11-15 years	73	3.80	.56				
	4) 16-20 years	67	3.87	.60				
	5) 21 years and above	76	4.03	.64				
Implementation and Assessment	1) 1-5 years	40	3.75	.61	2.895	.022	2-5	.036
	2) 6-10 years	52	3.61	.58				
	3) 11-15 years	73	3.66	.68				
	4) 16-20 years	67	3.86	.55				
	5) 21 years and above	76	3.92	.65				
Supporting and Learning	1) 1-5 years	40	3.95	.63	3.065	.017	5-2 5-3	.038
	2) 6-10 years	52	3.82	.64				
	3) 11-15 years	73	3.87	.61				
	4) 16-20 years	67	4.02	.62				
	5) 21 years and above	76	4.15	.55				
Knowledge and Experience	1) 1-5 years	40	3.52	.86	4.094	.003	2-4, 2-5	.051
	2) 6-10 years	52	3.37	.65				
	3) 11-15 years	73	3.60	.67				
	4) 16-20 years	67	3.79	.73				
	5) 21 years and above	76	3.82	.72				
OOSLA (Overall Scale)	1) 1-5 years	40	3.77	.57	4.603	.001	5-2 5-3	.057
	2) 6-10 years	52	3.62	.48				
	3) 11-15 years	73	3.74	.52				
	4) 16-20 years	67	3.88	.52				
	5) 21 years and above	76	3.99	.53				

As can be observed in Table 8, the scores obtained from the sub-dimensions and the overall scale of the "teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA" showed a significant variation by seniority ($p > 0.05$). The Levene test run following ANOVA revealed that the variation in the group distribution was homogeneous, and the Tukey multiple comparative techniques were utilized. The results obtained showed that teachers with 21 or more years of seniority had higher levels of self-efficacy than those with 6-10 years of experience in the "planning self-efficacy," "implementation and assessment self-efficacy," "supporting learning self-efficacy," and "knowledge and experience self-efficacy" beliefs regarding OOSLA. Moreover, teachers with 21 or more years of seniority had significantly higher self-efficacy scores in the supporting learning sub-dimension and the overall scale compared to those with 11-15 years of seniority. Similarly, teachers with 11-15 years of seniority had lower self-efficacy in the knowledge and experience sub-dimension. It was revealed that the effect size of the overall scale and the sub-dimensions was small.

The sixth sub-questions of the research was "Do teachers' self-efficacy levels regarding OOSLA differ by department graduated from?" According to the results of the ANOVA, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA show a significant variation by department graduated from. The analysis results are given in Table 9.

Table 9. ANOVA Results regarding Department Graduated from

Scale Components	Department	n	\bar{x}	sd	F	p	Significant Variance	Eta Square
Planning	Primary Edu.	90	4.00	.59	7.132	.000	2-1	.065
	Mathematics and Science Edu.	66	3.59	.57			2-3	
	Turkish and Social Sciences Edu.	71	3.95	.59				
	Others	81	3.78	.62				
Implementation and Assessment	Primary Edu.	90	3.87	.62	3.602	.014	2-1	.034
	Mathematics and Science Edu.	66	3.56	.62				
	Turkish and Social Sciences Edu.	71	3.82	.62				
	Others	81	3.79	.62				
Supporting Learning	Primary Edu.	90	4.12	.61	3.819	.010	2-1	.036
	Mathematics and Science Edu.	66	3.81	.55				
	Turkish and Social Sciences Edu.	71	4.00	.57				
	Others	81	3.91	.67				
Knowledge and Experience	Primary Edu.	90	3.92	.67	7.575	.000	1-2,	.069
	Mathematics and Science Edu.	66	3.38	.66			1-3,	
	Turkish and Social Sciences Edu.	71	3.60	.69			1-4	
	Others	81	3.60	.81				
OOSLA (Overall Scale)	Primary Edu.	90	3.97	.52	7.276	.000	2-1,	.066
	Mathematics and Science Edu.	66	3.59	.48			2-3	
	Turkish and Social Sciences Edu.	71	3.87	.51				
	Others	81	3.78	.56				

As can be observed in Table 9, the scores obtained from the sub-dimensions and the overall scale of the "teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA" showed a significant variation by department graduated from ($p > 0.05$). The Levene test run following ANOVA revealed that the variation in the group distribution was homogeneous, and the Tukey multiple comparative techniques were utilized. The results obtained showed that teachers who were graduates of primary education had higher levels of self-efficacy than those who had graduated from a mathematics and science education department in the "planning self-efficacy," "implementation and assessment self-efficacy," "supporting learning self-efficacy," and "knowledge and experience self-efficacy" beliefs regarding OOSLA. The Turkish and social sciences department graduates were found to have significantly firmer self-efficacy beliefs

regarding OOSLA than mathematics and science education department graduates. When the effect sizes were examined, it was observed that it was at a moderate level in "planning," "knowledge and experience," and the "overall scale," while it was small in the other sub-dimensions.

Discussion, Conclusion, and Implications

The present study aimed to investigate the self-efficacy beliefs levels of teachers as regards OOSLA. In addition, the study examined whether teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in OOSLA varied by their gender, the type of faculty they graduated from, the department they graduated from, their educational status, and their seniority. According to the present study results, the teachers participating in the study were revealed to have a high level of self-efficacy beliefs in OOSLA. This finding is consistent with the finding reported by Tural and Kala (2018). They studied teacher candidates' self-efficacy beliefs in museum education and found that teacher candidates had a high level of self-efficacy beliefs. Mosoley, Reinke, and Bookout (2003) revealed that the self-efficacy of outdoor environmental education is high in the study of preservice teachers. In another study conducted by Gürsoy (2018), the teachers' pre-and post-test self-efficacy belief scores who performed OOSLA varied significantly in favor of the post-test.

The teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA did not vary significantly by gender and type of faculty graduated from in the sub-dimensions and the overall scale. This is consistent with other findings reported in studies by Pekin and Bozdoğan (2021) and by Sontay and Karamustafaoğlu (2017), where there was no significant variation between teachers' levels of self-efficacy in their ability to organize out-of-school excursions by gender. Similar findings are also observed in studies conducted with teachers and teacher candidates in the related literature (Hamurcu & et al., 2019; Kunduracı, 2015; Sarışan Tungaç, 2015; Uysal & Kösemen, 2013; Yeşilbursa & Uslu, 2014). This indicates that females and males have similar self-efficacy beliefs and that their beliefs in completing a duty or task did not vary by gender. Britner and Pajares (2006) concluded that gender makes a significant difference in self-efficacy. In addition to this, Pekin and Bozdoğan (2021) reported no significant difference between teachers' levels of self-efficacy beliefs regarding the type of faculty graduated also. Considering that teachers are trained from different sources such as education faculties and science and literature faculties in our country, it is thought-provoking that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding OOSLA do not show a significant difference in favor of education faculties. However, faculties of education are institutions where teacher candidates receive pedagogy training and practice for a more extended time.

The self-efficacy beliefs of teachers with a graduate degree (master's or Ph.D. degree) were revealed to be higher than those who did not hold a graduate degree. In other words, teachers with a graduate degree had higher levels of "planning self-efficacy," "implementation and assessment self-efficacy," "self-efficacy to support learning," and "knowledge and experience self-efficacy," as well as an "overall self-efficacy" in OOSLA. This finding shows similarity with the findings reported in a study conducted by Pekin and Bozdoğan (2021) with middle school teachers. In another conducted by Sontay and Karamustafaoğlu (2017), it was revealed that teachers' self-efficacy levels in their ability to organize excursions were significantly higher for those who held a graduate degree compared to those who did not. In many developed countries, including England, Canada, Australia, Singapore, Finland, and Germany teaching

profession is required a graduate degree (Şişman, 2009). The results of the study examined the impact of postgraduate studies on teachers' practice and showed that research conducted in universities by teachers had improved their teaching (Ion & Iucu, 2016). From this point of view, it can be said that the positive reflections of postgraduate education on the teaching process of teachers are also practical on OOSLA.

Teachers with more than 21 years of professional experience had firmer self-efficacy beliefs in OOSLA than those with 6-10 years of experience. Experienced teachers had higher levels of "planning self-efficacy," "implementation and assessment self-efficacy," "self-efficacy to support learning," and "knowledge and experience self-efficacy" in OOSLA. This finding is not consistent with the findings reported by Pekin and Bozdoğan (2021); Pas, Bradshaw, and Hershfeldt (2012), and Yılmaz and Çokluk-Bökeoğlu (2008). However, it shows similarities with the findings of the studies conducted by Sontay and Karamustafaoğlu (2017), and Aydın, Haşioğlu, and Kunduracı (2016). Despite these studies in the related literature, more studies need to be conducted to reveal the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in terms of professional experience. In organizing OOSLA, realizing the necessary official procedures, the provision of student safety, and the more significant experience of teachers in classroom management may have positively affected their self-efficacy belief in OOSLA.

The present study results revealed that the levels of self-efficacy beliefs of teachers who were mathematics and science education graduates were higher than those of teachers who were graduates of primary education, Turkish education, and social sciences education. It can be attributed to the fact that out-of-school learning environments (museum-archeological sites, schoolyards, etc.) are easier to benefit from in the disciplines of social sciences. Studies conducted in Turkey on out-of-school learning environments between 2007 and 2016 were examined. It was determined that most of the studies on out-of-school learning environments were in science and social Sciences (Saraç, 2017).

Based on the findings revealed in the present study, the following recommendations can be made: (i) experienced and less experienced teachers are recommended to work collaboratively in conducting OOSLA; (ii) school principals are recommended to develop interventions that support and facilitate OOSLA; (iii) the mathematics and science education departments in education faculties are recommended to give more place to the topic of OOSLA in their curriculum; (iv) teachers can be encouraged to pursue a postgraduate degree, and (v) teachers with a postgraduate degree are recommended to work collaboratively with their colleagues in the area of OOSLA. The collection of data during the pandemic period is a limitation of this research. It is recommended to repeat similar studies in the period when teachers provide face-to-face education.

References

- Andrew, M., Maggie, E., & Sarah, B. (2010). Applied research and zoo education: The evolution and evaluation of a public talks program using unobtrusive video recording of visitor behavior. *Visitor Studies*, 13(1), 23-40.
- Arabacı, S., & Akgül, G. D. (2020). Okul dışı öğrenme ortamlarına yönelik fen bilgisi öğretmenlerinin görüşleri. *Uluslararası Eğitim Araştırmacıları Dergisi*, 3(2), 276-291.
- Ay, Y., Anagün, Ş. S., & Demir, Z. M. (2015). Sınıf öğretmeni adaylarının fen öğretiminde okul dışı öğrenme hakkındaki görüşleri. *Electronic Turkish Studies*, 10(15). DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.7827/TurkishStudies.8702>
- Aydın, S., Haşioğlu, M. A., & Kunduracı, A. (2016). Fen bilimleri öğretmenlerinin ders dışı etkinlikleri kullanmada özyeterlik algılarının farklı değişkenler açısından incelenmesi. *Uluslararası Eğitim Bilim ve Teknoloji Dergisi*, 2(2), 94-103.
- Azar, A. (2010). Ortaöğretim fen bilimleri ve matematik öğretmeni adaylarının öz yeterlilik inançları. *Zonguldak Karaelmas University Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(12).
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavior change. *Psychological Review* 84, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. V. S. Ramachandran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior* içinde (s. 71-81). New York: Academic Press.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman
- Bozdoğan, A. E. & Ustaoglu, F. (2016). Planetaryumların öğretim potansiyeli hakkında fen bilimleri öğretmen adaylarının görüşleri. *Türk Fen Eğitimi Dergisi*, 13(1), 38-49.
- Britner, S. L., & Pajares, F. (2006). Sources of science self-efficacy beliefs of middle school students. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 43(5), 485-499.
- Bunting, C. J. (2006). *Interdisciplinary teaching through outdoor education*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics
- Büyükkaynak, E., Ok, Z., & Aslan, O. (2016). Fen bilimleri öğretmenlerinin fen eğitiminde okul dışı öğrenme ortamlarına yönelik görüşleri. *Kafkas Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, Ek sayı 1, 43-60. DOI: 10.9775/kausbed.2016.032
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison K. (2018). *Research methods in education* (Eighth edition). London: Routledge
- Çiçek, Ö., & Saraç, E. (2017). Fen bilimleri öğretmenlerinin okul dışı öğrenme ortamlarındaki yaşantıları ile ilgili görüşleri. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Kırşehir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi (KEFAD)*, 18(3), 504-522.
- Ekici, G. (2008). Sınıf yönetimi dersinin öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen öz-yeterlik algı düzeyine etkisi. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 35(35), 98-110.
- Ertaş-Kılıç, H., & Şen, A. (2014). The effect of physics education based on out-of-school learning activities and critical thinking on students' attitudes. *Education and Science*, 39(176). DOI: 10.15390/EB.2014.3635
- Eshach, H. (2007). Bridging in-school and out-of-school learning: Formal, non-formal, and informal education. *Journal of Science Education and Technology*, 16, 171-190
- Fägerstam, E., & Blom, J. (2013). Learning biology and mathematics outdoors: effects and attitudes in a Swedish high school context. *Journal of Adventure Education and Outdoor Learning*, 13(1), 56-75.

- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. SAGE.
- Fraenkel J., Wallen N., & Hyu, H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. Newyork: McGraw-Hill
- Göloğlu-Demir, C. & Çetin, F. (2021). Okul dışı öğrenme (ODÖ) faaliyetlerine yönelik öğretmen öz-yeterlik inançları ölçeğinin geliştirilmesi. *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 19(1), 613-634. DOI: 10.37217/tebd.901426
- Gürsoy, G. (2018). Fen öğretiminde okul dışı öğrenme ortamları. *Electronic Turkish Studies*, 13(11).
- Hamurcu, H., Karıcı, G., Göbeklioğlu, G., Aymak, Ö., Atalay, S. & Topaloğlu, S. (2019). Self-efficacy beliefs of preservice primary school teachers about the organization of educational school trips. *Journal of Research in Informal Environments*, 4(2), 102-116.
- Ion, G., & R. Iucu. 2016. "The impact of postgraduate studies on the teachers' practice." *European Journal of Teacher Education* 39 (5): 602-615. doi:10.1080/02619768.2016.1253674.
- İnce, S., & Akcanca, N. (2021). Okul öncesi eğitimde okul dışı öğrenme ortamlarına yönelik ebeveyn görüşleri. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, (58), 172-197.
- Kaptan, F. & Korkmaz, H. (2002). Probleme dayalı öğrenme yaklaşımının hizmet öncesi fen öğretmenlerinin problem çözme becerileri ve öz yeterlik inanç düzeylerine etkisi. *V. Ulusal Fen Bilimleri ve Matematik Eğitimi Kongresi*, 16-18 Eylül: Ankara.
- Karademir, E. (2013). *Öğretmen ve öğretmen adaylarının fen ve teknoloji dersi kapsamında "Okul dışı öğrenme etkinliklerini " gerçekleştirme amaçlarının planlanmış davranış teorisi yoluyla belirlenmesi*. Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü: Ankara, Türkiye.
- Karagöz, Y. (2019). *SPSS AMOS META uygulamalı istatistiksel analizler*. Ankara: Nobel
- Karasar, N. (2014). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemi* (26. Baskı). Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık.
- Kayri, M. (2009). Araştırmalarda gruplar arası farkın belirlenmesine yönelik çoklu karşılaştırma (post-hoc) teknikleri. *Fırat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 19(1), 51-64
- Kunduracı, A. (2015). *Fen bilimleri öğretmenlerinin ders dışı etkinlik uygulamalarının değerlendirilmesi ve farklı değişkenler açısından incelenmesi*. Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen Üniversitesi, Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Türkiye.
- Laçın Şimşek, C. (2011). Okul dışı öğrenme ortamları ve fen eğitimi. *C. Laçın Şimşek (Ed.). Fen öğretiminde okul dışı öğrenme ortamları içinde (s. 1-21)*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Morgan, G. A., Leech, N. L., Gloeckner, G. W., & Barrett, K. C. (2004). *SPSS for introductory statistics: Use and interpretation*. Psychology Press.
- Moseley, C., Reinke, K., & Bookout, V. (2003). The effect of teaching outdoor environmental education on elementary preservice teachers' self-efficacy. *Journal of Elementary Science Education*, 15(1), 1-14.
- Nadelson, L. S., & Jordan, J. R. (2012). Student attitudes toward and recall outside day: An environmental science field trip. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 105(3), 220-231.
- Nelson, E. (2012). *Cultivating outdoor classrooms: Designing and implementing child-centered learning environments*. St. Paul, MN: Redleaf Press
- Pallant, J. (2017). *SPSS kullanma klavuzu SPSS ile adım adım veri analizi*. (Çev. Sibel Balcı, Berat Ahi), Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Pas, E. T., Bradshaw, C. P. & Hershfeltd, P. A. (2012). Teacher-and school-level predictors of teacher efficacy and burnout: Identifying potential areas for support. *Journal of school psychology*, 50(1), 129-145.

- Pekin, M. & Bozdoğan, A. E. (2021). Ortaokul öğretmenlerinin okul dışı çevrelere gezi düzenlemeye ilişkin öz yeterliklerinin farklı değişkenler açısından incelenmesi: Tokat ili örneği. *Uluslararası Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 10(17), 114-133.
- Pimentel, J. L. (2010). A note on the usage of Likert Scaling for research data analysis. *USM R&D Journal*, 18(2), 109-112.
- Resnick, L. B. (1987). Learning in school and out. *Educational Researcher* 16, 13-20
- Saracaloğlu, A. S., Yenice, N. & Özden, B. (2013). Fen bilgisi, sosyal bilgiler ve sınıf öğretmeni adaylarının öğretmen özyeterlik algıları ile akademik kontrol odağı arasındaki ilişki. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 34(34), 227-250.
- Saraç, H. (2017). Türkiye’de okul dışı öğrenme ortamlarına ilişkin yapılan araştırmalar: içerik analizi çalışması. *Eğitim Kuram ve Uygulama Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 3(2), 60-81. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/ekuat/issue/29425/337191>
- Sarışan Tungaç, A. (2015). *Fen bilgisi öğretmenlerinin okul dışı (doğa deneyimine bağlı) çevre eğitimine yönelik özyeterlik algıları, çevre bilgileri ve çevresel tutumlarının incelenmesi: mersin ili örneği*. Mersin Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Türkiye
- Sontay, G., & Karamustafaoğlu, O. (2017). Fen bilimleri öğretmenlerinin gezi düzenlemeye ilişkin öz-yeterlilik inançlarının incelenmesi. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 32(4), 863-879.
- Sontay, G., Tutar, M., & Karamustafaoğlu, O. (2016). Okul dışı öğrenme ortamları ile fen öğretimi hakkında öğrenci görüşleri: planetarium gezisi. *İnformel Ortamlarda Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 1(1), 1-24.
- Sturm, H., & Bogner, F. X. (2010). Learning at workstations in two different environments: a museum and a classroom. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 36, 14-19.
- Şen, A. İ. (2019). *Okul dışı öğrenme ortamları*. Pegem: Ankara
- Şen, A. İ., Ertaş-Kılıç, H., Oktay, Ö., Ekinci, S., & Kadirhan, Z. (2021). Learning science outside the classroom: development and validation of the out-of-school learning environments perception scale. *Journal of Outdoor and Environmental Education* 24, 19-36, DOI: 10.1007/s42322-020-00070-7
- Şimşek, A. & Kaymakçı, S. (2015). Okul dışı sosyal bilgiler öğretiminin amacı ve kapsamı. A. Şimşek ve S. Kaymakçı, (Ed.), *Okul dışı sosyal bilgiler öğretimi* içinde (s.1-11). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Şimşek, C. L. (2011). *Fen öğretiminde okul dışı öğrenme ortamları*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Şişman, M. (2009). Öğretmen yeterlilikleri: modern bir söylem ve retorik. *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 10(3), 63-82. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/inuefd/issue/8704/108689>
- Tortop, H., & Özek, N. (2013). Proje tabanlı öğrenmede anlamlı alan gezisi; güneş enerjisi ve kullanım alanları konusu. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 44(44), 300-307.
- Tural, A., & Kala, F. (2018). Sosyal bilgiler öğretmen adaylarının müze eğitime yönelik özyeterlilik inançları. *Sınırsız Eğitim ve Araştırma Dergisi*, 3(1), 108-121.
- Türkmen, H. (2019). Hayvanat bahçeleri. Şen, A.İ. (Ed.), *Okul dışı öğrenme ortamları* içinde (p.135-160). Ankara: Pegem.
- Uysal, İ. & Kösemen S. (2013). Öğretmen adaylarının genel öz-yeterlilik inançlarının incelenmesi. *Eğitim ve Öğretim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 2(2), 217-226.
- Üstüner, M., Demirtaş, H., Cömert, M., & Özer, N. (2009). Ortaöğretim öğretmenlerinin öz-yeterlilik algıları secondary school teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 9(17), 1-16.

- Yaşar Çetin, B. (2021). *Okul yöneticilerinin, öğretmenlerin, öğrencilerin ve velilerin okul dışı öğrenmeye ilişkin görüşleri*. Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Matematik ve Fen Bilimleri Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı: Ankara, Türkiye.
- Yeşilbursa, C.C. & Uslu, S. (2014). Sosyal bilgiler öğretmen adaylarının müze eğitime yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları. *Uluslararası Avrasya Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 5(16), 410-428.
- Yılmaz, K. & Çokluk-Bökeoğlu, Ö. (2008). İlköğretim okulu öğretmenlerinin yeterlik inançları. *Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi*, 41(2), 143-167.



TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Öğretmenlerin Okul Dışı Öğrenme Faaliyetlerine Yönelik Öz-Yeterlik İnançları

Giriş

Okul dışı öğrenme kavramı okul sınırları dışında kalan çeşitli yaşam alanlarından sanal öğrenme ortamlarına kadar birçok ortamı kapsamaktadır (Şen, 2019). Çocukların hem okul içi hem de okul dışı yaşam deneyimlerinin, okuldaki başarıları ve toplumdaki işlevleri üzerinde derin etkileri vardır (Resnick, 1987). Şimşek (2011); okul dışı öğrenme ortamlarını, öğrenme-öğretmenin okul dışında yürütüldüğü ortamlar olarak tanımlamaktadır. Müzeler ve arkeolojik alanlar, milli parklar, hayvanat bahçeleri, sanat atölyeleri, sergiler, endüstriyel tesisler ve okul bahçeleri gibi öğrenmeye elverişli her ortam, okul dışı öğrenme ortamlarının tipik örnekleridir. Okul dışı öğrenme faaliyetleri (ODÖF) ise, eğitsel amaç ve kazanımları içeren okul dışı etkinliklerin bütünüdür (Karademir, 2013). Bu ortamlarda gezi, gözlem veya deney içeren tüm faaliyetlere ODÖF denir. Okul dışı öğrenme ortamlarında gerçekleştirilen ODÖF, öğrencilere benzersiz bir öğrenme deneyimi sunarken öğretmenlerin farklı öğretim yaklaşımlarını keşfetmelerine, uygulamalarına ve değerlendirmelerine olanak tanır.

Bu çalışmanın odak noktası, öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik algılarıdır. Bandura (1977) öz-yeterlik inançlarını insan davranışlarını etkileyen önemli bir unsur olarak görmekte ve "*bireyin belli bir görevi yapma kapasitesine dair inancı*" şeklinde tanımlamaktadır. ODÖF'ün programın amaçlarına hizmet ettiği (Andrew, Maggie ve Sarah, 2010; Nelson, 2012), öğretmenlerin öz-yeterlik algılarının ise öğretimin kalitesini, kullanılan yöntem ve teknikleri etkilediği bilinmektedir (Aydın, Haşioğlu ve Kunduracı, 2016). Bu nedenle öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarının yüksek olması önemlidir. Öğretmenin öz-yeterlik algısı; öğretimin kalitesini, kullanılan yöntem ve teknikleri, öğrencilerin öğrenme sürecine dahil edilmesini ve öğrencilerin öğretilen konuları anlamalarını etkilemektedir (Aydın, Haşioğlu ve Kunduracı, 2016). Bu noktadan hareketle gerçekleştirilen bu araştırma, öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inanç düzeylerinin ne düzeyde olduğunu ve bu öz-yeterlik inanç düzeylerinin cinsiyet, mezun olunan fakülte, eğitim durumu, kıdem ve mezun olunan bölüme göre anlamlı bir farklılık gösterip göstermediğini belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Araştırmanın alt problemleri şu şekildedir:

1. Öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları ne düzeydedir?
2. Öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları cinsiyete göre anlamlı farklılık göstermekte midir?

3. Öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inanç düzeyleri mezun olunan fakültelere göre anlamlı farklılık göstermekte midir?
4. Öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları eğitim durumuna göre anlamlı farklılık göstermekte midir?
5. Öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları kıdeme göre anlamlı farklılık göstermekte midir?
6. Öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e ilişkin öz-yeterlik inanç düzeyleri mezun olunan bölüme göre anlamlı farklılık göstermekte midir?

Yöntem

Bu çalışmada öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları ortaya konduğundan araştırma betimsel tarama desenine dayanmaktadır. Betimsel tarama deseni, araştırmaya konu olan olay veya durumu var olduğu şekliyle betimler (Karasar 2014). Araştırma verileri olasılıksız örnekleme yöntemlerinden uygun örnekleme ile (convenience sampling) toplanmıştır. Uygun örnekleme yönteminde araştırmacı, ulaşılabilirliği en kolay yanıtlayıcılardan başlamak üzere örneklemini oluşturmaya başlar (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018). Araştırma kapsamında 396 öğretmene ulaşılmıştır. Uç değerler ve kayıp veri analizleri sonrası 88 veri analiz dışı bırakılmıştır. Araştırmanın verileri Göloğlu Demir ve Çetin (2021) tarafından geliştirilen "Okul Dışı Öğrenme Faaliyetlerine Yönelik Öz-Yeterlik İnançları Ölçeği" ile toplanmıştır. Ölçek 5'li likert tipinde 29 maddeden ve 4 faktörden oluşmaktadır. Mevcut araştırmada da ölçeğin tamamı ve alt faktörleri için Cronbach's Alpha (α) güvenirlik değerleri hesaplanmıştır. Verilerin analizinde ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları ölçeği ortalama puanları ile ölçek alt boyutları ortalama puanlarının cinsiyet, mezun olunan fakülte türü ve eğitim durumlarına göre farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığını belirlemek amacıyla ilişkisiz örneklemler için t-testi kullanılmıştır. Ortalamaların deneyim ve mezun olunan bölüme göre farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığını saptamak için ise tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA) kullanılmıştır.

Bulgular

Öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları puan ortalamalarının 3.65-3.97 arasında olduğu görülmektedir. Dolayısıyla öğretmenlerin öz-yeterlik inanç düzeylerinin yüksek düzeyde olduğu söylenebilir. Öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları puanları ölçek alt boyutlarında ve ölçek genelinde cinsiyete ve mezun oldukları fakülte türüne göre anlamlı olarak farklılaşmamaktadır. Öğretmenlerin lisansüstü eğitim alıp almama durumuna göre okul dışı öğrenme faaliyetlerine yönelik öz-yeterlik inanç puanları ölçek alt boyutlarında ve ölçek genelinde anlamlı şekilde farklılaşmaktadır ($p < 0.05$). Lisansüstü eğitim alan öğretmenlerin ölçek alt boyutlarında ve ölçek genelinde öz-yeterlik inançları, lisansüstü eğitim almayanlara göre daha yüksektir. Mesleki deneyimi 21 yıl ve üzerinde olan öğretmenlerin, mesleki deneyimi 6-10 yıl arasında olan öğretmenlere göre hazırlık öz-yeterliği, uygulama ve değerlendirme öz-yeterliği, öğrenmeyi destekleme öz-yeterliği, bilgi ve deneyim öz-yeterliği ile okul-dışı öğrenme faaliyetlerine yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları daha yüksektir. Son olarak temel eğitim bölümü mezunlarının hazırlık öz-yeterliği, uygulama ve değerlendirme öz-yeterliği, öğrenmeyi destekleme öz-yeterliği, bilgi ve deneyim öz-yeterliği ile ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik

inançlarının, matematik ve fen bilimleri eğitimi bölümü mezunlarına göre daha yüksek olduğu görülmektedir.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler


Araştırma sonuçları öğretmenlerin ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarının yüksek düzeyde olduğunu göstermektedir. Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının müze eğitime yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarını inceleyen Tural ve Kala (2018), öğretmen adaylarının öz-yeterlik inançlarının yüksek olduğu sonucuna varmıştır. Gürsoy'un (2018) çalışmasında okul dışı gezi faaliyeti gerçekleştiren öğretmenlerin gezi öncesi ve sonrası ön-test-son-test öz-yeterlik inanç puanları, son-test lehine anlamlı derecede farklılaşmaktadır.

Lisansüstü eğitim alan öğretmenlerin ölçek alt boyutlarında ve ölçek genelinde öz-yeterlik inançları, lisansüstü eğitim almayanlara göre daha yüksektir. Bir başka deyişle lisansüstü eğitim alan öğretmenlerin okul dışı öğrenme faaliyetlerini hazırlama, uygulama ve değerlendirme, öğrenmeyi destekleme ve bilgi deneyim öz-yeterliği ile genel olarak ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları lisansüstü eğitim almayanlara göre daha yüksektir. Bu sonuç Pekin ve Bozdoğan'ın (2021) ortaokul öğretmenleri ile yürüttüğü çalışmanın sonuçları ile benzer niteliktedir. Sontay ve Karamustafaoğlu'nun (2017) araştırmalarında gezi düzenleyebilme öz-yeterlik inancının, yüksek lisans mezunu öğretmenlerde, lisans mezunu öğretmenlere göre anlamlı farklılık oluşturacak derecede yüksek olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Mesleki deneyimi 21 yıl ve üzerinde olan öğretmenlerin, mesleki deneyimi 6-10 yıl olan öğretmenlere göre ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları daha yüksektir. Deneyimli öğretmenler ODÖF'e hazırlama, bu faaliyetleri uygulama ve değerlendirme, ODÖF konusundaki bilgi ve deneyimler, ODÖF ile öğrenmeyi destekleme konusunda daha yüksek öz-yeterlik inançlarına sahiptirler. Bu sonuç Pekin ve Bozdoğan (2021); Pas, Bradshaw ve Hersfeldt (2012) ile Yılmaz ve Çokluk-Bökeoğlu'nun (2008) yaptıkları çalışmalarla çelişmektedir. Buna rağmen Sontay ve Karamustafaoğlu'nun (2017) ile Aydın, Haşioğlu ve Kunduracı'nın (2016) çalışmalarıyla benzerlik göstermektedir.

Bu araştırmanın sonuçlarına göre matematik ve fen bilimleri eğitimi bölümü mezunlarının, temel eğitim ve Türkçe ve sosyal bilimler eğitimi bölümü mezunlarına göre ODÖF'e yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları daha düşüktür. Bu durum okul-dışı-öğrenme ortamlarının (müze, ören yerleri, okul bahçesi vb.) sosyal bilimler disiplinlerinde kullanımının daha kolay olması ile açıklanabilir. Araştırmada elde edilen sonuçlara bağlı olarak sırasıyla şu öneriler sunulabilir. ODÖF'ü gerçekleştirilmesi hususunda deneyimli öğretmenler ile diğer öğretmenlerin iş birliği içerisinde çalışması sağlanabilir. Okul yöneticilerinin ODÖF'ü destekleyici ve kolaylaştırıcı uygulamalar geliştirmesi sağlanabilir. Öğretmenler lisansüstü eğitim almaya teşvik edilebilir ve lisansüstü eğitim alan öğretmenlerin ODÖF konusunda diğer meslektaşları ile iş birliği yapması sağlanabilir.

An Investigation on the Perceptions of Primary School Teachers Related to the Implementation Levels of Differentiated Instruction[†]

Ahmet Gülay, Trabzon University, ahmetgulay@trabzon.edu.tr,  0000-0002-7700-0768

Taner Altun, Trabzon University, taltun@trabzon.edu.tr,  0000-0001-9946-7257

Keywords

Primary school teachers
Differentiated instruction
Differentiated instruction
scale
Survey method

Article Info:

Received : 11-12-2021
Accepted : 03-06-2022
Published : 18-06-2022

DOI: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.008

Abstract

The aim of this study is to determine the perceptions of primary school teachers related to the implementation levels of differentiated instruction, and to investigate these perceptions in terms of participating in in-service training for this approach, presence of students with different characteristic, graduated faculty, and gender. In the study, survey method as one of the quantitative research designs was employed. The study group of the research was composed of 703 primary school teachers selected by random sampling. The study data were gathered with "Differentiated Instruction Scale" developed by the researchers. The data gathered were subjected to descriptive and inferential statistics using the SPSS 18 software. As a result of the research, it was determined that the perceptions of primary school teachers related to the implementation of differentiated instruction were high. In addition, these perceptions of primary school teachers who participated in differentiated instruction training were significantly higher than those who did not, primary school teachers graduated from education faculties compared to those who graduated from other faculties, and female primary school teachers compared to men had higher perceptions of differentiated instruction. It was concluded that the perceptions of primary school teachers did not change significantly related to the presence of students with different characteristics in the classrooms. It is suggested that new studies should be carried out using the scale developed in this study and in-service training for differentiated instruction should be provided for teachers.

To cite this article: Gülay, A., & Altun, T. (2022). An investigation on the perceptions of primary school teachers related to the implementation levels of differentiated instruction. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 12(1), 167-190. doi: 10.18404/ijocis.2022.008

[†] This study was produced from the first author's doctoral thesis under the supervision of the second author.

Introduction

Students differ considerably in their characteristics of readiness, interest, cognitive ability, style, learning speed, socioeconomic status, culture, etc. due to their innate characteristics and the environment in which they were brought up. In the current Life Studies Curriculum in primary education, it is emphasized that students' tendencies, interests, desires, talents, economic status, ethnic origin and upbringing can differ (Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı [MEB / Turkish Ministry of National Education], 2018a). The Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) expects teachers to identify and care about these differences of students within the scope of the competencies they should have, and to carry out development-based teaching (Dağlıoğlu, Turupcu-Doğan & Kolay, 2017). In addition, it is stated in the 2023 Education Vision Document published by the ministry that it is necessary to aim to take these differences of students into account at all education levels, to create environments for this aim and to carry out processes (MEB, 2018b). Moreover, fully effective teaching takes place by considering these differences (MEB, 2018c). When these differences are not taken into account, it will appeal to students whose learning process is at a moderate level, whose verbal intelligence and auditory learning are developed, and who prefer learning by listening from others, and not all students will be able to develop at the same level and reach the goals aimed (Avcı & Yüksel, 2018; MEB, 2018d; Özer & Yılmaz, 2016). In this case, the expectations and needs of students with different prior knowledge, interests and learning profiles will not be sufficiently met. As a matter of fact, the results of the exams held throughout the country, the attendance and dropout rates of students reveal that the current learning processes are insufficient to meet these expectations and needs (Özer & Yılmaz, 2016).

Apart from the differences of the students, there are also students with different characteristics such as inclusion in the learning environment, learning difficulties, socioeconomically disadvantaged and of foreign nationals. These differences make students disadvantaged compared to their peers in the process. Therefore, they may need more support, examples, practice and time. In this regard, it is necessary to take into account the expectations and needs of students with different characteristics. One of the approaches put forward in recent years to take these situations into account is inclusive education which was first introduced to include students with various disabilities or special education needs into normal education processes. Today, it comprises students with low economic status, disabilities, ethnic and cultural minorities, immigrants, refugees and asylum seekers, who are disadvantaged, compared to their peers in accessing educational, cultural, social and life processes (The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2001). The aim is to provide these students with education in the same environment and under equal conditions as their peers. In this respect, inclusive education can be defined as “the process of responding to the different needs of students by increasing their participation in education, culture and society and reducing discrimination in education” (UNESCO, 2005, p.33). In this regard, the main purpose of inclusive education is to provide general education classes to all students, to serve them and not to exclude any student by creating appropriate conditions (UNESCO, 1994, 2009). In summary, inclusive education emerged to include students who need special education and other disadvantaged students but today it aims to embrace both disadvantaged and general students by taking into account all individual differences and differentiating teaching related to them.

One of the new approaches that welcome the inclusion of all students by considering their different characteristics in the learning environment is differentiated instruction, which was first introduced in the literature by Tomlinson (1995). Differentiated instruction is the planning, execution, and evaluation of the content, process, or product by considering students' readiness, interest, or profile (Drapeau, 2004; Gregory & Chapman, 2002; Tomlinson, 1999). In this respect, differentiated instruction is a teaching approach that meets different expectations and needs of students, motivates them and enables them to learn (Burkett, 2013; Butt & Kausar, 2010; Good, 2006). In this approach, teaching plans and strategies, topics, materials, activities, tasks, products are diversified, and students are given the opportunity to choose among them (Bearne, 1996; Dixon, Yssel, McConnell & Hardin, 2014; Tomlinson, 1999). A learning environment suitable for different levels of students and options suitable for their learning preferences are created, their interaction with each other is increased, they are required to take responsibility of their learning, and what is learned is made more meaningful by associating it with daily life (Avcı & Yüksel, 2018; Heacox, 2002; Tomlinson, 1999, 2014). The basis of this approach is to increase the perception of learning and respect differences (Şaldırdak, 2012) by helping each and every one of the students from the moment the teacher enters the classroom (Levy, 2008). Therefore, it is ensured that students sometimes work individually, in small groups, or as a whole class, depending on the conditions (Burkett, 2013; Tomlinson, 1999).

In differentiated instruction, planning is carried out in line with the individual differences of the students. Therefore, teachers should first know about the characteristics of their students (Özbal, 2016). This information about students can be obtained from student files, observations, and interviews with students and students' families (Demirkaya, 2018; Gregory & Chapman, 2002; Kaplan, 2016). In addition, preliminary assessments should be performed to identify students. (Akkaş, 2014; Aşıroğlu, 2016; Kaplan, 2016; Özbal, 2016). Then, it should be clarified which content, process, product will be differentiated with reference to the feature. Differentiating the content is to diversify the complexity or difficulty level of the subject related to the expectations and needs of the students and to use different materials accordingly (Chien, 2012; Tomlinson, 1999), which can be achieved by diversity, the use of more complex topics and materials, flexible time, acceleration, reorganization and intensification (Kaplan-Sayı, 2013). In order to differentiate the process, the activities can be arranged in line with the characteristics of the students, activities of varying difficulties can be offered, and support can be provided at different levels. In the meantime, a process evaluation is made to decide about the planning process of the following lessons. Differentiating the product is giving students options to show what they have learned while using materials for this aim (Taylor, 2015; Tomlinson, 2014) and diversifying the complexity of the product (Durrett, 2010). In this framework, individual studies, homogeneous or heterogeneous group studies, and graded product preparation can be used. In addition, students can be facilitated to exhibit their products verbally, in written form, visually, musically, physically or based on movement, and various materials can be used (Heacox, 2002; Tomlinson, 2014; Tomlinson & Strickland, 2005). Finally, information about students' learning and progress is obtained and the effectiveness of teaching is determined through post-teaching evaluations (Tomlinson, 2014).

Most of the differentiated instruction studies in the literature focus on the effect of this approach on students' academic success, self, motivation and attitude. However, studies examining teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction are limited. Some of these studies (Aşıroğlu 2016; Aydoğan-Yenmez & Özpinar, 2017a; Çam, 2013; Demirkaya, 2018;

Öztürk & Mutlu, 2017; Whipple, 2012) report that teachers or prospective teachers have high perceptions of knowledge and practice regarding differentiated instruction but others (Brevik et al., 2018; Gray, 2008; Öztürk & Mutlu, 2017; Richards-Usher, 2013; Siam & Al-Natour, 2016; Smit & Humpert, 2012) report low level perceptions. In addition, only one of these studies (Demirkaya, 2018) aimed at determining primary school teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction. In this respect, current research can contribute to the literature by comparing the new results on the examination of teachers' perceptions of differentiated teaching practice with previous different results and eliminating the limitation in the field of primary school teachers. In addition, these perceptions of teachers were examined through questionnaires in many studies in the literature (Aşıroğlu, 2016; Dugger, 2008; Öztürk & Mutlu, 2017; Siam & Al-Natour, 2016; Tomlinson & Allan, 2000; Whipple, 2012). In some studies (Coubergs, Struyven, Vanthournout & Engels, 2017; Çam, 2013; Demirkaya, 2018; Mutlu, Öztürk & Aktekin, 2019; Roy, Guay & Valois, 2013), scales related to this approach were developed and used. However, only one of these scales (Demirkaya, 2018) is for primary school teachers. Hence, it can be stated that there is a limitation of the differentiated instruction scale for primary schoolteachers in the literature and the scale developed in this research will contribute to eliminating this limitation. In addition, teacher training on differentiated instruction before and during service has been suggested in many studies in the literature. Some studies examined the effects of differentiated instruction training on prospective teachers (Butler & Lowe, 2010; Chamberlin & Powers, 2010; Chen, 2007; Joseph, Thomas, Simonette & Ramsook, 2013; Lockley, Jackson, Downing & Roberts, 2017; Ruys et al., 2013; Salar & Turgut, 2015). However, studies examining the practices or perceptions of primary school teachers who received in-service training on this approach (Aydoğan-Yenmez & Özpınar, 2017b; Kurnaz & Arslantaş, 2018) are quite limited. Within this regard, this research will be important in the literature in terms of determining the perceptions of the primary school teachers who participated in the in-service training of the Ministry of National Education for differentiated instruction and comparing them with those who did not.

In summary, there is a limitation of the research in the national literature in which a scale for primary school teachers is developed and their perceptions of applying differentiated instruction (Demirkaya, 2018) are examined. Therefore, this research with a differentiated instruction scale developed will contribute to the field in this respect and have an important place in the literature. In addition, examining these perceptions of primary school teachers in terms of participating or not in in-service training, having students with different characteristics or not may benefit the ministry, education faculties, administrators, planners, institutions and other stakeholders of education. In this context, the main purpose of this research is to determine the perceptions of primary school teachers about the application levels of differentiated instruction. Since it was determined in the literature that participating in in-service training for this approach increases the perception of practice (Burkett, 2013; De Neve & Devos, 2016; Dixon et al., 2014; Kurnaz & Arslantaş, 2018; Richards-Usher, 2013) and this training has been recommended to teachers and practiced by the Ministry of National Education since 2018, it is planned to examine these perceptions of primary school teachers in terms of their participation in in-service training. It is known that there are students with different characteristics in the classrooms, then it is aimed to examine the perceptions of the primary school teachers regarded to the presence of these students. Since it was determined in the literature that the perceptions of applying this approach among female primary school teachers were higher than males and did not change related to the type of faculty graduated

(Demirkaya, 2018), it was planned to examine these perceptions in terms of these variables and to compare them with the results of current studies. In this respect, this study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the perceptions of primary school teachers about their level of practice of differentiated instruction?
2. Do primary school teachers' perceptions of differentiated instruction practice levels differ significantly related to their participation in in-service training on this approach?
3. Do primary school teachers' perceptions of differentiated instruction practice levels differ significantly related to the presence of students with different characteristics?
4. Do primary school teachers' perceptions of differentiated instruction practice levels differ significantly related to the type of faculty they graduated from?
5. Do primary school teachers' perceptions of differentiated instruction practice levels differ significantly related to their gender?

Method

Research Design

In the research, the survey method which is one of quantitative research methods, was used to examine the perceptions of primary school teachers about the level of practice of differentiated instruction and how these perceptions change regarded to their participation in in-service training and having students with different characteristics, the type of faculty they graduated from, and their gender. The survey method usually consists of a large number of individuals and examines the views of these participants about a situation or the characteristics, interests, skills, abilities, attitudes, etc. (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz & Demirel, 2016) and the effect of the variables on these characteristics (Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2015a). In this method, the researcher makes inferences about the universe in line with the determinations regarding the sampling (Creswell, 2016). In this context, the perceptions of primary school teachers about the application levels of differentiated instruction were determined by using the "Differential Instruction Scale" developed by the researchers.

Participants

The universe of the research consisted of 2257 primary school teachers working throughout the province of Trabzon in the 2018-2019 academic year. The sample of the study was determined by using the simple probability sampling method, in which the participants are randomly selected, and each participant has an equal chance of being selected (Büyüköztürk et al., 2016; Ekiz, 2015). This method allows generalizations to the population and, therefore, is preferred primarily in survey studies (Creswell, 2016). In this respect, the sample of this research consisted of 703 primary school teachers who were randomly selected and volunteered to fill out the Differentiated Instruction Scale. Thus, the sample of the study was limited to the defined participants. Information about the participants is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *Information About Participants*

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Categories</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
Differentiated instruction training	No	525	74,7

	Yes	178	25,3
Table 1. (Cont.)			
Having students with different characteristics (foreign nationals, inclusion, learning difficulties, socioeconomically disadvantaged)	No	106	15,1
	Yes	597	84,9
Graduated Faculty	Education	539	76,7
	Others	164	23,3
Gender	Female	372	52,9
	Male	331	47,1

Table 1 reveals that some of the primary school teachers had differentiated instruction training, while others did not. Most of the participants had students with different characteristics in their class and graduated from the faculty of education. Finally, the number of female and male primary school teachers was similar.

Data Collection Tools

The data of the study were collected with and limited to the "Differential Instruction Scale" developed by the researchers. While developing this scale, the stages of forming an item-pool, presenting it to the expert opinion, pretesting and giving the final shape to the scale were followed (DeVellis, 2017). In this context, first of all, based on the basic elements of differentiated instruction, the scales (Coubergs et al., 2017; Çam, 2013; Roy et al., 2013) and questionnaires (Aşıroğlu, 2016; Dugger, 2008; Öztürk & Mutlu, 2017; Siam & Al-Natour, 2016; Whipple, 2012) developed for this approach in the literature were examined and "readiness, interest, cognitive abilities, learning speed, learning profile, socioeconomic level, learning environment, culture" were determined as sub-dimensions of the scale. Considering the principles of originality and redundancy, 72 items were written, and an item-pool was created. In accordance with the objectives of the research, it was decided that the scale would be a 5-point Likert type containing behavioral frequency and intensity in the time dimension. Each item was listed in an ascending order from never to always regarding the frequency of administration (Erkuş, 2014).

The draft scale was submitted for expert opinion to determine the adequacy (scope validity) of each item in measuring the behavior to be measured (Karasar, 2014), to examine the presentation style (face validity) (Cronbach, 1990), and to prevent the misleading evaluation by the person who developed it (Tavşancıl, 2004). In this respect, first of all, three experts in the fields of linguistics, measurement-evaluation, and primary school teacher education were asked to examine the expression, clarity and suitability of the items with the purpose of measurement. In line with their evaluations, eight items that were not suitable with the purpose and that were difficult to understand were removed from the draft scale. Next, the draft scale was presented to the opinion of four academicians who were experts in the field of differentiated instruction. In line with their opinion, 28 items were kept in the scale without change, 12 items were corrected, and 24 items were removed from the scale. In addition, the "assessment-evaluation" sub-dimension was added to the scale upon the suggestions of the experts and the necessity observed by the researchers. A 44-item final draft scale form was obtained with the additional four items for this sub-dimension.

The draft scale was ready for preliminary application following focus group interviews with seven primary school teachers and a pilot test with three primary school teachers. The preliminary application was carried out with 371 primary school teachers, taking into account the criteria that the participants should be at least 5 times the number of scale items (Bryman & Cramer, 1999), provided that the sample does not fall below 100, and that at least 300 people should be reached (Nunnally, 1978). First of all, the draft scale was transferred too online. Then, primary school teachers in 59 different provinces of Turkey were contacted via e-mail and personal web pages. The data obtained from these teachers were checked in terms of markings such as missing, crossed, sequential items (Erkuş, 2014) and transferred to the SPSS 18 program for the necessary analysis. Exploratory factor analysis was used at this stage as it provides careful repetition (Saucier & Goldberg, 1996) and is the most appropriate technique to use when there are few scales in the field (Cureton & Mulaik, 1975). Concerning this, first of all, KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) and Bartlett Sphericity tests were performed to determine the suitability of the data set for this analysis. Considering that the KMO value is not less than 0.50 and gets perfect as it approaches 1.00 (Büyüköztürk, 2015; Field, 2000; Kaiser, 1974), it was decided that our value (KMO=0.956) was very good, and the sample size was sufficient. In addition, the result of the Bartlett Sphericity test was significant (Sig.=0.000; $p<0.05$) and the data showed normal distribution (Bartlett, 1954). Principal component analysis method was used because it is the most appropriate method when there are more than 30 items in factor analysis (Williams, Onsman & Brown, 2010). In order to determine the location of each item more accurately, the varimax rotation process was used. The Kaiser method was used to make the factors of the scale more specific. In addition, the Cronbach-Alpha value was calculated to determine the reliability of the scale. Items that had close values to each other in more than one factor were included in the factors that did not meet the criterion of at least three items, had a total correlation of less than 0.50 and increased reliability when not included were excluded from the scale. Finally, a scale consisting of six factors and 33 items was obtained. The final form of the scale consisted of items such as "differentiating activities according to students' abilities", "providing appropriate support for students from different cultures", "differentiating materials related to students' interests", "providing appropriate support for students with low family support in the classroom", "using assessment-evaluation tools suitable for different characteristics of students", and "arranging the physical environment of the classroom in accordance with the different characteristics of the students". Values related to the scale are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. *Values of the Differentiated Instruction Scale*

<i>Factor</i>	<i>Item Numbers</i>	<i>Eigenvalue</i>	<i>Percentage of Variance</i>	<i>Cronbach Alpha (pilot test)</i>	<i>Cronbach Alpha (main test)</i>
Student Characteristics	1-9	6,342	19,217	,94	,88
Culture	10-15	4,413	13,373	,90	,87
Readiness-Interest	16-21	3,777	11,446	,86	,88
Socioeconomic Level	22-25	3,477	10,536	,90	,87
Assessment-Evaluation	26-29	2,825	8,562	,92	,85
Learning Environment	30-33	2,805	8,501	,86	,82
Total Scale			71,635	,96	,95

With reference to the Kaiser method, the eigenvalues of the factors should be greater than 1 (Pallant, 2013). As seen in Table 2, all factors of the scale meet this requirement. In social sciences, all factors are expected to explain at least 50-60% of the total variance (Williams, Onsman & Brown, 2010) and this scale explains 71,635% of the total variance meeting this qualification. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient value, which shows the internal consistency of the scale between the test scores and whether the items can form a whole, should be above .70 (Büyüköztürk, 2015; Pallant, 2010). In this regard, the reliability coefficient of this scale (.96) is quite high. In addition, the reliability of the scale (Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient=0.95) was demonstrated again in the main test.

Data Collection and Analysis Process

The Differentiated Instruction Scale was applied face-to-face to 703 of 2257 primary school teachers determined with random sampling method in 18 districts of Trabzon in the 2018-2019 academic year. First, school administrators of the visited primary schools were given information about the process and presented the research permission. Then, within their knowledge, the research process was explained to the primary school teachers in the teacher's rooms and the volunteers were allowed to participate in the survey study.

Descriptive statistics were used to determine the perceptions of primary school teachers about the application levels of differentiated instruction. Descriptive statistics is used to organize and summarize the data obtained from the sample and to find values such as mean, standard deviation, etc. to represent all of the data (Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2015b; Creswell, 2016; Ekiz, 2015). In this context, the perception data of the primary school teachers regarding the application levels of differentiated instruction were analyzed with the SPSS 18 program and the average scores for the scale and sub-dimensions were calculated. The formula of "array width/number of groups to be performed" was used to interpret the mean scores (Tekin, 1996). The array width was calculated as four by subtracting the lowest value (1) from the highest value (5) in the Differentiated Instructional Scale. It was preferred to show the perceptions of primary school teachers about the application levels of differentiated instruction in three categories. Thus, array width value was divided into three ($4/3=1.33$) and score intervals were determined. As a result, the perceptions of the participants regarding the level of practice were formed as "low" between 1.00-2.33, "average" between 2.34-3.67 and "high" between 3.68-5.00.

Inferential statistics were used to determine the effect of primary school teachers' participation in in-service training and having students with different characteristics, the type of faculty they graduated from, and their gender on their perceptions of the application levels of differentiated instruction. Inferential statistics is making inferences and predictions about the characteristics of the universe in line with the data obtained from the sample (Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2015c; Ekiz, 2015). Since the skewness and kurtosis values of the data were between -1 and +1 (Ak, 2010; McKillup, 2012; Pallant, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and the data showed normal distribution (Büyüköztürk et al., 2016; Creswell, 2016), parametric tests were used in the analyzes. The independent t-test was used to determine the significance of the difference between the means of two unrelated samples (Creswell, 2016; Çepni, 2010; Ekiz, 2015). Post Hoc tests were used to determine the source of the difference. Thus, the homogeneity of the variances was tested with the Levene's test and attention was paid to the fact that there was no significant difference between the variances ($p>0.05$). In the

homogeneity of variance, Scheffe test and unequal values were used for independent t test in cases where homogeneity was not provided (Ak, 2010).

Results

The results of the analysis carried out in order to determine the perceptions of primary school teachers about the level of practice of differentiated instruction and to examine these perceptions in terms of participating in in-service training, having students with different characteristics, graduated faculty and gender, and their interpretation are presented in this section.

Results of Primary School Teachers' Perceptions of Differentiated Teaching Application Levels

The results of the descriptive statistical analysis carried out to determine the perceptions of primary school teachers about the application levels of differentiated instruction are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. *Primary School Teachers' Perceptions of Differentiated Instruction Practice*

<i>Factor</i>	<i>N</i>	\bar{X}	<i>Ss</i>	<i>Level</i>
Student Characteristics	703	3,66	,55	Average
Culture	703	3,73	,70	High
Readiness-Interest	703	3,85	,60	High
Socioeconomic Level	703	3,98	,74	High
Assessment-Evaluation	703	3,86	,62	High
Learning Environment	703	3,93	,62	High
Total Scale	703	3,80	,49	High

Table 3 reveals that primary school teachers had a high perception of the level of applying differentiated instruction ($\bar{x}=3.80$). The participants' perceptions of differentiation towards culture, readiness-interest, socioeconomic level, assessment-evaluation and learning environment were also high. Their perceptions of differentiating instruction in relation to student characteristics are at an average level ($\bar{x}=3.66$).

Results of the Effect of Primary School Teachers' Participation in In-Service Training on Their Perceptions of Implementation Levels of Differentiated Instruction

The results of the independent t-test analysis on whether the perceptions of the primary school teachers regarding the practice differ statistically in accordance with their participation in differentiated instruction training are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. *The Effect of Primary School Teachers' Participation in In-Service Training on Perceptions of Differentiated Instruction Practice Levels*

<i>Factor</i>	<i>Training</i>	<i>N</i>	\bar{X}	<i>Ss</i>	<i>Levene's Test</i>		<i>sd</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
					<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>			
Student Characteristics	Yes	178	3,89	,53	,022	,883	701	6,612	,000
	No	525	3,58	,54					

Table 4.(Cont.)

Culture	Yes	178	4,05	,61	3,056	,081	701	7,251	,000
	No	525	3,63	,69					
Readiness-Interest	Yes	178	4,03	,54	2,136	,144	701	4,769	,000
	No	525	3,79	,61					
Socioeconomic Level	Yes	178	4,14	,73	,271	,602	701	3,371	,001
	No	525	3,93	,73					
Assessment-Evaluation	Yes	178	4,05	,59	1,377	,241	701	4,840	,000
	No	525	3,79	,62					
Learning Environment	Yes	178	4,12	,58	,024	,878	701	4,793	,000
	No	525	3,87	,62					
Total Scale	Yes	178	4,02	,46	,142	,707	701	7,090	,000
	No	525	3,73	,48					

Table 4 reveals that the perceptions of primary school teachers who participated in in-service training towards applying differentiated instruction in all dimensions were significantly higher than those who did not participate ($p < 0.05$).

Results of the Effects of Primary School Teachers' Having Students with Different Characteristics on Their Perceptions of Differentiated Instruction Practice Levels

The results of the independent t-test analysis on whether the perceptions of the primary school teachers regarding the practice differ statistically in line with the presence of students with different characteristics are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. *The Effect of Primary School Teachers' Having Students with Different Characteristics on Their Perceptions of Differentiated Instruction Application Levels*

Factor	Training	N	\bar{x}	Ss	Levene's Test		sd	t	p
					F	p			
Student Characteristics	No	106	3,78	,50	2,513	,113	701	2,435	,015
	Yes	597	3,63	,56					
Culture	No	106	3,78	,75	,870	,351	701	,679	,497
	Yes	597	3,73	,68					
Readiness-Interest	No	106	3,90	,57	1,782	,182	701	,972	,331
	Yes	597	3,84	,61					
Socioeconomic Level	No	106	3,91	,76	,544	,461	701	-1,132	,258
	Yes	597	4,00	,74					
Assessment-Evaluation	No	106	3,86	,58	1,568	,211	701	,058	,954
	Yes	597	3,85	,63					

Table 5. (Cont.)

Learning Environment	No	106	3,97	,57	4,239	,040	153,671	,675	,500
	Yes	597	3,93	,63					
Total Scale	No	106	3,85	,48	,489	,484	701	1,032	,303
	Yes	597	3,80	,50					

Table 5 reveals that the perception of differentiated instruction in the dimension of student characteristics was significantly higher than those who did not have students with different characteristics ($p < 0.05$). There was no significant difference in the other dimensions in the perception levels of primary school teachers towards applying differentiated instruction in accordance with the presence of students with different characteristics.

Results of the Effects of Primary School Teachers' Perceptions of the Type of Faculty They Graduated from on the Application Levels of Differentiated Instruction

The results of the independent t-test analysis on whether the perceptions of the primary school teachers about applying differentiated instruction in line with the type of faculty they graduated from are statistically different are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. *The Effect of Primary School Teachers' Perceptions of the Type of Faculty They Graduated from on the Application Levels of Differentiated Instruction*

Factor	Faculty	N	\bar{X}	Ss	Levene's Test		sd	t	p
					F	p			
Student Characteristics	Education	539	3,69	,55	,488	,485	701	3,243	,001
	Others	164	3,53	,56					
Culture	Education	539	3,76	,69	,016	,899	701	1,642	,101
	Others	164	3,66	,71					
Readiness-Interest	Education	539	3,88	,59	,795	,373	701	2,545	,011
	Others	164	3,74	,64					
Socioeconomic Level	Education	539	3,97	,75	,250	,617	701	-,578	,563
	Others	164	4,01	,70					
Assessment-Evaluation	Education	539	3,85	,63	,319	,573	701	-,177	,860
	Others	164	3,86	,61					
Learning Environment	Education	539	3,96	,61	2,488	,115	701	2,305	,021
	Others	164	3,83	,67					
Total Scale	Education	539	3,82	,49	,057	,812	701	2,192	,029
	Others	164	3,73	,50					

Table 6 reveals that primary school teachers who graduated from education faculties had significantly higher perceptions of differentiation in terms of student characteristics, readiness-interest and learning environment compared to those who graduated from other faculties ($p < 0.05$). There was no significant difference in the perception levels of primary school teachers

towards applying differentiated instruction related to the type of faculty they graduated from in the dimensions of culture, socioeconomic level and assessment-evaluation.

Results of the Effects of Primary School Teachers' Gender on Their Perceptions of Differentiated Instruction Practice Levels

The results of the independent t-test analysis on whether the perceptions of the primary school teachers about applying differentiated instruction show statistical differences related to gender are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. *The Effect of Primary School Teachers' Gender on Their Perceptions of Differentiated Instruction Practice Levels*

Factor	Gender	N	\bar{X}	Ss	Levene's Test		sd	t	p
					F	p			
Student Characteristics	Female	372	3,73	,51	8,573	,004	653,698	3,713	,000
	Male	331	3,57	,59					
Culture	Female	372	3,80	,65	4,641	,032	665,917	2,705	,007
	Male	331	3,66	,73					
Readiness-Interest	Female	372	3,93	,56	3,061	,081	701	3,987	,000
	Male	331	3,75	,63					
Socioeconomic Level	Female	372	4,11	,71	1,657	,198	701	4,915	,000
	Male	331	3,84	,75					
Assessment-Evaluation	Female	372	3,92	,61	,670	,413	701	2,934	,003
	Male	331	3,78	,63					
Learning Environment	Female	372	4,00	,61	1,394	,238	701	2,914	,004
	Male	331	3,86	,63					
Total Scale	Female	372	3,88	,45	6,574	,011	657,613	4,533	,000
	Male	331	3,71	,52					

Table 7 reveals that female primary school teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction in all dimensions were significantly higher than male teachers ($p < 0.05$).

Discussion, Conclusion and Implications

This study is limited to revealing the perceptions of 703 classroom teachers working in the province of Trabzon towards differentiated instruction by using the Differentiated Instruction Scale. In the study, the perceptions of primary school teachers about the implementation levels of differentiated instruction were high. The perceptions of primary school teachers were determined as high in only one study in the national literature in this field (Demirkaya, 2018). In addition, secondary school teachers (Çam, 2013), primary and secondary school teachers teaching gifted students (Eren-Tuzkan, 2019), teachers working in primary, secondary and high schools (Kozikoğlu & Bekler, 2018), social studies and history teachers (Öztürk & Mutlu, 2017) were determined to have a high perception of applying differentiated instruction. In some

studies, in the international literature (Burkett, 2013; Garrett, 2017; Richards-Usher, 2013; Whipple, 2012), primary school teachers had a high perception of applying differentiated instruction. Davis (2013) determined that these perceptions of primary school teachers were partially sufficient, while Ismajli and Imami-Morina (2018) determined that they were insufficient. In addition, Siam and Al Natour (2016) found that primary and secondary school teachers had low perceptions of these. In summary, it can be stated that teachers' and primary school teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction are generally high and that the results of this research support the literature.

In this study, primary school teachers' perceptions of differentiated instruction practice levels were high in the readiness-interest dimension. There are studies in the literature in which primary school teachers have a high perception of this dimension (Ismajli & Imami-Morina, 2018; Whipple, 2012). In addition, primary school teachers had a high perception of differentiating assessment-evaluation. Similar results were reached in the studies conducted with primary school teachers (Demirkaya, 2018; Whipple, 2012), secondary school teachers (Çam, 2013), and primary, secondary, and high school teachers (Kozikoğlu & Bekler, 2018). However, Ismajli and Imami-Morina (2018) determined that primary school teachers' perceptions of differentiating assessment were moderate, while Gaitas and Martins (2017) found that they thought they had difficulty in differentiation. In this study, it was determined that primary school teachers had a high perception of differentiating the learning environment. The only study in the literature (Gaitas & Martins, 2017) also revealed that these perceptions of primary school teachers were high. Further, Kozikoğlu and Bekler (2018) determined that teachers working in primary, secondary and high schools have a high perception level of differentiating the learning environment. However, branch teachers' perception of differentiating the classroom environment was low in Çam's (2013) study. This finding of the study is similar to the literature and the differences in some results can be examined with new studies. In addition, it was determined in this study that primary school teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction were at a moderate level only in the dimension of student characteristics, which consists of items related to cognitive ability, learning profile and learning speed. Similarly, Çam (2013) determined that secondary school teachers' perceptions of adapting teaching in accordance with these individual differences of students were at a moderate level. However, Kozikoğlu and Bekler (2018) determined that the perceptions of teachers working in primary, secondary and high schools are high. In this context, the findings on the perception of differentiating instruction differ in the literature, which can be examined with new studies.

In this study, the primary school teachers who participated in the in-service training had significantly higher perceptions of applying differentiated instruction. In addition, a significant difference was found in all sub-dimensions in this direction. It is revealed in the literature (Burkett, 2013; De Neve & Devos, 2016; Dixon et al., 2014; Kurnaz & Arslantaş, 2018; Richards-Usher, 2013) that the perception of applying this approach is high among primary school teachers who receive training for differentiated instruction. As a matter of fact, when teachers do not receive training for this approach, they cannot differentiate teaching sufficiently (Gray, 2008). Therefore, it can be stated that participating in in-service training increases teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction and this finding of the research supports the literature.

In this study, the perceptions of primary school teachers applying differentiated instruction did not differ significantly according to the presence of students with different characteristics. It was determined that teachers who did not have students with different characteristics had a higher perception of differentiation towards student characteristics than those who instructed students with different characteristics. The literature lacks studies examining teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction in terms of whether they have students with different characteristics. However, Şimşek (2019) determined that social studies teachers' self-efficacy towards inclusive education did not differ significantly in accordance with the presence of students with different characteristics in their classes. Thus, it can be stated that this finding of the study is similar to the literature.

In this study, the perceptions of the primary school teachers who graduated from the faculty of education to apply differentiated instruction were significantly higher than the perceptions of those who graduated from other faculties. There is only one study in the literature that examined teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction in terms of the type of faculty they graduated from. In the study conducted by Demirkaya (2018), however, there was no significant difference in the perceptions of primary school teachers in applying differentiated instruction according to the type of faculty they graduated from. Therefore, this finding of the study differs from the finding of the only study in the literature, which can be attributed to the fact that the studies were carried out in different regions and with different samples.

In this study, female primary school teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction were significantly higher than those of males. In addition, a significant difference was found in all sub-dimensions in this direction. There was only one study in the literature in which the perceptions of primary school teachers in applying differentiated instruction were examined in terms of gender. In this study conducted by Demirkaya (2018), the perceptions of female primary school teachers were higher as well. In this respect, this finding coincides with the finding of the only study with the same sample group. There are also studies in which the perceptions of teachers working at different teaching levels were examined in terms of gender. Eren-Tuzkan (2019) concluded that female primary and secondary school teachers who teach gifted students have higher perceptions of applying differentiated instruction than male teachers. Further Bayram (2019) determined that female social studies teachers differentiate teaching activities better than males. However, Öztürk and Mutlu (2017) determined that social studies and history teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction did not differ significantly in relation to gender. Similarly, King (2010) determined that these perceptions of high school teachers did not differ in terms of gender. In addition, Kozikoğlu and Bekler (2018) determined that primary, secondary and high school teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction did not change significantly related to gender. Therefore, this finding of the research shows both similarities and differences with the findings of the studies conducted with branch teachers. This situation is remarkable in order to include the gender variable in future studies and to better explain the effect of this variable on the perception of applying differentiated instruction. The following recommendations can be made in line with these results of the study:

- Considering the limitations of the studies examining primary school teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction and using the scale developed in this

study, further studies on this subject can be conducted in other provinces or regions and they can be compared with the results of this study.

- Considering the positive effect of participating in in-service training on primary school teachers' perceptions of applying differentiated instruction, in-service training on this topic can be widespread and it can be provided to teacher candidates during their undergraduate education.
- Considering that the perceptions of primary school teachers towards implementing differentiated instruction do not change in accordance with the participation in in-service training, being a graduate of education faculty, gender, and instructing students with different characteristics, the effects of these and similar variables can be studied further in researches and compared with the results of the studies in the literature.
- Qualitative research through interviews or observations can be carried out to determine to what extent the primary school teachers reflect their perceptions of differentiated teaching practice levels into the teaching environment.

References

- Ak, B. (2010). Parametrik hipotez testleri. Ş. Kalaycı (Ed.), *SPSS uygulamalı çok değişkenli istatistik teknikleri* içinde (ss. 73-82). Ankara: Asil Yayın.
- Akkaş, E. (2014). *Farklılaştırılmış problem çözme öğretiminin üstün zekâlı ve yetenekli öğrencilerin matematik problemlerini çözmelerine, tutumlarına ve yaratıcı düşüncelerine etkileri*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Bolu.
- Aşıroğlu, S. (2016). Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının farklılaştırılmış öğretim konusundaki öz-yeterliklerine ilişkin görüşleri. *Mersin Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 12(3), 948-960. <https://doi.org/10.17860/mersinefd.282393>.
- Avcı, S., & Yüksel, A. (2018). *Farklılaştırılmış öğretim* (4. baskı). Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık.
- Aydoğan-Yenmez, A., & Özpinar, İ. (2017a). Pre-service education on differentiated instruction: Elementary teacher candidates' competences and opinions on the process. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(5), 87-93.
- Aydoğan-Yenmez, A., & Özpinar, İ. (2017b). Öğretmenlerin farklılaştırılmış öğretim uygulama pratikleri: Süreç üzerine öğretmen ve öğrenci düşünceleri. *Trakya Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 7(2), 344-363. <https://doi.org/10.24315/trkefd.290805>.
- Bartlett, M. S. (1954). A note on the multiplying factors for various χ^2 approximations. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Series B (Methodological)*, 296-298.
- Bayram, B. (2019). *Sosyal bilgiler öğretmenlerinin kapsayıcı eğitime yönelik algı ve uygulamaları*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Erciyes Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Kayseri.
- Bearne, E. (1996). *Differentiation and diversity in the primary school*. London: Routledge.
- Brevik, L. M., Gunnulfsen, A. E., & Renzulli, J. S. (2018). Student teachers' practice and experience with differentiated instruction for students with higher learning potential. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 71, 34-45. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.12.003>.
- Bryman, A., & Cramer, D. (1999). Quantitative data analysis with SPSS release 8 for window. London: Routledge.
- Burkett, J. A. (2013). *Teacher perception on differentiated instruction and its influence on instructional practice*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Central Oklahoma Edmond, Oklahoma, USA.
- Butler, M., & Lowe, K. V. (2010). Using differentiated instruction in teacher education. *International Journal for Mathematics Teaching and Learning*, 1-10.
- Butt, M., & Kausar, S. (2010). A comparative study of using differentiated instructions of public and private school teachers. *Malaysian Journal of Distance Education*, 12(1), 105-124.
- Büyüköztürk, Ş., Çakmak, E. K., Akgün, Ö. E., Karadeniz, Ş., & Demirel, F. (2016). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri* (20. baskı). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Chamberlin, M., & Powers, R. (2010). The promise of differentiated instruction for enhancing the mathematical understandings of college students. *Teaching Mathematics and Its Applications*, 29, 113-139. <https://doi.org/10.1093/teamat/hrq006>.

- Chen, Y. H. (2007). *Exploring the assessment aspect of differentiated instruction: College EFL learners' perspectives on tiered performance tasks*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of New Orleans, New Orleans, USA.
- Chien, C. W. (2012). Differentiated instruction in an elementary school EFL classroom. *TESOL Journal*, 3(2), 280-291. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.18>.
- Christensen, L. B., Johnson, R. B., & Turner, L. A. (2015a). Tarama araştırması (E. Gümüş, Çev.). A. Aypay (Ed.), *Araştırma yöntemleri desen ve analiz* (2. baskı) içinde (ss. 367-399). Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Christensen, L. B., Johnson, R. B., & Turner, L. A. (2015b). Betimleyici istatistik (A. Ekinci, Çev.). A. Aypay (Ed.), *Araştırma yöntemleri desen ve analiz* (2. baskı) içinde (ss. 434-472). Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Christensen, L. B., Johnson, R. B., & Turner, L. A. (2015c). Çıkarımsal istatistik (N. Cemaloğlu, Çev.). A. Aypay (Ed.), *Araştırma yöntemleri desen ve analiz* (2. baskı) içinde (ss. 473-520). Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Coubergs, C., Struyven, K., Vanthournout, G., & Engels, N. (2017). Measuring teachers' perceptions about differentiated instruction: The DI-Quest instrument and model. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 53, 41-54. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2017.02.004>.
- Creswell, J. W. (2016). Nicel yöntemler (M. Bursal, Çev.). S. B. Demir (Ed.), *Araştırma deseni nitel, nicel ve karma yöntem yaklaşımları* (2.baskı) içinde (ss. 155-182). Ankara: Eğiten Kitap.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1990). *Essentials of psychological testing*. New York: Happer and Row Publishers.
- Cureton, E. E., & Mulaik, S. A. (1975). The weighted varimax rotation and the promax rotation. *Psychometrika*, 40(2), 183-195.
- Çam, Ş. S. (2013). *Öğretmenlerin farklılaştırılmış öğretim yaklaşımını uygulama ve buna ilişkin yetkinlik düzeyleri*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Eskişehir.
- Dağlıoğlu, H. E., Turupcu-Doğan, A., & Basit, O. (2017). Kapsayıcı okul öncesi eğitim ortamlarında öğretmenler çocukların bireysel yeteneklerini belirlemek ve geliştirmek için neler yapıyor? *Gazi Üniversitesi Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 37(3), 883-910.
- Davis, T. C. (2013). *Differentiation of instruction in regular education elementary classes: An investigation of faculty and educational leaders' perceptions of differentiated instruction in meeting the needs of diverse learners*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Louisiana at Lafayette, Lafayette, USA.
- De Neve, D., & Devos, G. (2016). The role of environmental factors in beginning teachers' Professional learning related to differentiated instruction. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 27(4), 557-579. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09243453.2015.1122637>.
- Demirkaya, A. S. (2018). *Sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretime yönelik yeterlik ve uygulama düzeylerine ilişkin algıları*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara.
- DeVellis, R. F. (2017). Ölçek geliştirme ilkeleri. T. Totan (Ed.), *Ölçek geliştirme* (A. S. Sağkal, Çev.) içinde (ss. 73-114). Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık.

- Dixon, F. A., Yssel, N., McConnell, J. M., & Hardin, T. (2014). Differentiated instruction, professional development, and teacher efficacy. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, 37(2), 111-127. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0162353214529042>.
- Drapeau, P. (2004). *Differentiated instruction*. New York: Scholastic.
- Dugger, K. F. (2008). *Teachers' perceptions of differentiating instruction in a sixth-grade science class of diverse learners in Georgia urban school system*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Capella University, Minneapolis, USA.
- Durrett, T. A. (2010). *Effective differentiated instructional elements for improving student performance as perceived by secondary principals in exemplary public high schools in Texas: A delphi study*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Texas A and M University, Texas, USA.
- Ekiz, D. (2015). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri* (4. baskı). Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Eren-Tuzkan, F. (2019). *Üstün yetenekli öğrencilere eğitim veren öğretmenlerin yaratıcılığı teşvik etme ve farklılaştırılmış öğretim verebilme öz yeterliklerinin incelenmesi* (Unpublished master's thesis). Bahçeşehir Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, İstanbul.
- Erkuş, A. (2014). *Psikolojide ölçme ve ölçek geliştirme*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Field, A. (2000). *Discovering statistics using spss for windows*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Gaitas, S., & Martins, M. A. (2017). Teacher perceived difficulty in implementing differentiated instructional strategies in primary school. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 21(2), 544-556. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2016.1223180>.
- Garrett, S. (2017). *A comparative study between teachers' self-efficacy of differentiated instruction and frequency differentiated instruction is implemented*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Northcentral University, Prescott Valley, USA.
- Good, M. E. (2006). *Differentiated instruction: Principles and techniques for the elementary grades*. (Unpublished master's thesis). University of California, California, USA.
- Gray, J. (2008). *The implementation of differentiated instruction for learning disabled students included in general education elementary classrooms*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of La Verne, La Verne, USA.
- Gregory, G. H., & Chapman, C. (2002). *Differentiated instructional strategies: One size doesn't fit all*. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Pres.
- Heacox, D. (2002). *Differentiating instruction in the regular classroom: How the reach and teach all learners*. Minneapolis: Free Spirit Publishing.
- Ismajli, H., & Imami-Morina, I. (2018). Differentiated instruction: Understanding and applying interactive strategies to meet the ne of all the students. *International Journal of Instruction*, 11(3), 207-218.
- Joseph, S., Thomas, M., Simonette, G., & Ramsook, L. (2013). The impact of differentiated instruction in a teacher education setting: Successes and challenges. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 2(3), 28-40.
- Kaiser, H. F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39(1), 31-36.
- Kaplan, M. (2016). *Farklılaştırılmış öğretim yöntemi ile işlenen fen bilimleri dersi 7.sınıf kuvvet ve hareket ünitesinin öğrencilerin kavramsal anlamalarına, bilimsel süreç becerilerine ve*

- akademik başarılarına etkisi.* (Unpublished master's thesis). Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, İzmir.
- Kaplan-Sayı, A. (2013). *Farklılaştırılmış yabancı dil öğretiminin üstün zekâlı öğrencilerde erişkiye, eleştirel düşünmeye ve yaratıcılığa etkisi.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). İstanbul Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İstanbul.
- Karasar, N. (2014). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemi: Kavramlar, ilkeler, teknikler.* Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık.
- King, S. (2010). *Factors associated with inclusive classroom teachers' implementation of differentiated instruction for diverse learners.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Tennessee State University, Nashville, USA.
- Kozikoğlu, İ. & Bekler, Ö. (2018). Öğretmenlerin farklılaştırılmış öğretim yaklaşımına ilişkin uygulama ve yeterlik düzeylerinin belirlenmesi. *Sakarya University Journal of Education*, 8(4), 60-74.
- Kurnaz, A., & Arslantaş, S. (2018). Sınıf öğretmenlerine sunulan üstün yetenekli öğrenciler için farklılaştırılmış etkinlik geliştirme eğitiminin etkisinin incelenmesi [Özel sayı]. *Millî Eğitim Dergisi*, 47(1), 309-332.
- Levy, H. M. (2008). Meeting the needs of all students through differentiated instruction: Helping every child reach and exceed standards. *The Clearing House*, 81(4), 161-164. <https://doi.org/10.3200/TCHS.81.4.161-164>.
- Lockley, J., Jackson, N., Downing, A., & Robert, J. (2017). *University instructors' responses on implementation of differentiated instruction in teacher education programs.* Erişim adresi <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED572728.pdf>.
- McKillup, S. (2012). *Statistics explained: An introductory guide for life scientists* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı [MEB]. (2018a). Hayat Bilgisi Dersi (1-3. Sınıflar) Öğretim Programı. Ankara: Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı Yayınları.
- Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı [MEB]. (2018b). *2023 Eğitim Vizyonu.* Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı.
- Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı [MEB]. (2018c). Fen Bilimleri Dersi (3-8. Sınıflar) Öğretim Programı. Ankara: Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı Yayınları.
- Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı [MEB]. (2018d). Matematik Dersi (1-8. Sınıflar) Öğretim Programı. Ankara: Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı Yayınları.
- Mutlu, N., Öztürk, M., & Aktekin, S. (2019). Farklılaştırılmış öğretim öz-yeterlik ölçeği geliştirilmesi. *Trakya Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 1(1), 185-202. <https://doi.org/10.26468/trakyasobed.466734>.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Özbal, A. F. (2016). *Beden eğitimi ve spor dersinde farklılaştırılmış öğretim yaklaşımının uygulanması: Bir eylem araştırması.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Anadolu Üniversitesi, Sağlık Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Eskişehir.
- Özer, S., & Yılmaz, E. (2016). Farklılaştırılmış öğretim. E. Yılmaz, M. Çalışkan, & S. A. Sulak (Ed.), *Eğitim bilimlerinden yansımaları* içinde (ss. 127-140). Konya: Çizgi Kitabevi.
- Öztürk, M., & Mutlu, N. (2017). Sosyal bilgiler ve tarih derslerinde farklılaştırılmış öğretime yönelik öğretmen algıları ve uygulamaları. *Trakya Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 7(2), 379-402.

- Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS survival manual*. UK: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Richards-Usher, L. (2013). *Teachers perception and implementation of differentiated instruction in the private elementary and middle schools*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Capella University, Minneapolis, USA.
- Roy, A., Guay, F., & Valois, P. (2013). Teaching to address diverse learning needs: Development and validation of differentiated instruction scale. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(11), 1186-1204. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2012.743604>.
- Ruys, I., Defruyt, S., Rots, I., & Aelterman, A. (2013). Differentiated instruction in teacher education: A case study of congruent teaching. *Teachers and Teaching*, 19(1), 93-107. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2013.744201>.
- Salar, R., & Turgut, Ü. (2015). Implementing differentiated instruction on pre-service physics teachers: Agendas. *Bartın Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 4(2), 682-695. <https://doi.org/10.14686/buefad.v4i2.5000136908>.
- Saucier, G., & Goldberg, L. R. (1996). The language of personality: Lexical perspectives on the five-factor model. In J. S. Wiggins (Eds.), *The five-factor model of personality* (pp. 21-50). New York: Guilford.
- Siam, K., & Al Natour, M. (2016). Teacher's differentiated instruction practices and implementation challenges for learning disabilities in Jordan. *International Education Studies*, 9(12), 167-181.
- Smit, R., & Humpert, W. (2012). Differentiated instruction in small schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28, 1152-1162. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.07.003>.
- Şimşek, Ü. (2019). *Sosyal bilgiler öğretmenlerinin kapsayıcı eğitime yönelik tutum ve özyeterlilikleri ile sınıf içi uygulamalara ilişkin görüşlerinin karşılaştırılması*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Gazi Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics* (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education.
- Tavşancıl, E. (2004). *Tutumların ölçülmesi ve SPSS ile veri analizi*. Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık.
- Taylor, B. K. (2015). Content, process and product: Modeling differentiated instruction. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 51, 13-17. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00228958.2015.988559>.
- Tekin, H. (1996). *Eğitimde ölçme ve değerlendirme* (9. bs.). Ankara: Yargı Yayınları.
- Tomlinson, C. A. (1995). *How to differentiate instruction in mixed-ability classrooms*. Alexandria: ASCD.
- Tomlinson, C. A. (1999). *The differentiated classroom: Responding to the needs of all learners*. Alexandria: ASCD.
- Tomlinson, C. A. (2014). *Öğrenci gereksinimlerine göre farklılaştırılmış eğitim* (Diye Kültürlerarası İletişim Hizmetleri, Çev.). İstanbul: Sev Yayıncılık.
- Tomlinson, C. A., & Allan, S. D. (2000). *Leadership for differentiating schools and classrooms*. Alexandria: ASCD.
- Tomlinson, C. A., & Strickland, C. A. (2005). *Differentiation in practice: A resource guide for differentiating curriculum, grades 9-12*. Alexandria: ASCD.
- UNESCO (1994). *The Salamanca Statement and framework for action on special needs education*. Salamanca: UNESCO.

- UNESCO (2001). *The open file on inclusive education: Support materials for managers and administrators*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2005). *Guidelines for inclusion: Ensuring access to education for all*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2009). *Policy guidelines on inclusion in education*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Whipple, K. A. (2012). *Differentiated instruction: A survey study of teacher understanding and implementation in a southeast Massachusetts school district*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Northeastern University, Boston, USA.
- Williams, B., Onsman, A., & Brown, T. (2010). Exploratory factor analysis: A five-step Guide for novices. *Australasian Journal of Paramedicine*, 8(3), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.33151/ajp.8.3.93>.



TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Sınıf Öğretmenlerinin Farklılaştırılmış Öğretimi Uygulama Düzeylerine Yönelik Algılarının İncelenmesi

Giriş

Öğrenciler, doğuştan gelen özelliklerinden ve yetiştikleri çevreden ötürü bireysel farklılıklar göstermektedir. Öğrenme ortamında öğrencilerin bu farklılıklarını dikkate alan yaklaşımlardan birisi, farklılaştırılmış öğretim yaklaşımıdır. Bu yaklaşım; içeriğin, sürecin veya ürünün öğrencilerin hazırbulunuşluğunun, ilgisinin veya profilinin dikkate alınarak planlanması, yürütülmesi, değerlendirilmesidir (Drapeau, 2004; Gregory & Chapman, 2002; Tomlinson, 1999). Bu kapsamda farklılaştırılmış öğretim; öğrencilerin farklı beklentilerini ve ihtiyaçlarını karşılayan, bunun sonucunda onları motive eden ve öğrenmelerini sağlayan öğretme yaklaşımıdır (Burkett, 2013; Butt & Kausar, 2010; Good, 2006). Bu bakımdan öğrencilerin farklı düzeylerine uygun öğrenme ortamı ve öğrenme tercihlerine uygun seçenekler oluşturulur, birbirleriyle etkileşimi artırılır, öğrenmelerinin sorumluluğunu alması sağlanır, öğrenilenler günlük yaşamla ilişkilendirilerek daha anlamlı kılınır (Avcı & Yüksel, 2018; Heacox, 2002; Tomlinson, 1999, 2014).

Literatür incelendiğinde sınıf öğretmenlerine yönelik ölçek geliştirilen ve onların farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama algılarının incelendiği araştırma (Demirkaya, 2018) sınırlılığı bulunduğu görülmüştür. Bu kapsamda bu araştırmanın alana katkı sağlayacağı ve literatürde önemli yer tutacağı belirtilebilir. Ayrıca bu çalışmada sınıf öğretmenlerinin bu algılarının hizmet içi eğitime katılma veya katılmama, farklı özellikli öğrencisi bulunma ya da bulunmama durumu bakımından incelenmesi eğitim paydaşlarına fayda sağlayabilir. Bu bağlamda bu araştırmanın temel amacı, sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama düzeylerine ilişkin algılarının belirlenmesidir. Literatürde bu yaklaşıma yönelik hizmet içi eğitime katılmanın uygulama algısını artırdığını belirlenmesinden (Burkett, 2013; De Neve & Devos, 2016; Dixon vd., 2014; Kurnaz & Arslantaş, 2018; Richards-Usher, 2013), sıklıkla öğretmenlere bu eğitimin sunulmasının önerilmesinden ve 2018 yılından itibaren bakanlığın bunu gerçekleştirmesinden ötürü sınıf öğretmenlerinin bu algılarının hizmet içi eğitime katılma durumu bakımından incelenmesi planlanmıştır. Son yıllarda sınıflardaki farklı özellikli öğrenci sayısının hızla artmasından dolayı sınıf öğretmenlerinin bu algılarının bu öğrencilerin bulunması durumuna göre de incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Literatürde bu yaklaşımı uygulama algılarının kadın sınıf öğretmenlerinde erkeklerden yüksek olduğu, mezun olunan fakülte türüne göre değişmediği belirlendiğinden (Demirkaya, 2018), bu algıların bu değişkenler açısından da incelenmesi ve mevcut araştırmaların sonuçları ile karşılaştırılması planlanmıştır.

Yöntem

Araştırmada; sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama düzeylerine yönelik algılarının ve bu algılarının hizmet içi eğitime katılma ve farklı özelliklerde öğrencisi bulunması durumuna, mezun olunan fakülte türüne, cinsiyete göre nasıl değiştiğinin sayısal ve istatistiksel yollarla incelenmesi için nicel araştırma desenlerinden tarama yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın evrenini 2018-2019 eğitim-öğretim yılında Trabzon ili genelinde görev yapan 2257 sınıf öğretmeni oluşturmuştur. Araştırmanın örnekleme, evrenden olasılığa dayalı örnekleme yöntemlerinden basit olasılıklı örnekleme yöntemi kullanılarak belirlenen 703 sınıf öğretmenidir.

Araştırmanın verileri, araştırmacılar tarafından geliştirilen Farklılaştırılmış Öğretim Ölçeğinin örnekleme yüz yüze uygulanması ile toplanmıştır. Sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama düzeylerine yönelik algılarının belirlenmesi için betimsel istatistikten yararlanılmıştır. Sınıf öğretmenlerinin hizmet içi eğitime katılma ve farklı özellikli öğrencisi bulunma durumunun, mezun olduğu fakülte türünün, cinsiyetinin, farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama düzeylerine yönelik algılarına etkisini belirlemek için ise çıkarımsal istatistik işe koşulmuştur.

Bulgular

Araştırmada sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama düzeylerine yönelik algılarının yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca araştırmada, hizmet içi eğitime katılan sınıf öğretmenlerinin katılmayanlara; eğitim fakültesi mezunu olanların diğer fakültelerden mezun olanlara; kadın sınıf öğretmenlerinin erkeklere göre bu algılarının anlamlı olarak daha yüksek olduğu anlaşılmıştır. Sınıf öğretmenlerinin bu algılarının farklı özellikli öğrencisi bulunma durumuna göre ise anlamlı olarak farklılık göstermediği belirlenmiştir.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Araştırmada sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama düzeylerine yönelik algılarının yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Alana ilişkin ulusal literatürdeki tek araştırmada (Demirkaya, 2018) da sınıf öğretmenlerinin bu algılarının yüksek olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca Çam (2013) ortaokul öğretmenlerinin, Öztürk ve Mutlu (2017) ise, sosyal bilgiler ve tarih öğretmenlerinin bu algılarının yüksek olduğunu belirlemiştir. Uluslararası literatürde bazı araştırmalarda (Burkett, 2013; Garrett, 2017; Richards-Usher, 2013; Whipple, 2012) da sınıf öğretmenlerinin bu algılarının yüksek olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Fakat Davis (2013) sınıf öğretmenlerinin bu algılarının kısmen yeterli olduğunu, Ismajli ve Imami-Morina (2018) ise yeterli olmadığını belirlemiştir. Bunların yanında Siam ve Al Natour (2016) da ilkökul ve ortaokul öğretmenlerinin bu algılarının düşük olduğunu tespit etmiştir. Özetle literatürde hem öğretmenlerin hem de sınıf öğretmenlerinin bu algılarının genellikle yüksek olduğu ve bu araştırma sonucunun bunu desteklediği belirtilebilir.

Bu araştırmada hizmet içi eğitime katılan sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama algılarının anlamlı olarak daha yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Literatür incelendiğinde yapılan araştırmalarda (Burkett, 2013; De Neve & Devos, 2016; Dixon vd., 2014; Kurnaz & Arslantaş, 2018; Richards-Usher, 2013) farklılaştırılmış öğretime yönelik eğitim alan sınıf öğretmenlerinin bu yaklaşımı uygulama algılarının yüksek olduğu görülmektedir. Bu kapsamda hizmet içi eğitime katılmanın öğretmenlerin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama algılarını artırdığı ve araştırmanın bu bulgusunun literatürü desteklediği belirtilebilir.

Araştırmada sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama algılarının farklı özellikli öğrencisi bulunma durumuna göre anlamlı olarak farklılaşmadığı görülmüştür. Şimşek (2019), sosyal bilgiler öğretmenlerinin kapsayıcı eğitime yönelik öz yeterliklerinin sınıflarında farklı özellikli öğrenci bulunmasına göre anlamlı farklılık göstermediğini belirlemiştir. Bu bakımdan araştırmının bu bulgusunun literatür ile benzeştiği ifade edilebilir.


Bu araştırmada eğitim fakültesi mezunu olan sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama algılarının diğer fakültelerden mezun olanların algılarına göre anlamlı olarak daha yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Literatürdeki bu duruma yönelik tek araştırmada (Demirkaya, 2018) ise, mezun olunan fakülte türüne göre sınıf öğretmenlerinin bu algılarında anlamlı farklılık oluşmamıştır. Bu bakımdan araştırmının bu bulgusunun literatürdeki tek araştırmının bulgusundan farklılaştığı belirtilebilir. Bu farklılık, araştırmaların farklı bölgelerde ve örneklemlemlerle gerçekleştirilmesine bağlanabilir.


Araştırmada kadın sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama algılarının erkeklere göre anlamlı olarak daha yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Literatürdeki bu duruma yönelik tek araştırmada (Demirkaya, 2018) da kadın sınıf öğretmenlerinin algılarının daha yüksek olduğu bulgusuna ulaşılmıştır. Bu bakımdan araştırmının bu bulgusunun örneklem grubu aynı olan tek araştırmının bulgusu ile örtüştüğü ifade edilebilir.

Araştırmının bu sonuçları doğrultusunda şu önerilerde bulunulabilir:

- Sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulamaya yönelik algılarını inceleyen araştırmaların sınırlılığı dikkate alınarak ve bu araştırmada geliştirilen ölçek kullanılarak başka illerde veya bölgelerde bu duruma ilişkin yeni çalışmalar yapılabilir ve bu araştırmının sonuçları ile karşılaştırılabilir.
- Hizmet içi eğitime katılmanın sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama algılarına olumlu etkisi göz önünde bulundurularak bu yaklaşıma ilişkin hizmet içi eğitimler yaygınlaştırılabilir. Ayrıca bu eğitim, öğretmen adaylarına da lisans öğrenimlerinde verilebilir.
- Sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulamaya yönelik algılarının hizmet içi eğitime katılmaya, eğitim fakültesi mezunu olmaya, cinsiyete göre değiştiği; farklı özellikli öğrencisi bulunmaya göre değişmediği dikkate alınarak yapılacak yeni araştırmalarda bu ve benzeri değişkenlerin etkisine bakılabilir ve yapılan araştırmaların sonuçları ile karşılaştırılabilir.
- Sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklılaştırılmış öğretimi uygulama düzeylerine yönelik algılarını öğretim ortamına yansıtıp yansıtamadıklarını belirlemek için görüşme veya gözlemden yararlanarak nitel araştırmalar gerçekleştirilebilir.

Investigation of Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity

Sedef Süer, Dicle University, sedef.suer@dicle.edu.tr,  0000-0002-1833-9286

İsmail Kinay, Dicle University, ismailkinay84@gmail.com,  0000-0001-8963-8411

Keywords

Curriculum fidelity
Curricula in primary schools
Fidelity behaviors
Primary education

Article Info:

Received : 14-12-2021
Accepted : 27-05-2022
Published : 18-06-2022

DOI: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.009

Abstract

Curriculum fidelity refers to the closeness between the formal and implemented program and is the determination of how well a curriculum is implemented in line with its original design. The teacher is emphasized as an important variable for curriculum fidelity, and his/her attitudes and behaviors during the implementation of designed curriculum are important for the innovation and development studies in curriculum and instruction field. In this context, the aim of this study is to reveal the curriculum fidelity behaviors of primary teachers who are to use curriculum of different disciplines. This study was based on a survey design in which quantitative data were used. In this context, the Curriculum Fidelity Scale and an open-ended questionnaire form were applied to a total of 516 primary teachers who voluntarily participated in the study. The data obtained were analyzed with descriptive statistics, t-test, one-way ANOVA tests. The findings showed that primary teachers have a high curriculum fidelity highlighting the programs' functions of directing the learning activities and informing about the targets of the school subjects. In addition, it was concluded that while the primary teachers felt the need to apply to curriculum of the core subjects, they mostly benefited from the curriculum components which are learning and teaching activities.

To cite this article: Süer, S., & Kinay, İ. (2022). Investigation of primary teachers' curriculum fidelity. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 12(1), 191-214. doi: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.009

Introduction

Education systems require an innovative process in line with social and scientific developments. The knowledge and skills planned to be acquired by the learners in education are gained through plans and programs. Thus, curriculum in education needs updating and revision at certain intervals. The curriculum development requires three stages as designing, implementation and evaluation (Akpınar, 2014). However, it is not possible for the curriculum to show the desired effect unless they are appropriately and fully understood by the teachers who are responsible for the implementation process (Yar-Yıldırım, 2020). To create the desired

effect, a curriculum necessitates not only being well developed but also being well conducted in line with the pre-determined procedures and principles. Otherwise, it will not be possible to determine how the revised curriculum function in the real school context and to what extent it meets the needs of learners (Özçelik, 2014).

A determinant variable for the effectiveness of curriculum is fidelity. Fidelity studies have their origins in E. M. Rogers' diffusion of innovation theory (Dusenbury, Brannigan, Falco, & Hansen, 2003) and since then, fidelity has been a topic frequently used in the health, education and labor studies (Vartuli & Rohs, 2009). Curriculum fidelity is closeness between design and implementation (Lee & Chue, 2013) and it shows how well an innovation is implemented as per the original program design (Lee, Penfield, & Maerten-Rivera, 2009). The concept of curriculum fidelity is expressed as the faithful implementation of a curriculum to its original design by the teachers/stakeholders (Bümen, Çakar, & Yıldız, 2014). High curriculum fidelity shows a firm implementation of the curriculum as intended by the designers, while low curriculum fidelity indicates flexible implementation (Vartuli & Rohs, 2009).

Curriculum fidelity requires examinations of the implementation's authenticity (Dusenbury et al., 2003). For this reason, it is necessary to collect data during the implementation process so that curriculum developers could get feedback as to its real effectiveness and applicability (Haataja et al., 2014). Otherwise, as the chief implementers of the curriculum, teachers cannot fully adopt and understand the interventions made in the curriculum, which in the end lead to failure of targeted achievements (Century, Rudnick & Freeman, 2010). In this case, the effectiveness of the curriculum evaluation studies may cause limited or uncertain data (Vartuli & Rohs, 2009) as the teachers may tend to reflect their biased perception of curriculum experience rather than objective implementation of curriculum (Adams, Soumerai, Lomas, & Ross-Degnan, 1999). Therefore, it is important to know which components of the curriculum and to what extent are adopted by the teachers (Abry, Rimm-Kaufman, Larsen, & Brewer, 2013).

Curricula serve as an important tool in developing students' knowledge and preparing them for the next academic level (Polikoff & Porter, 2014). It is important to know the attitudes and behaviors of the teacher who plays an important role in the implementation process (Hall & Hord, 2015). In that, some teachers can be flexible in implementation and employ certain elements of the designed curriculum in the teaching process, while skipping others. In such a case, the teacher interferes with curriculum, and this may affect both the student's learning and the analyzes of the developers regarding the effectiveness of the curriculum and the subsequent development studies (Superfine, Marshall, & Kelso, 2015). Some other teachers adhere strictly to the curriculum and implement it as designed (Cobanoglu & Capa-Aydin, 2015). Showing such a strict level of fidelity is also criticized on the grounds that it limits the development of higher-order thinking skills, professional autonomy and decision-making, and puts teachers in the position of workers instead of expert practitioners (Achinstein & Ogawa, 2006). Despite these criticisms, many studies in the literature state that the close implementation of the curriculum to its design contributes to achieving the targets and student success (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; McNeill, Katsh-Singer, Gonzalez-Howard, & Loper, 2016; Polikoff & Porter, 2014; Weare & Nind, 2011; Wiles & Bondi, 2014). From this point of view, the fact that teachers should fully implement the curriculum is becoming popular (Seraphin et al., 2017).

The increasing attention on the effect of curriculum fidelity has brought the teachers the duty of implementing the designed curriculum in line with its purpose and design (Nevenglosky, 2018). Teachers play a key role in the consistent and effective implementation of curricula prepared for the progress and development of students (Pandey, 2018). In this direction, further research on the variables affecting teachers' fidelity is needed to determine teachers' fidelity behaviors towards curriculum components. Just like curriculum development and evaluation studies, curriculum fidelity studies have also taken their place in the relevant literature (Keith, Hopp, Subramanian, Wiitala, & Lowery, 2010) especially in countries where curricula are designed by a single center and implemented in all regions (Burakgazi, 2019).

As a matter of fact, the relevant literature showed that there are a limited number of studies examining teachers' curriculum fidelity. The preliminary studies in the field are mostly based on theoretical content focusing on the definition and subcomponents of the concept (Bay, Kahramanoğlu, Döş, & Özpolat, 2017; Burakgazi, 2019; Bümen et al., 2014; Kara, Karakoç, Yıldırım, & Bay, 2017). Following studies focused mostly on determining teachers' curriculum fidelity levels with contributing or deteriorating variables' effect. In one of these studies, Çobanoğlu and Çapa-Aydin (2015) concluded that experienced and associate degree pre-school teachers have a high level of curriculum fidelity, while Boncuk (2021) concluded that curriculum literacy levels of teachers' are an important predictor of their curriculum fidelity. We see that the curriculum fidelity studies have been basically conducted at limited branches (such as mathematics, preschool). As for many other branches and field there is still a huge gap and need for fidelity studies. Dikbayır and Bümen (2016) stated that the adoption degree of curriculum and the level of reflection to it in practice by the teachers is important in saving effort, money, and time dedicated to education. Otherwise, it would be useless to revise or intervene in the curriculum of school subjects, when we do not have an idea regarding how fidelity to core curriculum intervention is. Therefore, we need to study curriculum fidelity behaviors of teachers teaching different disciplines at different school stages. Bay et al. (2017) stated that the concept of curriculum fidelity is related to discipline, and field of study is in fact a determinant variable for curriculum fidelity since each has unique working methods and structures. As we have not come across a study handling directly the curriculum fidelity of primary teachers in the literature, this study focused on curriculum fidelity of primary teachers, who undertake the duty of teaching young students the basic skills of many branches, as well as arithmetic, reading and writing skills. As known well, primary teachers implement a variety of curriculum of different school subjects (Turkish, Mathematics, Music, Visual Arts, Physical Education and Game Subjects, Information Technologies and Software from the 1st grade to 4th grade, while they implement curriculum of Life Sciences at 1st, 2nd, 3rd grades, Social Studies at 3rd and 4th grade, Science at 3rd and 4th grade, Human Rights and Citizenship at 4th grade, Traffic Safety at 4th grade) (Ministry of National Education [MoNE], 2018). Here we conclude that primary teachers have the responsibility of implementing twelve different curricula, at least three different curricula each year, for all the grades. Based on this, this study aims to examine the behavior of primary teachers' fidelity to curriculum of different disciplines.

The aim of study

The aim of this study is to investigate primary teachers' curriculum fidelity along with the following research questions:

1. What is the level of primary teachers' curriculum fidelity?

2. Is there a significant difference between primary teachers' curriculum fidelity in terms of;
 - a. Gender,
 - b. Educational level,
 - c. Students grade,
 - d. The number of students in the class,
 - e. The school setting,
 - f. Teacher experience.
3. What kind of function do primary teachers think the curricula they teach plays in their professional lives?
4. Which components of the curriculum do primary teachers mostly implement?
5. Which curricula of different school subjects do primary teachers mostly benefit from?

Method

Research Design

This study aiming to examine primary teachers' curriculum fidelity was designed as a survey model. Survey is a research model that focuses on gathering data with the aim of describing the nature of surviving conditions, determining standards of comparison, or identifying the relationships between certain events (Cohen, Manion, & Marrison, 2007). Survey studies enable researchers to describe incidences, distributions, and relationships of variables in their natural context (Wiersma, 1995). Survey studies can include unstructured observations, open-ended interviews and questionnaires, participant observations and written documents as data collection tools and the obtained data can be analyzed with content analysis and/or descriptive statistics (Kramer, 1985). This study implicated quantitative design based on five point Likert type scale and open-ended questionnaires.

Population and Sample

The target population of the research comprises 6163 primary teachers working in primary schools in the 2nd term of the 2020-2021 academic year in Diyarbakir. For a population of 6163, the sample size was calculated as 362, with a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error (The Research Advisors, 2006). In this study the sample is comprised of 516 primary teachers, 274 female and 242 male, who were randomly selected from the schools in Diyarbakir Province. Simple random sampling is one of the sampling method used to grant each variables of the populations an equal probability of selection and independency from one another (Cohen, Manion, & Marrison, 2007). With simple random sampling method, selection bias is eliminated as well as external and internal validity is granted (Dattalo, 2010). Accordingly, the sample size of this study ($n = 516$) validly represents the universe. The descriptive qualities of the sample are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *The Descriptive Qualities of the Sample*

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Categories</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
Gender	Male	274	53.1
	Female	242	46.9
Educational level	Bachelor's degree	451	87.4
	Postgraduate degree	65	12.6
Students grade	1st Grade	147	28.5
	2nd Grade	100	19.4
	3rd Grade	141	27.3
	4th Grade	128	24.8
The number of students in the class	1-20	118	22.9
	21-40	345	66.9
	41 and over	53	10.3
The school setting	Village	148	28.7
	District Center	114	22.1
	City Center	254	49.2
Teachers' experience	1-5 year	104	20.2
	6-10 year	80	15.5
	11-15 year	116	22.5
	16-20 year	104	20.2
	21 year and over	112	21.7
Total		516	100

Instruments

The data of the study were gathered with Curriculum Fidelity Scale and Open-ended Questionnaire Form.

Curriculum fidelity scale (CFS)

CFS was developed by Yaşaroğlu and Manav (2015) as a single dimensional 5-point Likert scale comprising 20 items, 16 of which are positive, 4 of which are negative. Yaşaroğlu and Manav (2015) calculated Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient value of the scale as .896. In this study, we calculated Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient as .887.

Open ended questionnaire

An open ended questionnaire form consisting three open ended questions was developed by the researchers for this study. First of all, three open-ended questions were prepared by the researchers regarding the curriculum fidelity behaviors of primary teachers after having read the related literature and the results of research findings in the field. Afterwards, the draft form was sent to three experts in curriculum and instruction field. Along with the experts' feedbacks, the form was revised in terms of expression to put into final form and then used. The form consisted following three questions:

1. What kind of functions do curricula play in your teaching life? What does it mean for you in your teaching profession?
2. Could you please explain how you benefit from the components of the curriculum, along with your justification? (In terms of aims, content, learning-teaching process and evaluation).

3. Curriculum of which school subject(s) do you most need to apply, and why?

Data Collection Process

For data collection process, first of all, necessary permission for the use of CFS was requested and an e-mail was received from the researcher. Then ethical approval of Social and Human Sciences Ethics Committee of Dicle University decision dated 25.02.2021 and numbered 41 was obtained. Afterwards, required permissions were also obtained from Diyarbakır Provincial Directorate of National Education through the Rectorate of Dicle University to implement the data gathering tools in primary schools. The data for the study gathered through online platform in the second semester of 2020-2021 academic year. The items in the data gathering tools were processed into Google Forms and a link of it was sent to participants' emails. Demographic variables and scale items parts in the link were kept obligatory while the open ended questionnaire form was arranged as optional. The link was kept accessible until the end of the semester.

Data Analysis

This study includes two different types of quantitative data which was analyzed separately. The data obtained were analyzed by using the Jamovi package program. The percentages and frequencies were calculated to give the descriptive statistics of the sample while curriculum fidelity level of primary teachers was determined with the help of mean and standard deviation values. Mean scores were interpreted as between 1.00-1.80 strongly disagree, 1.81-2.60 disagree, 2.61-3.40 partially agree, 3.41-4.20 agree and 4.21-5.00 strongly agree.

The data set was tested in terms of normal distribution to select the statistics test to be used. Kurtosis and Skewness coefficients and Shapiro-Wilk test were used to test a normal distribution of data set. Kurtosis and skewness coefficients were 6.43 and -1.71, respectively, while Shapiro-Wilk test was $p < .001$. These values do not imply a normal distribution, in fact. However, the Central Limit Theorem (CLT), the basis of many analysis methods, claims that the mean of randomly selected samples from any distribution has a normal distribution. The CLT mentions that when we have a sample comprising hundreds of observations, the distribution of the data can be ignored (Altman & Bland, 1995). In other words, no matter how the distribution of a random variable we are interested in the population, the mean of sample will be a normally distributed variable for a sample over a certain volume (usually 30 or more) taken from a normally distributed population (Korum, 1985). In order to use parametric tests, the populations from which the samples are taken are assumed to have a normal distribution. However, with sufficiently large sample sizes ($+30$), the violation of this assumption does not cause any major problems (Pallant, 2017). However, if the group size is greater than 40 when you compare the means for each group, CLT suggests the use of parametric tests even if data set does not show a normal distribution (Elliott & Woodward, 2007). Based on these, it was concluded that the use of parametric tests in this study would not pose a threat to the assumption of normality, considering the sample size of the study. The Levene test was used to test the homogeneity of variances, which is a necessary condition for performing parametric tests with the assumption of normality. Since Levene test results ensured homogeneity of variances for all independent variables considered in the study, Independent Samples t-test and ANOVA tests were used to test the significance between independent variables discussed ($F = 1.21, p = .272 > .05$ for gender; $F = 2.46, p = .117 > .05$ for educational level; $F = .164, p = .180 > .05$ for the students grade; $F = .860, p = .424 > .05$ for the number of students in the

classroom; $F = .432$, $p = .650 > .05$ for school setting; $F = .391$, $p = .815 > .05$ for teachers experience). The comparisons were interpreted with the significance level of 0.05. In case of a significant difference, the effect size (Cohen's d) was calculated. Cohen's effect size (Cohen d) between 0.20 and 0.49 is interpreted as minor effect, 0.50 to 0.79 as medium effect, and if it is equal or over 0.80 is interpreted as large effect (Tan, 2016). The data obtained with open-ended questionnaire form was analyzed with descriptive statistics. In this study, since the responses to the questions in the open-ended questionnaire form were classified and their frequencies were determined, the descriptive statistics were used.

Results

In this part, findings related to the research questions were presented.

Findings Regarding Means and Standard Deviation Values for Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity

The mean and standard deviation values of primary teachers' curriculum fidelity were presented in Table 2.

Table 2. *The Mean and Standard Deviation Values of Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity*

N	\bar{X}	SD
516	4.53	.477

$(4.21 < \bar{X} < 5.00)$

As seen in Table 2, the mean score of primary school teachers' curriculum fidelity was found 4.53. This score indicates the level of "I strongly agree". Considering that the maximum mean score is 5.00, the arithmetic mean of primary school teachers' curriculum fidelity is quite high.

Findings Regarding the Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity by Gender

To test primary teachers' curriculum fidelity scores in terms of gender independent samples t test was used, and the findings were presented in Table 3.

Table 3. *Independent Samples t -test Results Regarding Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity Scores in Terms of Gender Variable*

	Gender	N	\bar{X}	SD	df	t	p	Effect Size
Curriculum Fidelity	Male	274	4.48	.474	514	2.50	.013*	.221
	Female	242	4.58	.476				

* $p < .05$

As seen in Table 3, a significant difference was observed in favor of female primary teachers' curriculum fidelity in terms of gender. Considering the effect size value, the significant difference is minor.

Findings Regarding the Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity by Educational Level

The findings regarding primary teachers' curriculum fidelity scores in terms of their educational level were presented in Table 4.

Table 4. *Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity Scores in Terms of Educational Level Variable*

	<i>Education Level</i>	<i>N</i>	\bar{X}	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Effect Size</i>
Curriculum Fidelity	Bachelor's	451	4.55	.455	514	2.47	.014*	.327
	Postgraduate	65	4.39	.496				

*p < .05

Table 4 showed that the mean scores of primary teachers with bachelor's degree is higher than those of primary teachers with postgraduate degree and this difference is statistically significant in favor of primary teachers with bachelor's degree. However, considering the effect size value, the significant difference is minor.

Findings Regarding the Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity by Students' Grade

To test primary teachers' curriculum fidelity scores in terms of students' grade one-way ANOVA test was used and the findings were presented in Table 5.

Table 5. *ANOVA Results Regarding Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity Scores in Terms of Students' Grade Variable*

	<i>Grade</i>	<i>N</i>	\bar{X}	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Tukey</i>	<i>Effect Size</i>
Curriculum Fidelity	1st Grade	147	4.56	.421	.774	.509	-	-
	2nd Grade	100	4.47	.536				
	3rd Grade	141	4.54	.466				
	4th Grade	128	4.52	.502				

As shown in Table 5, the mean scores of primary teachers teaching at 1st grade students is higher than those of teaching at 3rd and 4th Grade students. The primary teachers teaching at 2nd grade students have the lowest mean scores compared to upper grades. However, significant difference was not observed in primary teachers' curriculum fidelity scores in terms of the students' grade.

Findings Regarding the Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity by the Number of Students in the Classroom

The findings regarding primary teachers' curriculum fidelity scores in terms of the number of students in the classroom were presented in Table 6.

Table 6. *ANOVA Results Regarding Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity Scores in Terms of the Number of Students in the Classroom Variable*

	<i>Number of Students in Classroom</i>	<i>N</i>	\bar{X}	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Tukey</i>	<i>Effect Size</i>
Curriculum Fidelity	1-20	118	4.54	.401	.076	.926	-	-
	21-40	345	4.52	.503				
	41 and over	53	4.54	.469				

As shown in Table 6, the mean scores of primary teachers teaching in the small classrooms (1 to 20 students) and the large classrooms are higher than those of teaching at medium ones (21 to 41 students). However, this difference in curriculum fidelity of primary teachers regarding the number of students in the classroom is not statistically significant.

Findings Regarding the Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity by School Setting

The findings regarding primary teachers' curriculum fidelity scores in terms of the school setting were presented in Table 7.

Table 7. ANOVA Results Regarding Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity Scores in Terms of the School Setting Variable

	<i>School Setting</i>	<i>N</i>	\bar{X}	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Tukey</i>	<i>Effect Size</i>
Curriculum Fidelity	Village	148	4.51	.514	1.16	.314	-	-
	District Center	114	4.59	.498				
	City Centre	254	4.51	.444				

As shown in Table 7, the mean scores of primary teachers working in a school at district center are higher than those of working in a school at village and city center. However, this difference in curriculum fidelity of primary teachers regarding the school setting is not statistically significant.

Findings Regarding the Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity by Teachers' Experience

The findings regarding primary teachers' curriculum fidelity scores in terms of teachers' experience were presented in Table 8.

Table 8. ANOVA Results Regarding Primary Teachers' Curriculum Fidelity Scores in Terms of Teachers' Experience Variable

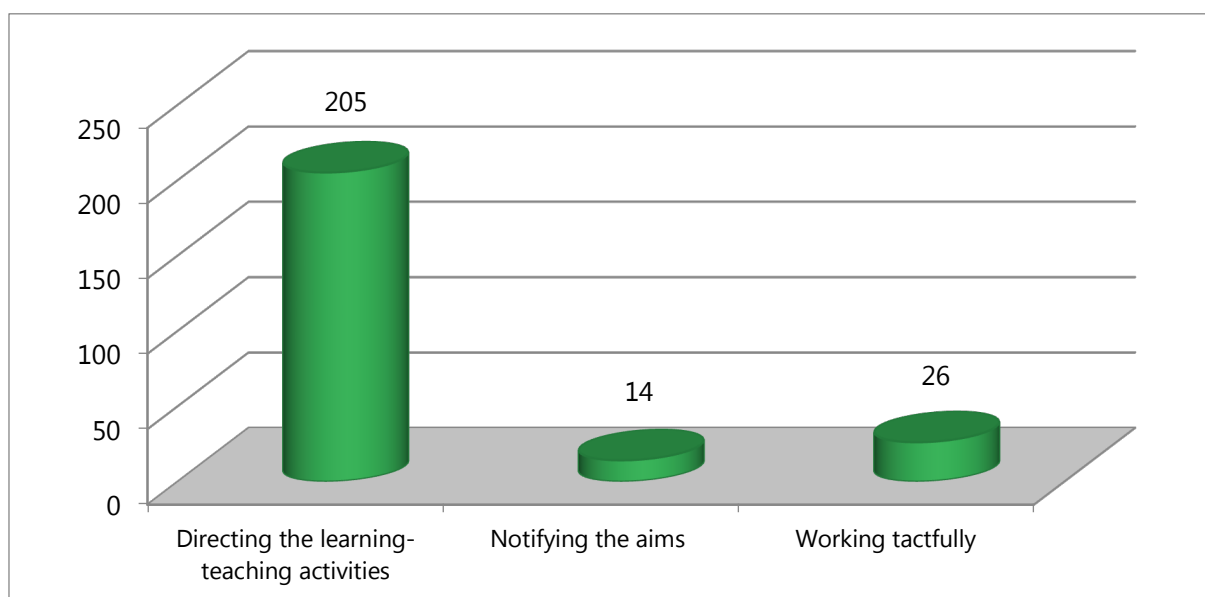
	<i>Teacher Experience</i>	<i>N</i>	\bar{X}	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Tukey</i>	<i>Effect Size</i>
Curriculum Fidelity	1-5 year	104	4.52	.485	.113	.978	-	-
	6-10 year	80	4.53	.432				
	11-15 year	116	4.53	.433				
	16-20 year	104	4.51	.582				
	21 year and over	112	4.55	.441				

As shown in Table 8, the curriculum fidelity mean scores of primary teachers with 21 years and over teaching experience are the highest, while those with 16 to 20 years' experience are the lowest. Along with this, the curriculum fidelity mean scores of primary teachers in each category are very close to one another and this slight difference in curriculum fidelity of primary teachers regarding the teacher experience variable is not statistically significant.

Findings Regarding the Function of Curriculum in Primary Teachers' Professional Lives

Primary teachers were also asked to express their opinions on the function of the curricula they implemented in their professional lives, and 245 of the teachers responded. The views obtained from the primary teachers regarding the function of the curriculum in the teachers'

professional life were categorized under three major topics. The related views and the frequencies were presented in Graph 1.



Graph 1. *Primary Teachers' Views Regarding the Function of the Curriculum*

As seen in Graph 1. the primary teachers benefited from the curriculum in their professional lives for directing the learning-teaching activities ($f = 205$), working tactfully ($f = 26$) and notifying the aims ($f = 14$). Particularly, a large part of teachers highlighted the benefits of curriculum in the choosing the teaching methods, techniques and materials appropriate for the learning aims of the school subjects. The opinions of the teachers regarding this questions were as follows:

Curriculum is a program that I use a lot at school. I benefit a lot while preparing my daily program (CT216).

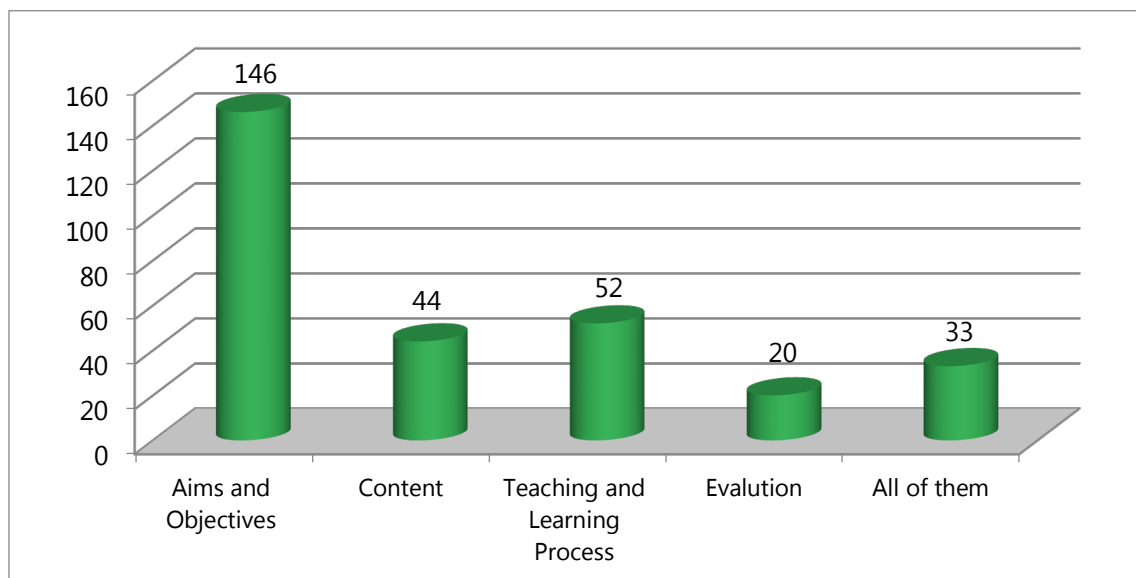
It shows which learning outcomes we should give in which direction (CT270).

It ensures the permanency of learning, therefore contributes to better professional performance of teachers (CT318).

It provides convenience in planning and managing the process and helps me save time (CT323).

Findings Regarding Primary Teachers Benefiting from the Curriculum Components

The primary teachers were asked to mention which curriculum components they applied most in their teaching process, and 220 primary teachers responded. In line with the responses from the teachers, the findings regarding the use of the curriculum components were categorized under five major topics. The related views and the frequencies were presented in Graph 2.



* The total number of frequencies in this table is higher than the number of participants who answered this question because some participants gave their opinions on more than one category.

Graph 2. Frequencies Regarding Primary Teachers' Use of Curriculum Components

As seen in graph primary teachers stated to have benefited mostly from Aims and objectives ($f = 146$), Content ($f = 44$), Teaching and learning process ($f = 52$), Evaluation ($f = 20$) and all the components ($f = 33$). The data in the graph showed the teachers applied mostly to aims and objectives component and at least to the evaluation component of the curriculum. The opinions of the teachers regarding this question were as follows:

I make use of curriculum experience component. Since it is the process where the students reach the aims and objectives (CT22).

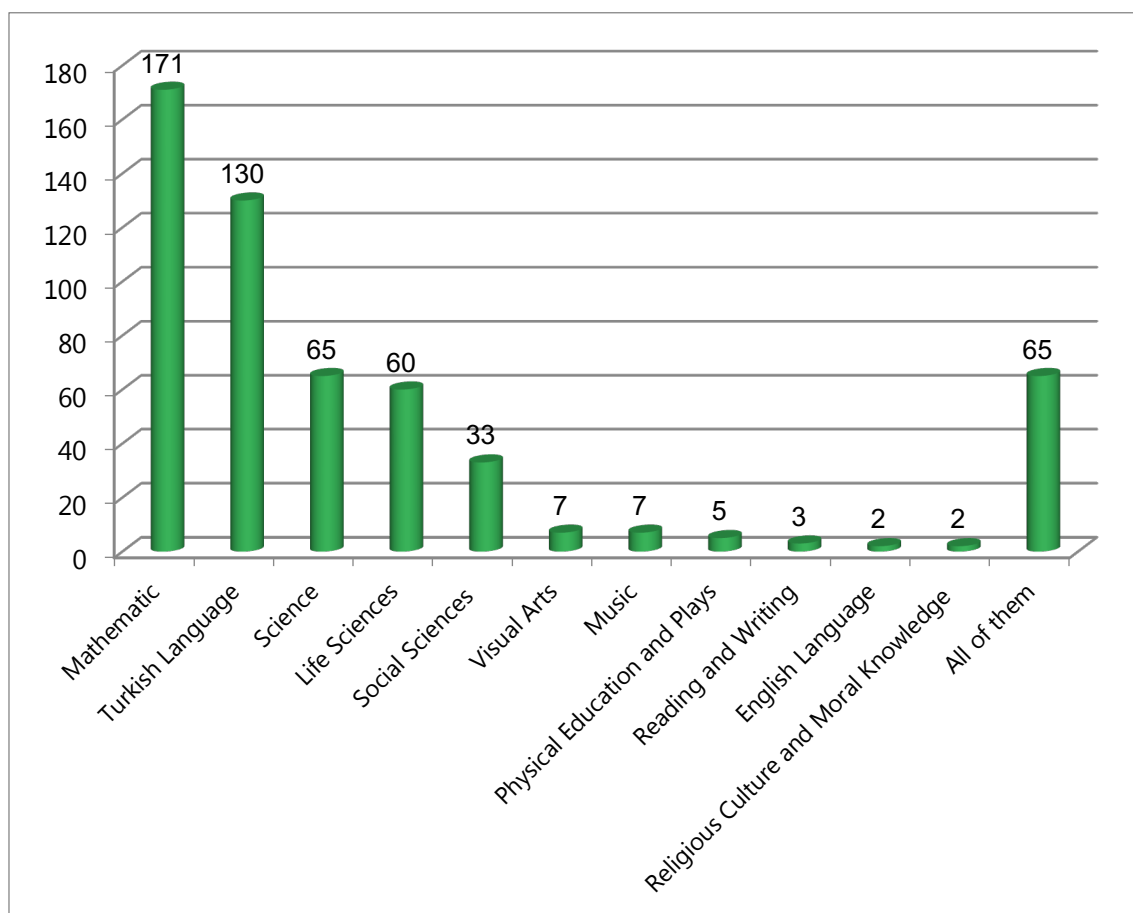
I benefited in that how I can best give a curriculum content suitable for the age groups of the students in my class (CT73).

I make use of curriculum evaluation component. The more different testing methods I used, the higher the reliability will be (CT79).

I try to implement the stages of the curriculum step by step. By using the curriculum, I learn how I should give the desired aims to the students, which method and technique should I use, how I should organize my experiences, and finally whether I have achieved the target aims and objectives of the program (CT279).

Findings Regarding Primary Teachers Benefiting from the Curriculum of Different School Subjects

The primary teachers were finally asked to express their views towards curriculum of which school subject/s they benefited mostly, and 316 primary teachers responded to the related question. In line with the answers from the teachers, the findings were categorized under twelve topics. The related themes and the frequencies were presented in Graph 3.



* The total number of frequencies in this table is higher than the number of participants who answered this question because some participants gave their opinions on more than one category.

Graph 3. Frequencies regarding the Primary Teachers' Use of Curricula of Different School Subjects

As seen primary teachers mentioned benefiting mostly from the curricula of basic courses such as Mathematics ($f = 171$), Turkish ($f = 130$) and Science ($f = 65$), Life Sciences ($f = 60$) and Social Studies ($f = 33$). The teachers also made use of at least Religious Culture and Moral Knowledge ($f = 2$) and English ($f = 2$) courses, as these two school subjects are taught by the related branch teachers.

Discussion, Conclusion and Implications

A total of 516 primary teachers voluntarily took part in this study, which aims to reveal curriculum fidelity behaviors of primary teachers working in primary schools. As a result of the analysis of the data obtained from the teachers, it was concluded that curriculum fidelity level of primary teachers, who are responsible for implementing the curriculum of the courses within the scope of more than one discipline, is quite high. This shows that primary school curricula, which are designed from a single center and put into practice all over the country, are put into practice as designed (Vartuli & Rohs, 2009). Although there is not a study directly targeted the curriculum fidelity of primary teachers in the literature, teachers working in primary schools, the majority of whom are primary teachers, have higher level of curriculum fidelity than teachers working at other school stages (Burul, 2018). This may result from the fact that external factors such as exams, passing grades, and preparatory exams for an upper school stage in

primary schools are not emphasized as much as in other education levels. Bümen et al. (2014) mentioned the large-scale tests and exams to be a determinant factor effecting curriculum fidelity of teachers in Turkey. Because the factors that create pressure and anxiety on the teacher during the curriculum implementations affect the teacher's choices while applying the curriculum or curriculum components (Bell, 2015), and when teachers are in autonomy, they can practice teaching more effectively (Hondrich, Hertel, Adl-Aminik, & Klieme, 2016). The absence of such negative contexts and concerns may contribute to the high fidelity to curriculum.

In this study, gender was concluded to create a significant difference in favor of female primary teachers' curriculum fidelity. The related literature showed that gender is not a significant variable for curriculum fidelity of teachers working at upper school stages (Aslan & Erden, 2020; Boncuk, 2021; Burul, 2018). However, female students were found to have higher level of curriculum fidelity than the male ones, in a study conducted with pre-service teachers in the department of primary teaching (Yıldız, 2018). In fact, teachers' attitudes and beliefs about curriculum are considered being an important factor affecting curriculum fidelity of teachers (Burakgazi, 2019) and there is a significantly moderate relationship between curriculum design approaches and curriculum fidelity behaviors of teachers (Yıldız, 2018). Along with this, the female teachers have significantly more positive attitudes towards student-centered curriculum design approaches than male teachers (Karaman & Bakaç, 2017). Based on this, that female teachers have more positive attitudes and beliefs towards student-centered programs may have affected their program fidelity behavior to be higher than the male teachers. For this reason, it is important to change the teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the curriculum positively to ensure the applicability of the curriculum as designed (Dolapçioğlu, 2020).

Considering the educational level of primary teachers, it was concluded that teachers with bachelor's degree had significantly higher curriculum fidelity teachers with postgraduate degree. In the literature, Pehlivan and Taşkın (2020) concluded that as the education level of teachers increased, their fidelity to curriculum decreased, while Aslan and Erden (2020) and Boncuk (2021) concluded that teachers with a postgraduate degree working at different school stages have higher curriculum fidelity than teachers with a bachelor's degree. That the primary teachers with bachelor's degree showed significantly higher curriculum fidelity may result from their less autonomous behavior towards the teaching process. It is stated that teachers involved in the postgraduate education process, which aims to bring knowledge that did not exist before to the world of science, to produce new knowledge (Günay, 2018), can develop themselves more professionally thanks to the scientific studies and training they receive (Başar & Kösem, 2019; Turhan & Yaraş, 2013). From this point of view, teachers with postgraduate degree may try to experience the successful methods and practices they have observed in scientific studies along with the knowledge, experience and skills they have gained during their education process, which in the end lead to a decrease in their curriculum fidelity level.

It was concluded that there was no significant difference among the primary teachers' curriculum fidelity levels in terms of students' grade, the number of students in the classroom, the school setting, and the teachers' experience variables. Burul (2018) concluded that teachers' experience did not make a significant difference for teachers' curriculum fidelity level. Thierry, Vincent, and Norris (2020) concluded that professionally experienced teachers have higher curriculum fidelity. Likewise, in the study conducted by Aslan and Erden (2020), teachers'

experience and the school setting did not create a significant difference for teachers' curriculum fidelity level. This can be explained by the fact that the curriculum is prepared centrally and implemented in all regions of Turkey. In Turkey, curricula are developed from a single center and used jointly in all regions (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2014). Although the same curriculum is implemented in different regions and schools that do not have the same conditions, thanks to the feature of the being framework, teachers in any region of the country can adopt the programs under the terms and conditions of the schools. The feature of being a framework allows the objects, content and activities in the curriculum to be designed in a way that allows the teacher to take initiative in the implementation process (Akpınar, 2014). Therefore, the variables such as students' grade, the number of students in the classroom, the school setting, and the teachers' experience may not have a significant effect on the curriculum fidelity levels of the primary teachers because of framework feature of the curricula.

The views related to the function of the curriculum in the professional lives of the primary teachers pointed out that the teachers mostly benefited from the curriculum for directing the learning-teaching activities, working tactfully and notifying the aims and objectives of the school subject. The studies on curriculum fidelity highlighted that teachers follow certain parts of the programs more while ignoring the others because of environmental or personal factors (Buxton et al., 2015). This is in fact necessary for a variety of reasons related to the context of schools and cultures such as the time allocated to teaching, the language used, or the cultural elements to be presented in the classroom in the implementation process (Thierry et al., 2020) however, the aims and objects of the program, and the teaching activities should be considered as the sections that must be strictly implemented in terms of student success. Because when teachers do not fully understand the aims and objects of the course, they tend to apply instructional activities superficially (McNeill et al., 2017), which in the end leads undesirable results for students' success and learning. Therefore, teachers need to understand the aims and objects of the course, and the epistemological logic behind these in order to increase student success and the quality of teaching (Davis & Krajcik, 2005). Likewise, teachers' designing teaching activities by adhering to the curriculum makes it easier for students to comprehend the content of the subject area (Seraphin et al., 2017). Based on the related studies, it is clear that teachers' fidelity to the aims and objects of the course and the teaching activities contributes not only to the efficient implementation of the programs but also to students' learning and success. In addition, as the teachers mentioned, following a program also allows them to act planned in terms of instruction. As a matter of fact, one of the greatest benefits of curriculum is that the learners acquire the knowledge and skills within a plan and program instead of a random process (Akpınar, 2014). From this point of view, one advantage of instructing with a fidelity to curriculum is a planned and regular teaching.

The views related to the primary teachers' use of curriculum components showed that the teachers benefited the most from the learning aims and objectives, subsequently from the teaching and learning process, and the least from the evaluation component. The relevant literature points out that the teachers do not show fidelity to other components of the curriculum except from the content (Dikbayır & Bümen, 2016; Kara et al., 2017). However, this study reveals a completely different result in the context of primary teachers, showing that primary teachers frequently benefit from the curriculum's aims and objectives, content, and teaching-learning experiences. The teachers started with the learning aims and objects to help the students to gain them and they had the responsibility of recording the learning aims and

objects to classroom-notebooks, which may have led them to attach more importance to this component. As a matter of fact, the objectives and aims come at the beginning of all the components and directing the following parts of curriculum. The learning aims and objectives are the first and most important component of the curriculum as they determine the behaviors to be acquired by the students, the materials to be used, the content to be presented and the evaluation criteria to be used (Tyler, 2014). Due to such importance, teachers also stated that they benefited from the curriculum relatively more in the selection of methods, techniques and materials regarding how to achieve the gains. Primary teachers engage with students in the younger age group (7-10 years old) in the teaching process of curriculum. In this age period, these young students can think about the material and visible features of events and phenomena, thus they can only learn in familiar methods and environments (Slavin, 2012). Since teaching activities are built up considering the characteristics of the learners (Schunk, 2011), primary teachers need to be more attentive and use various teaching methods, techniques and materials (Ünsal, 2013). In this context, it is thought that primary teachers benefit from the learning-teaching processes of the curriculum in order to offer concrete experiences to the young learners for the achievement of the objectives and aims. Although teachers adhere strictly to the objectives and teaching activities, they focus less to the measurement and evaluation component of curriculum. Some other studies also mentioned that teachers tend to apply the measurement and evaluation less than the other components of the curriculum (Birgin & Baki, 2012; Kana, Aşçı, Kana, & Elkiran, 2018) as they know less about the measurement and evaluation part of the curriculum (Erdamar, 2020). Unfortunately, this reduces the applicability and function of this component in the end (Karagülle et al., 2019).

The views related to primary teachers' use of curriculums of various school subjects pointed out that teachers mostly benefit from the curricula of basic courses such as Mathematics, Turkish, Science, Life Sciences and Social Sciences. The reason of teachers' tendency to show fidelity to the curriculum of basic courses is that the achievements of basic school subjects such as Turkish, Mathematics, Social Sciences, and Science are used as criteria in the central examinations for placing students the upper level schools. In Turkey, central examinations are carried out in the transition to an upper institution after primary, secondary and high schools. The students are placed in certain schools or programs by ranking them based on their achievements and the scores on these exams (Büyüköztürk, 2016). Central exams are very important for students and parents in Turkey (Çetin & Ünsal, 2019) therefore, social and familial expectations are directed to the students to achieve high success. This situation causes pressure and stress on teachers, leading teachers design their teaching and assessment processes in line with central exams (Yılmaz & Bülbül, 2017), focusing on the parts of the curriculum where students will be successful in the exam, and neglecting other parts (Barnes, 2005). The fact that the teachers implement the curriculum of the two courses which are Religious Culture and Moral, and English Language Teaching at the minimum level is due to the fact that related field teachers taught the courses.

In conclusion, primary teachers stated to show high fidelity to curricula of various school subjects they teach in four-year basic education period. In addition, it was concluded that the primary teachers mostly applied to the curricula of the basic courses, and although they had the intention to benefit from the entire curriculum components equally, they mostly benefited from the aims and objectives and the least from the measurement-evaluation component. Finally, the primary teachers reported they benefited from the curricula in their professional

lives for directing the learning-teaching activities, working tactfully, and notifying the aims. Based on these results, the findings confirmed the primary teachers' benefiting from the curricula of school subjects. However, as we based this study on the teachers' self-statements, it is limited only to the opinions and thoughts of the primary teachers. In order to eliminate this limitation and to confirm these results with different measurement and evaluation methods, it would be beneficial to conduct a similar study with more objective data collection tools. In addition, the primary teachers benefiting from the measurement and evaluation component of curricula relatively at the minimum level highlighted their need for an in-service training about this component. Finally, some other studies can be conducted to explain the reasons for benefiting less from some school subjects' curricula.

References

- Abry, T., Rimm-Kaufman, S. E., Larsen, R. A., & Brewer, A. J. (2013). The influence of fidelity of implementation on teacher–student interaction quality in the context of a randomized controlled trial of the Responsive Classroom approach. *Journal of School Psychology, 51*(4), 437-453. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2013.03.001>
- Achinstein, B., & Ogawa, R. T. (2006). (In)fidelity: What the resistance of new teachers reveals about professional principles and prescriptive educational policies. *Harvard Educational Review, 76*(1), 30-63. <https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.76.1.e14543458r811864>
- Adams, A. S., Soumerai, S. B., Lomas, J., & Ross-Degnan, D. (1999). Evidence of self-report bias in assessing adherence to guidelines. *International Journal for Quality in Health Care, 11*, 187-192, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/intqhc/11.3.187>
- Akbulut, Y. (2010). *Sosyal bilimlerde SPSS uygulamaları*. İstanbul: İdeal Kültür Yayıncılık.
- Akpınar, B. (2014). *Eğitimde program geliştirme* (2. baskı). Ankara: Data Yayınları.
- Altman, D. G., & Bland J. M. (1995). *Statistics notes: The normal distribution*, BMJ 310, 298. Retrieved from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/29726236>
- Aslan, M., & Erden, R. Z. (2020). Ortaokul öğretmenlerinin öğretim programına bağlılıklarının incelenmesi. *Yüzüncü Yıl Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 17*(1), 175-199. <https://doi.org/10.33711/yyuefd.691525>
- Barnes, M. (2005). The discriminatory effects of high-stakes testing in Georgia: Exploring causes and solutions. *Education Law and Policy Forum*, Education Law Consortium, The University of Georgia, Athens. Retrieved from <http://www.educationlawconsortium.org/forum/2005/papers/barnes.pdf>
- Başar, M. A., & Kösem, S. S. (2019). Lisansüstü eğitimin mesleki yaşam ile iş ve yaşam doyumuna etkisi. *Akdeniz Eğitim Araştırmaları Dergisi, 13*(29), 383-399. <https://doi.org/10.29329/mjer.2019.210.20>
- Bay, E., Kahramanoğlu, R., Döş, B., & Özpolat, E. T. (2017). Programa bağlılığı etkileyen faktörlerin analizi. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 43*, 110-137. <https://doi.org/10.21764/efd.02208>
- Bell, H. (2015). The dead butler revisited: Grammatical accuracy and clarity in the English primary curriculum 2013–2014. *Language and Education, 29*(2), 140-152. <http://eb.ted.org.tr/index.php/EB/article/view/1055/41910.1080/09500782.2014.988717>
- Birgin, O., & Baki, A. (2012). Sınıf öğretmenlerinin ölçme-değerlendirme uygulama amaçlarının yeni matematik öğretimi programı kapsamında incelenmesi. *Eğitim ve Bilim, 37*(165), 152-167. <http://eb.ted.org.tr/index.php/EB/article/view/1055/419>
- Boncuk, A. (2021). Öğretmenlerin program okuryazarlık düzeylerinin, öğretim programına bağlılık düzeyleri üzerine etkisinin incelenmesi. *Anatolian Turk Education Journal, 3*(1), 88-108. <https://www.anadoluturkegitim.com/index.php/ated/article/view/33>
- Bümen, N. T., Çakar, E., & Yıldız, D. G. (2014). Curriculum fidelity and factors affecting fidelity in the Turkish context. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 14*(1), 219-228. <https://doi.org/10.12738/estp.2014.1.2020>
- Burakgazi, S. G. (2019). Programa bağlılık: Kara kutuyu aralamak. *Başkent University Journal of Education, 6*(2), 236-249. <http://buje.baskent.edu.tr/index.php/buje/article/view/189>

- Burul, C. (2018). *Öğretmenlerin eğitim programı tasarım yaklaşımı tercihlerinin öğretim programına bağlılıklarıyla olan ilişkisinin incelenmesi*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Balıkesir Üniversitesi, Balıkesir, Türkiye.
- Buxton, C. A., Allexsaht-Snider, M., Kayumova, S., Aghasaleh, R., Choi, Y. J., & Cohen, A. (2015). Teacher agency and professional learning: Rethinking fidelity of implementation as multiplicities of enactment. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 52(4), 489-502. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tea.21223>
- Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2016). Sınavlar üzerine düşünceler. *Kalem Eğitim ve İnsan Bilimleri Dergisi*, 6(2), 345-356.
- Century, J., Rudnick, M., & Freeman, C. (2010). A framework for measuring fidelity of implementation: A foundation for shared language and accumulation of knowledge. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 31, 1-17. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1098214010366173>
- Çobanoğlu, R., & Çapa-Aydin, Y. (2015). When early childhood teachers close the door: Self-reported fidelity to a mandated curriculum and teacher beliefs. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 33, 77-86. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecresq.2015.07.001>
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). Routledge Press.
- Çetin, A., & Ünsal, S. (2019). Social, psychological effects of central examinations on teachers and their reflections on teachers' curriculum implementations. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 34(2), 304-323. <https://doi.org/10.16986/HUJE.2018040672>
- Dattalo, P. (2010). *Strategies to approximate random sampling and assignment*. New York: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Davis, E. A., & Krajcik, J. (2005). Designing educative curriculum materials to promote teacher learning. *Educational Researcher*, 34(3), 3-14. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X034003003>
- Dikbayır, A., & Bümen, N. T. (2016). An investigation of ninth grade mathematics curriculum fidelity. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 6(11), 17-38. <http://www.ijocis.com/index.php/ijocis/article/view/166/130>
- Dolapcıoğlu, S. D. (2020). Öğretmenlerin program tasarım tercihleri felsefi inançları ve sınıf içi uygulamalarına yönelik karşılaştırmalı bir bakış. *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences*, 19(75), 1108-1121. <https://doi.org/10.17755/esosder.643313>
- Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D., & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions. *Child Development*, 82, 405-432. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2010.01564.x>
- Dusenbury, L., Brannigan, R., Falco, M., & Hansen, W. B. (2003). A review of research on fidelity of implementation: Implications for drug abuse prevention in school settings. *Health Education Research*, 18(2), 237-256. <https://doi.org/10.1093/her/18.2.237>
- Elliott, A. C., & Woodward, W. A. (2007). *Statistical analysis quick reference guidebook with SPSS examples*. London: Sage Publications.
- Erdamar, F. S. (2020). *Sınıf öğretmenlerinin program okuryazarlık algıları ve ilköğretim yöneticilerinin öğretmenlerin program okuryazarlık becerisine yönelik algılarının ilerlemeci felsefe bağlamında analizi*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Fırat Üniversitesi, Elazığ, Türkiye.
- Günay, D. (2018). Türkiye'de lisansüstü eğitim ve lisansüstü eğitime felsefi bir bakış. *Üniversite Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 1(2), 71-88. <https://doi.org/10.32329/uad.450965>

- Haataja, A., Voeten, M., Boulton, A. J., Ahtola, A., Poskiparta, E., & Salmivalli, C. (2014). The KiVa antibullying curriculum and outcome: Does fidelity matter? *Journal of school psychology, 52*(5), 479-493. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2014.07.001>
- Hall, G., & Hord, S. (2015). *Implementing change: Patterns, principles, and potholes* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Hondrich, A., Hertel, S., Adl-Aminik, K., & Klieme, E. (2016). Implementing curriculum embedded formative assessment in primary school science classrooms. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy, and Practice, 23*(3), 353-376. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0969594X.2015.1049113>
- Kana, F., Aşçı, E., Zorlu Kana, H., & Elkıran, Y. M. (2018). Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının eğitim programı okuryazarlık düzeyleri. *Akademik Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi, 8*(6), 233-245. <http://dx.doi.org/10.16992/ASOS.14202>
- Kara, K., Karakoç, B., Yıldırım, G., & Bay, E. (2017). Sekizinci sınıf matematik öğretiminde teori ve uygulama bağlamında program uyumluluğunun incelenmesi. *Harran Education Journal, 2*(1), 26-40. <https://doi.org/10.22596/2017.0201.26.40>
- Karagülle, S., Varki, E., & Hekimoğlu, E. (2019). An investigation of the concept of program literacy in the context of applicability and functionality of educational program. *Educational Reflections, 3*(2), 85-97. <http://dergipark.org.tr/eduref>
- Karaman, P., & Bakaç, E. (2018). Öğretmenlerin eğitim programı yaklaşımı tercihlerinin çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelenmesi. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 18*(1), 304-320. <https://doi.org/10.17240/aibuefd.2018.-364651>
- Keith, R. E., Hopp, F. P., Subramanian, U., Wiitala, W., & Lowery, J. C. (2010). Fidelity of implementation: Development and testing of a measure. *Implementation Science, 5*(99), 1-11. <https://link.springer.com/content/pdf/10.1186/1748-5908-5-99.pdf>
- Korum, U. (1985). *Matematiksel istatistiğe giriş*. Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi Siyasal Bilgiler Fakültesi Yayınları.
- Kramer, F. R. (1985). A overview of descriptive research. *Journal of the Association of Pediatric Oncology Nurses, 2*(2), 41-45. <https://doi.org/10.1177/104345428500200208>
- Lee, Y. J., & Chue, S. (2013). The value of fidelity of implementation criteria to evaluate schoolbased science curriculum innovations. *International Journal of Science Education, 35*(15), 2508-2537. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500693.2011.609189>
- Lee, O., Penfield, R., & Maerten-Rivera, J. (2009). Effects of fidelity of implementation on science achievement gains among English language learners. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 46*(7), 836-859. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tea.20335>
- McNeill, K. L., Katsh-Singer, R., Gonzalez-Howard, M., & Loper, S. (2016). Factors impacting teachers' argumentation instruction in their science classrooms. *International Journal of Science Education, 38*(12), 2026-2046. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500693.2016.1221547>
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publication.
- Ministry of National Education [MoNE]. (2018). *Öğretim programları*. Retrieved from <https://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/ProgramDetay.aspx?PID=325>
- Nevenglosky, E. A. (2018). *Barriers to effective curriculum implementation*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), Walden University, Minnesota, USA.
- O'Donnell, C. (2008). Defining, conceptualizing, and measuring fidelity of implementation and its relationship to outcomes in K-12 curriculum intervention research. *Review of Educational Research, 78*(1), 33-84. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654307313793>

- Ornstein, A. C., & Hunkins, F. P. (2014). *Eğitim programı, temeller, ilkeler ve sorunlar* (A. Arı, Çev. Ed.). Ankara: Eğitim Yayınevi.
- Özçelik, D. A. (2014). *Eğitim programları ve öğretim* (3. baskı). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Pallant, J. (2017). *SPSS Kullanma klavuzu: SPSS ile adım adım veri analizi* (S. Balcı ve B. Ahi, Çev.). Ankara Anı yayıncılık.
- Pandey, N. (2018). Barriers to effective curriculum implementation. *TechnoLearn: An International Journal of Educational Technology*, 8(2), 65-69. <https://www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?target=ijor:tlt&volume=8&issue=2&article=005>
- Pehlivan, M., & Taşkın, Ç. Ş. (2020). Sınıf öğretmenlerinin eğitim programı tasarım yaklaşımı tercihleri ve düşünme becerilerinin öğretiminde sınıf içi uygulamaları arasındaki ilişki. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi*, 49(225), 89-127. <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/milliegitim/issue/52526/690628>
- Polikoff, M. S., & Porter, A. C. (2014). Instructional alignment as a measure of teacher quality. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 36(4), 399-416. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0162373714531851>
- Schunk, D. H. (2011). *Öğrenme teorileri* [Learning Theories] (M. Şahin, Çev.). Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık.
- Seraphin, K. D., Harrison, G. M., Philippoff, J., Brandon, P. R., Nguyen, T. T. T., Lawton, B. E., & Vallin, L. M. (2017). Teaching aquatic science as inquiry through professional development: Teacher characteristics and student outcomes. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 54(9), 12191245. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tea.21403>
- Slavin, R. E. (2012). *Eğitim psikolojisi: Kuram ve uygulama* [Educational Psychology: Theory and Practice]. (G. Yüksel, Çev.Ed). Ankara: Nobel Akademi.
- Superfine, A.C., Marshall, A. M., & Kelso, C. (2015). Fidelity of implementation: Bringing written curriculum materials into the equation. *Curriculum Journal*, 26(1), 164-191. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585176.2014.990910>
- Tan, Ş. (2016). *SPSS ve Excel uygulamalı temel istatistik*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- The Research Advisors, (2006). Sample size spreadsheet. Retrieved from <https://www.research-advisors.com/tools/SampleSize.htm>
- Thierry, K. L., Vincent, R. L., & Norris, K. (2020): Teacher-level predictors of the fidelity of implementation of a social-emotional learning curriculum, *Early Education and Development*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10409289.2020.1849896>
- Turhan, M., & Yaraş, Z. (2013). Lisansüstü programların öğretmen, yönetici ve denetmenlerin mesleki gelişimine katkısı. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 12(43), 200-218. <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/esosder/issue/6157/82755>
- Tyler, R. W. (2014). *Eğitim programlarının ve öğretimin temel ilkeleri* (M. E. Rüzgar & B. Aslan, Çev.). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Ünsal, H. (2013). Yeni öğretim programlarının uygulanmasına ilişkin sınıf öğretmenlerinin görüşleri. *İlköğretim Online*, 12(3), 635-658. <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/90461>
- Vartuli, S., & Rohs, J. (2009). Assurance of outcome evaluation: Curriculum fidelity. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 23(4), 502-512. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02568540909594677>
- Weare, K., & Nind, M. (2011). Mental health promotion and problem prevention in schools: What does the evidence say? *Health Promotion International*, 26, 129-169. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/heapro/dar075>

- Wiersma, W. (1995). *Research methods in education: An introduction* (6th ed.). Allyn and Bacon- A Simon and Schuster Company.
- Wiles, J. W., & Bondi, J. C. (2014). *Curriculum development: A guide to practice* (9th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Yar-Yıldırım, V. (2020). Development of teachers' curriculum literacy scale: Validity and reliability study, *İnönü University Journal of the Faculty of Education*, 21(1), 208-224. <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2129-4189>
- Yaşaroğlu, C., & Manav, F. (2015). Öğretim programına bağlılık ölçeği: Geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması. *Uluslararası Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 2(4), 247-258. <http://hdl.handle.net/20.500.11787/1275>
- Yıldız, S. (2018). The relationship between the curriculum design orientations preference and curriculum fidelity of preservice teachers, *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 10(2), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.15345/iojes.2018.02.001>
- Yılmaz, S., & Bülbül, T. (2017). Merkezi sınavların okul kültürüne yansımalarının değerlendirilmesi [Evaluation of reflections of central exams on school culture]. *Trakya Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 7(2), 578-617. <https://doi.org/10.24315/trkefd.315491>



TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Sınıf Öğretmenlerinin Programa Bağlılıklarının İncelenmesi

Giriş

Eğitim programlarının etkililiğini belirlemede önemli bir etken de programa bağlılıktır. Programa bağlılık çalışmalarının kökeni E. M. Rogers'ın Yeniliklerin Yayılması kuramına dayanmaktadır (Dusenbury et al., 2003) ve o zamandan bu yana programa bağlılık, sağlık, eğitim ve hizmet alanlarındaki çalışmalar ile program değerlendirme çalışmalarında sıklıkla kullanılmaktadır (Vartuli & Rohs, 2009). Programa bağlılık, resmi ve uygulanan program arasındaki yakınlık (Lee & Chue, 2013) veya bir yeniliğin orijinal program tasarımına göre ne kadar iyi uygulandığının belirlenmesi (Lee et al., 2009) olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Öğretim programına bağlılık kavramı ise, tasarlanan programın programı uygulayan paydaşlar tarafından aslına sadık kalınarak uygulanması olarak ifade edilmektedir (Bümen et al., 2014).

Öğretim programları, öğrencilerin bilgilerini geliştirme ve akademik açıdan bir üst kademeye hazırlama sürecinde önemli bir araç görevi üstlenmektedir (Polikoff & Porter, 2014). Programın uygulama sürecinde etkin rol oynayan öğretmenin tasarlanan bir programı uygulama sürecindeki tutum ve davranışlarının bilinmesinin önemli olduğu belirtilmektedir (Hall & Hord, 2015). Buna göre bazı öğretmenlerin program uygulama sürecinde esnek davranabildiği ve tasarlanan programın belirli öğelerini öğretim sürecine dâhil ederken bir kısım öğeleri ise atlayabildiği belirtilmektedir. Tasarlanan öğretim programlarını amacına ve tasarımına uygun bir şekilde uygulamak öğretmenin temel görev ve sorumluluklarından biri olarak kabul edilmiştir (Nevenglosky, 2018). Öğretmenlerden tasarlanan programları aslına bağlı kalarak uygulamaları beklenmektedir. İlgili alanyazına bakıldığında öğretmenlerin programa bağlılığını inceleyen sınırlı sayıda çalışmanın yer aldığı ve ilkokullarda görev yapan sınıf öğretmenlerinin program bağlılığını doğrudan konu alan herhangi bir çalışmaya rastlanmadığı görülmektedir. Özellikle okuma ve yazma öğretiminin yanında birçok farklı branşa ait temel becerileri öğrencilere kazandırma görevi üstlenen sınıf öğretmenlerinin uyguladıkları programlara ilişkin bağlılıkları bu çalışma kapsamında ayrıntılı bir şekilde incelenmeye çalışılmıştır.

Yöntem

Sınıf öğretmenlerinin öğretim programlarına bağlılıklarının incelenmesinin amaçlandığı bu çalışma tarama modelinde yapılmıştır. Tarama, süregelen olayların doğasını tanımlamaya, karşılaştırma standartlarını belirlemeye veya belirli olaylar arasındaki ilişkileri saptamaya yönelik veri toplamaya odaklanan bir araştırma modelidir (Cohen, Manion, & Marrison, 2007) ve araştırmacıların, doğal bağlamlarında değişkenlerin, dağılımlarını ve ilişkilerini tanımlamalarını

sağlar (Wiersma, 1995). Araştırmanın evrenini, 2020-2021 Eğitim-Öğretim yılının 2. Döneminde Diyarbakır İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğüne Bağlı ilkokullarda görev yapan sınıf öğretmenleri oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmanın örneklemini 2020-2021 eğitim-öğretim yılının II. Döneminde Diyarbakır İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğüne Bağlı ilkokullarda görev yapan ve tesadüfi seçilmiş 274 kadın ve 242 erkek olmak üzere toplam 516 sınıf öğretmeni oluşturmaktadır. Veri toplama aracı olarak Öğretim Programına Bağlılık Ölçeği ve Açık Uçlu Anket Formu kullanılmıştır.

Araştırmada elde edilen veriler Jamovi paket programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Araştırmaya katılan öğretmenlerin kişisel bilgileri ile ilgili özelliklerinin yüzde ve frekansları hesaplanmıştır. Öğretmenlerin öğretim programına bağlılıklarının hangi düzeyde olduğunu belirlemek için aritmetik ortalama ve standart sapma değerleri hesaplanmıştır. Çalışmadaki diğer nicel analizler için parametrik testlerden yararlanılmıştır. Ayrıca açık uçlu anket aracılığıyla elde edilen verilerin analizinde ise betimsel istatistik değerleri hesaplanmıştır.

Bulgular

Araştırma kapsamında sınıf öğretmenlerinin öğretim programına bağlılıklarının yüksek düzeyde (kesinlikle katılıyorum) olduğu ve cinsiyet ile eğitim düzeyi değişkenlerine göre anlamlı farklılık gösterdiği belirlenmiştir. Sınıf öğretmenlerinin programa bağlılıkları üzerinde okutulan sınıf düzeyi, sınıftaki öğrenci sayısı, okulun bulunduğu yerleşim yeri ve öğretmenlerin mesleki kıdem değişkenlerinin anlamlı farklılık oluşturmadığı belirlenmiştir.

Sınıf öğretmenlerinin mesleki yaşamlarında öğretim programının işlevine ilişkin görüşleri incelendiğinde, öğretmenlerin öğretim programlarından öğrenme-öğretme etkinliklerine yön verme ($f=205$), planlı çalışma ($f=26$) ve hedeften haber etme ($f=14$) amacıyla faydalandıkları görülmektedir. Öğretmenler söz konusu program öğelerinden en fazla kazanımlardan yararlandıklarını belirtirken en az ise sinama durumlarından yararlandıklarını ifade etmişlerdir. Ayrıca sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklı disiplin alanlarına ilişkin ders öğretim programlarından daha çok temel derslerin programlarına başvurma ihtiyacı hissettikleri belirlenmiştir.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Sınıf öğretmenlerinin öğretim programına bağlılıklarının incelendiği bu çalışmada, elde edilen verilerin analizi sonucunda birden fazla disiplin alanına ait derslerin öğretim programını uygulama sorumluluğunu taşıyan sınıf öğretmenlerinin öğretim programına bağlılık düzeylerinin oldukça yüksek olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Bu durum, tek bir merkezden tasarlanan ve ülkenin her yerinde uygulamaya konulan ilkokul düzeyindeki öğretim programlarının tasarlandığı şekliyle uygulamaya konulduğunu göstermektedir (Vartuli & Rohs, 2009). Alanyazında sınıf öğretmenlerini temele alan bir programa bağlılık çalışmasına doğrudan rastlanmamakla birlikte ilkokulda görev yapan öğretmenlerin ki bunların büyük çoğunluğunu sınıf öğretmenleri oluşturmaktadır, diğer kademelerde görev yapan öğretmenlere nazaran programa bağlılıklarının daha yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir (Burul, 2018).

Sınıf öğretmenlerinin öğretim programına bağlılıklarına cinsiyet değişkeni açısından kadın öğretmenler lehine anlamlı fark oluşturduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. İlgili alanyazında diğer öğretim kademelerinde görev yapan öğretmenlerle yapılan çalışmalarda cinsiyetin programa bağlılık açısından anlamlı bir değişken olmadığına ilişkin sonuçlara rastlanılmıştır (Aslan & Erden, 2020; Boncuk, 2021; Burul, 2018).

Sınıf öğretmenlerinin eğitim durumları ele alındığında lisans mezunu öğretmenlerin lisansüstü eğitime sahip öğretmenlerden anlamlı bir şekilde daha yüksek programa bağlılık gösterdikleri sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Alanyazında Pehlivan ve Taşkın (2020) öğretmenlerin eğitim düzeyleri arttıkça programa bağlılıklarının azaldığı sonucuna ulaşırken Aslan ve Erden (2020) ile Boncuk (2021) çalışmasında farklı öğretim kademelerinde görev yapan lisansüstü eğitim mezunu öğretmenlerin lisans mezunu öğretmenlere nazaran daha yüksek programa bağlılık düzeyine sahip olduğu sonucuna ulaşmıştır.

Sınıf öğretmenlerinin okutulan sınıf, sınıftaki öğrenci sayısı, okulun bulunduğu yerleşim yeri ile öğretmenlerin mesleki kıdem değişkenlerine göre öğretim programına bağlılık düzeyleri arasında anlamlı fark olmadığı sonuçlarına ulaşılmıştır. Burul (2018) da çalışmasında farklı öğretim kademelerinde görev yapan öğretmenlerin programa bağlılık düzeylerinin mesleki kıdem değişkeni açısından anlamlı farklılık oluşturmadığı sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Thierry, Vincent ve Norris (2020) mesleki açıdan deneyimli öğretmenlerin programa bağlılık düzeylerinin daha yüksek olduğu sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Aynı şekilde Aslan ve Erden'in, (2020) gerçekleştirdikleri çalışmada da ortaokul öğretmenlerinin öğretim programına bağlılıklarının mesleki deneyim ve görev yapılan yerleşim yeri değişkenlere göre farklılık göstermediği sonucuna ulaşmıştır.


Sınıf öğretmenlerinin mesleki yaşamlarında öğretim programının işlevine ilişkin görüşleri incelendiğinde, öğretmenlerin öğretim programlarından en fazla öğrenme-öğretme etkinliklerine yön verme, planlı çalışma ve kazanımlardan haberdar etme amacıyla faydalandıkları belirlenmiştir. Programa bağlılığa ilişkin yapılan çalışmalarda çevresel veya kişisel faktörlerden ötürü öğretmenlerin programların belirli bölümlerini daha fazla uyma eğilimi gösterirken belirli bölümlerini göz ardı etme davranışlarında bulundukları ifade edilmektedir (Buxton et al., 2015).

Sınıf öğretmenlerinin öğretim programının öğelerinden yararlanma durumlarına ilişkin görüşlerine bakıldığında öğretmenlerin programın öğelerinden en çok kazanımlar daha sonra eğitim durumları, en az ise sınama durumu öğesinden yararlandıklarını belirtmişlerdir. İlgili alanyazında öğretmenlerin öğretim programında içerik haricinde diğer öğelere bağlılık göstermedikleri belirtilmektedir (Dikbayır & Bümen, 2016; Kara et al., 2017). Ancak söz konusu çalışma sınıf öğretmenleri bağlamında tamamen farklı bir sonuç ortaya koyarak sınıf öğretmenlerinin programın kazanımlar, içerik ve eğitim durumları öğelerinden sıklıkla yararlandıklarını göstermektedir.

Sınıf öğretmenlerinin farklı disiplin alanlarına ilişkin ders öğretim programlarından yararlanmalarına ilişkin görüşleri incelendiğinde, öğretmenlerin daha çok Matematik, Türkçe, Fen Bilimleri, Hayat Bilgisi ve Sosyal Bilgiler gibi temel derslerin öğretim programlarından daha çok yararlandıkları görülmektedir. Öğretmenlerin temel derslerin öğretim programlarına daha çok başvurma ihtiyacı hissetmeleri diğer üst öğretim kademelerine öğrenci yerleştirme amacıyla yapılan sınavlarda Türkçe, Matematik, Sosyal Bilgiler, Fen Bilimleri gibi temel derslerin kazanımlarının ölçüt olarak kullanılmasından kaynaklandığı düşünülmektedir.

A Responsive Approach to Curricular Needs of Turkish Educational System: Curriculum Based on Reason, Values and Culture

Muhammed Akıncı, Recep Tayyip Erdoğan University, muhammed.akinci@erdogan.edu.tr,

 0000-0002-5001-2080

Abdulkadir Kurt, Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen University, akurt@agri.edu.tr,  0000-0002-4557-1179

Keywords

Curricular needs
Curriculum problems
Curriculum approach
Responsive approach

Article Info:

Received : 24-12-2021

Accepted : 06-06-2022

Published : 18-06-2022

DOI: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.010

Abstract

The purpose of this research is to identify problems with formal curricula at different levels of education in Türkiye and to present an approach that offers solutions in line with these problems. In accordance with this purpose, document analysis design within the framework of systematic review was used in the research. In this context, the curriculum evaluation studies carried out between the years 2012-2021 were examined by using content analysis. In addition, the commonplaces of different curriculum approaches from various sources have been revealed. Curriculum evaluation studies conducted in Türkiye show that the curricula have various problems in terms of commonplaces such as teacher, learner, subject matter, context, and curriculum making. Moreover, in these studies it has been suggested that comprehensive updates be made in the curricula to solve the identified problems. Based on these findings, a curriculum approach has been proposed, which is believed to contribute to the solution of the curriculum problems. *The Reason, Values, and Culture-Based Approach* is a responsive approach that aims to train individuals who attach importance to mental and cultural values. In addition to the solution proposals in the approach put forward, various suggestions were presented to the institutions responsible for the curriculum development process in Türkiye and to researchers who will study corresponding issues.

To cite this article: Akıncı, M., & Kurt, A. (2022). A responsive approach to curricular needs of Turkish educational system: Curriculum based on reason, value and culture. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 12(1), 215-246. doi: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.010

Introduction

Curriculum as a field of study is crucial to the health of schools and society. So, there is no denying that curriculum affects educators, students, and other members of society (Ornstein and Hunkins, 2018). Especially, curriculum is a powerful lever for changing student performance and well-being, and for preparing students to thrive in and shape the future. It can help to

ensure consistent levels of quality across types of education provision and age groups, contributing to a more equitable system. It can also guide and support teachers, facilitate communication between teachers and parents, and ensure continuity across different levels of education (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2020).

A number of different approaches have been developed for curriculum design and learning progression for changing societies so far. These approaches have ensured that their curriculum is linear and based on standardized progression (OECD, 2020). Curriculum approaches can be viewed from a technical or nontechnical perspective. Technical approaches (behavioral, managerial and systems approach) coincide with traditional theories and models of education and reflect established, formal methods of schooling. Nontechnical approaches (academic, humanistic, and postmodern approach) have evolved as part of avant-garde and experimental philosophies and politics. So, an approach to curriculum reflects its perceptions, values, and knowledge (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2018). Curriculum development approaches, influence of which has been felt in different countries and/or contexts until today, and the basic ideas and beliefs underlying them are explained below under the principles they have adopted.

The behavioral curriculum approach is the oldest and still referenced approach to curriculum making. It includes paradigms or models as well as incremental and detailed strategies for formulating the curriculum. This approach is often supported by a plan considering the identified curriculum goals and objectives, identifies objectives and contents and learning outcomes through sequential and structured activities, methodologies, and relevant criteria and assessment forms (Standridge, 2002). *Managerial curriculum approach* considers the school as a social system in which students, teachers, curriculum specialists and administrators interact. Educators who rely on this approach plan the curriculum in terms of programs, schedules, space, resources, equipment and personnel. This approach advocates selecting, organizing, communicating with and supervising people involved in curriculum decisions. It tends to focus on curriculum's supervisory and administrative aspects (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2018). In the *systems curriculum approach* to curriculum, the parts of the school or school district are handled in terms of their interrelatedness. Departments, personnel, equipment, and schedules are planned to change people's behavior. Information is usually conveyed to administrators who then consider choices (Joyce, Weil & Showers, 2004). *The academic curriculum approach* tries to analyze and synthesize the main positions, trends and concepts of the curriculum. It tends to be based on historical and philosophical curriculum developments and, to a lesser extent, on social conditions. This approach is related to broad areas of schooling, including educational studies. It is generally scholastic and theoretical, therefore it is also called traditional, encyclopedic, synoptic, intellectual or knowledge-oriented approach. The academic approach to the curriculum deals with much more than subject matter and pedagogy (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2018). *Humanistic curriculum approach* considers the whole child, not only the cognitive dimension. The arts, the humanities and health education are just as important as science and math. This approach tends to put faith in cooperative learning, independent learning, small group learning and social activities as opposed to competitive, teacher-dominated, large group learning. The students' self-concept, self-esteem, and personal identity are essential factors in learning, which involves social and moral, not just cognitive aspects (Goleman & Senge, 2014). *Postmodern curriculum approach* considers curricula's interactions with political, economic, social, moral and artistic forces. The school is seen as an extension of society and students as capable of changing society. The current curricula are seen as overly controlling and designed to preserve the existing social order and its equalities by postmodern approach.

In the other words different curriculum approaches (liberal, systematic, existentialist, radical and pragmatic) were also presented by Null (2017). The target in *liberal curriculum approach* is not universal education, but the implementation of a curriculum is suitable for every type of soul. With the rise of democracy, the new concern in education has been the idea of equal education for all. Thus, the idea that liberal education should only be for a certain part of the society has come to an end (Levine, 2007). *Systematic curriculum approach* is believed that only a single type of research and the purpose of this research should produce the theoretical knowledge that controls the implementation of the curriculum (Frase, Fenwick, & William, 1995). In the countries where this curriculum approach is discussed, especially businessmen have attributed a remarkable importance to education, and they have taken a serious role in the negotiations on the education policy about the curriculum. As a result, it has become inevitable to establish a relationship between the business world and educators (Kendall, 2011). *Existentialist curriculum approach* argues that young people will never be fully successful unless they choose their own work for themselves. In this regard, it is claimed that personal preference is the supreme case. It is stated that the curriculum is individual and not a social formation (Greene, 1988). According to existentialists such as Eisner (1994), the curriculum is handled in a different way. They emphasize that individual differences of teachers and curriculum makers should be considered, rather than putting all students through the same experience. So, the end of education is personal growth, self-actualization. Defendants of the *radical curriculum approach* see their work as inherently political, opposing the systematic and existentialist curriculum approach seriously. While systematic curriculum makers present their curriculum views in an impartial, objective, and non-political manner; radicals embrace the political nature of the curriculum (Apple, 1990). Embracing the rejection of neutrality and the acceptance of political defense stands out as the most important feature that distinguishes radical curriculum makers from those who advocate other traditions (Null, 2017). The radical curriculum approach aims to raise a generation that will follow it. Therefore, this passion enables radicals to achieve great success against inequality (Van den Akker, 2006). *Pragmatic curriculum approach* is believed to focus on individual and societal needs and want their ideas to produce results. The pragmatic curriculum approach is the most challenging of these approaches because it defies a clear classification (Null, 2017). The general purpose of the pragmatic perspective is to stay away from definitive answers and want the proposed solutions to be workable regardless of how the curriculum changes (Martin, 2002). The pragmatic curriculum covers topics based on too many assumptions with different consequences. Pragmatic curriculum philosophy consists of a combination of achievements such as influencing change, making a difference in students' lives, producing experimental results, or working to make them work (Dewey, 1991).

In this respect, as Varış (1998) and Kısakürek (1969) emphasized, curricula play a mediating role and guide the studies on learning and teaching activities from the behavior standards of trainees or learners. The transformation of the basic policies of national education into practice is carried out through training programs. Accordingly, the curriculum acts as a bridge in the spread and realization of the national education policy, which is based on the development of the Turkish Nation in unity and integrity, to the farthest corner of the country. Curriculum also functions as a tool applied to improve human behavior in a way that ensures effectiveness in the social, political, moral, cultural, and economic order. A curriculum must be developed in a systematic, coordinated, and scientific manner to fulfill these functions fully. Considering that curriculum development is a collective process of designing learning experiences for learners through a set of coordinated activities that also enable the curriculum to change and improve the curriculum effectively, it is necessary to constantly review and update curricula (Marsh & Willis, 2007; Wiles & Bondi, 1993). This also requires the evaluation of the related curricula

being implemented in terms of whether they are suitable for the needs and expectations of the society, the interests, needs and characteristics of the individuals, the developments in science and technology, and the changes and developments in the subject area. Accordingly, curricula should not only be developed in a systematic, coordinated, and scientific manner, but also should be evaluated effectively and continuously (Özdemir, 2009).

One of the main issues that occupy the field of curriculum and instruction has been the determination of the approaches to be followed in the development of curriculum, and in this context, various curriculum development models have come to the fore. One of the important issues discussed after the Republic regarding the curriculum in Türkiye has been the implementation of curriculum development studies within the framework of a model (Yıldırım, 1994). With the proclamation of the Republic, it is seen that the focus is on curriculum development studies in order to give direction to education in Türkiye. With the Law of Unification of Education, which was accepted in 1924, religious education-oriented programs were replaced by curricula organized in line with the secular world view (Aslan, 2010). Especially, Religion Education and Morality courses in formal curriculum in primary schools have been compulsory in the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grades in Türkiye since 1982. However, the curriculum of the Religion Education and Morality course in primary schools underwent a partial change in 1992. The developments in science and technology, the increase in communication opportunities, the increase in the pedagogical awareness of teachers necessitated the questioning and development of the religious education course curriculum (Aydın, 2005). It is seen that the curricula developed in 1924, 1926, 1936, 1948, 1968, 1982, 1995 and 2005 during the Republican period left their mark and gained an important position in the history of curriculum development with their various features. In Türkiye, the most comprehensive program study after 2005 was carried out in 2017. While a subject-centered approach was adopted in the 1924 Curriculum, which was seen as an extension of the traditional education approach that was dominant in the Ottoman Empire, more progressive education philosophy was emphasized in the 1926 Education Program, which was put into practice two years later (Aktan, 2018). Among the remarkable features of the 1936 curriculum are the strengthening of the connections between the first and second level courses in the curriculum development process (Aktan, 2018) and the fact that the education-teaching principles were clearly listed in the curriculum for the first time, unlike previous curricula (Arslan, 2000). On the 1948 Primary School Curriculum, it was stated that there was a report of the application of a new teaching method (project method) without changing the basis of the program. In the VII. National Education Council convened in 1962, *"it was decided that the curricula should be developed taking into account the realities and needs of the day, a trial program to be prepared and implemented should be tested and evaluated in various regions for two years, and the trial program should be developed and implemented throughout the country"* (Demirel, 1992, p. 28). The developed draft of the program was examined and sent to the Board of Education with the necessary changes and suggestions, and it started to be implemented in the 1968-1969 academic year. In 1982, the Ministry of National Education created a new curriculum model in cooperation with scientists in universities in order to create a curriculum development model and to ensure that all the curricula to be prepared and developed in the future would be carried out in accordance with this model. Accordingly, the curriculum development studies in the 1980s and 90s were carried out in this direction, and the evaluation studies were mostly in the form of evaluation of trial programs. In this context, the curricula developed in these years were implemented with minor changes until the 2000s. It can be said that comprehensive, systematic and continuous curriculum evaluation studies were not carried out much (Özdemir, 2009). Since 2003, the Ministry of National Education has

started to work initially on the renewal of primary education curricula. In a sense, the Ministry of National Education named these studies reforms. In the curriculum development studies carried out with the influence of Türkiye's candidacy to the European Union in 2004, it was aimed to develop the curricula of the courses in the light of principles and processes based on constructivist philosophy by completely moving away from the behaviorist approach. However, although the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) did not carry out these studies systematically based on curriculum evaluation approaches and processes in schools, it explained the necessity of changing existing curricula for various reasons. These reasons were especially based on these following issues (MoNE, 2005, p. 3):

- Education and qualified manpower are becoming more and more important.
- Education is one of the most effective means of political, social, and cultural integration.
- Science and technology are constantly developing.
- Significant movements are observed in the demographic structure, the quality of the family, the social texture, the understanding of consumption, and human rights.
- Lifelong learning is prominent all over the world.
- In line with national and international indicators, the international validity and acceptability of the quality of education is questionable.

For these reasons, it was emphasized that the curricula should be reconsidered starting from primary education. It has also been revealed by the findings of many quantitative and qualitative studies on this subject that this situation has affected many problems since the implementation of the different curricula especially in learning-teaching processes and evaluation situations in Türkiye. The most comprehensive curriculum study was carried out in 2017 after 2005. MoNE (2017) stated that the density of academic knowledge was high in previous curricula and regarded the instructions in these curricula as obstacles. In this context, it is striking that in the curricula renewed in 2017, more importance is attributed to basic competence and skill training and values education. Some core values such as honesty, self-control, patience, respect, love, responsibility, patriotism and helpfulness are embedded in all curricula. Moreover, nine competence areas were added, namely communication in mother tongue, communication in foreign languages, mathematics proficiency, science-technology proficiency, digital competence, learning to learn, initiative-taking-entrepreneurship perception, social-public competencies, and cultural difference-expression (Çobanoğlu & Yıldırım, 2021). When Ministry of National Education announced these curricula (2017), it was criticized that the model on which the curriculum was based was unclear, the competencies of the people participating in the program studies were not shared with the public, and it was not clear how the skills were associated with the courses (Eğitim Reformu Girişimi [ERG], 2017).

However, within the framework of global development, the definition of curriculum aims to be inclusive, multilayered, dynamic, holistic, and multidirectional (OECD, 2020). Also, all subjects including literature, art, music, dance, and vocational education serve as means to end, expand the learner's understanding of culture, and enhance the learner's sensitivities and appreciation of the norms and values of society. In this context, responsive evaluation offers a perspective in which evaluation is reframed from the assessment of program interventions on the basis of policy makers' goals to an engagement with and among all stakeholders about the value and meaning of their practice. In a responsive approach to evaluation, a program is not considered as a means to a predefined end but rather a practice that has different, sometimes conflicting, meanings for various participants and stakeholders (Abma, 2006). To acknowledge this ambiguity, criteria for the evaluation are derived from the set of issues of various stakeholders and gradually emerge in conversation with stakeholders. Participation in a

responsive evaluation is not considered as a means to empowerment and transformation (Mertens, 2002) but is instead of intrinsic importance. Relationships and dialogue are intrinsically important because a responsive evaluation aims to facilitate the development of good (in a moral sense) practice.

Education and curriculum problems have been frequently mentioned in different studies conducted in Türkiye in recent years (Akyol, Yılmaz, Çavuş, & Aksoy, 2018; Bümen, 2019; Çetin, İbrahim, Aydın, & Yazıcı, 2018; Şener, 2018). In such studies, only the opinions and thoughts of different stakeholders about the quality of the relevant curriculum were consulted. The opinions of different stakeholders of a curriculum are of course valuable in terms of revealing the failing aspects. However, especially when it comes to identifying the failing aspects of a curriculum, curriculum evaluation might be the most effective way of doing this. Therefore, curriculum evaluation, by definition, means revealing the effectiveness and efficiency of a curriculum developed using scientific processes and making a decision about it in the light of these findings (Fitzpatrick, Sanders, & Worthen, 2011; Mertens, & Wilson, 2019; Stufflebeam, & Coryn, 2014; Uşun, 2012; Yüksel, & Sağlam, 2014). In this context, it is important to consider current curriculum evaluation studies at different levels to identify current curriculum problems in Türkiye.

Purpose of the Study

The aim of this research is to identify current curriculum problems in Türkiye and to present an approach that offers solutions in line with these problems. While doing this, benefiting from the strengths of the currently adopted curriculum approaches is among the aims of the study. In this context, the following questions were tried to be answered:

1. What are the current curriculum problems in relation with the curriculum evaluation studies conducted in Türkiye in the last ten years?
2. What kind of decisions have been suggested in the relevant evaluation studies for the solution of these curriculum problems?
3. What are the commonplaces of different curriculum approaches that might be useful in solving these problems?
4. What kind of curriculum approach should be adopted to solve current curriculum problems in Türkiye?

The study is important in terms of revealing the current curriculum problems identified in different curriculum evaluation studies, specifying the most common ones, and presenting suggestions on how an approach might be adopted to solve these problems, albeit in theory, by using the strengths of different curriculum approaches.

Method

Research Design

A systematic review method was used in order to determine and evaluate the problems revealed by the curriculum evaluation studies, the decisions made regarding these problems, and the different curriculum approaches adopted in this research. Green and Higgins (2008) adopted a definition of a systematic review as an attempt to gather all empirical evidence that answers a particular eligibility criterion to answer a research question. The studies were handled within the framework of document analysis and the data was obtained by examining existing records and documents. Document analysis includes the processes of finding, reading, taking notes and evaluating resources for a specific purpose (Karasar, 2005). In other words, document

analysis is a series of processes that take place in the process of examining and evaluating printed and electronic (computer-based and internet-enabled) materials (Bowen, 2009). This process is also defined as the reviewing of written information materials about the phenomenon or phenomena that are aimed to be investigated (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). It is also the collection, systematic examination and evaluation of official or private records (Ekiz, 2015). Also, curriculum, course contents, the effectiveness of a given education and educational practices can be investigated by document analysis method in the field of education (O'Leary, 2017). The detailed explanations on the process of document analysis are presented in the headings below:

Data Collection and Analysis

In the research, documents were used in the data gathering processes. Documents are among the main data sources, especially for qualitative research (Creswell, 2012). In this context, the curriculum evaluation studies carried out between the years 2012-2021 were examined. Various criteria were considered in the selection of these studies. For this reason, the sampling method used in the selection of the studies examined could be considered criterion sampling. In criterion sampling, it is necessary to comply with a set of predetermined criteria in the selection of the sample (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). The criteria used in the selection of the curriculum evaluation studies examined in the research are as follows:

- Studies carried out in the 10-year period between 2012 and 2021 were examined.
- Only studies using any curriculum evaluation model were included in the review.
- Only studies evaluating formal curricula at different levels of education were included in the review.

Considering the above criteria, a total of 52 studies, including 19 articles, 18 master's theses, and 15 PhD dissertations, accessed from national and international databases in the Database Access and Statistics System (Vetis) and the National Thesis Center database were included in the research. Related studies were subjected to content analysis using the Nvivo 10 application. Content analysis refers to the coding and thematicization of data in terms of various features within certain themes in the qualitative data analysis process (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). In this direction, the results and suggestions related to the curriculum problems identified in the studies examined were themed under coded education levels. In addition, the commonplaces of different curriculum approaches from various sources have been revealed and the strengths of these approaches, which are thought to contribute to the solution of curriculum problems, were emphasized.

Findings

Current Curriculum Problems Related to the Curriculum Evaluation Studies Conducted in the Last Ten Years

Table 1 includes descriptive statistics regarding the curriculum problems revealed in the curriculum evaluation studies at different levels conducted in Türkiye between 2012 and 2021.

Table 1 shows that the most basic curriculum problems in the primary education level in Türkiye are related to the inadequacy of physical conditions, materials and equipment, and course time, the inability to reach the goals of the curriculum adequately, the understanding of exam-oriented measurement and evaluation, and the neglect of socioeconomic characteristics in curriculum development. In addition to similar problems in high schools, attention has been drawn to additional problems such as not preparing textbooks in

accordance with the curriculum, limitations in teaching methods and techniques used, problems of teachers' quality and teacher-centered understanding, and low readiness levels of students. At the university level, the main curriculum problems are especially the problem of curricula not responding to needs, which is also the focus of this study, lack of academician qualifications, the duration of the courses, the insufficient content and physical opportunities, the low level of readiness of the students, the employment problem of the graduates, and the differences in applications among universities.

Considering the curriculum problems in Türkiye as a whole, from pre-school to higher education, inadequacies physical conditions, materials, and equipment, the inability to reach the objectives of the curriculum adequately, the low level of readiness of the students, the lack of course time, the understanding of examination-oriented measurement and evaluation, and the inability of the curricula to meet the needs are the most basic curriculum problems.

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics on Curriculum Problems at Different Levels in Türkiye*

Levels	Primary Education			High School			University		
	Codes	f	%	Codes	f	%	Codes	f	%
Curriculum Problems	-Inadequacies in physical conditions	12	12.24%	-Curricula failing to reach objectives sufficiently	4	14.29%	-Curricula not responding to needs	6	13.33%
	-Insufficient materials and equipment	12	12.24%	-Inadequacies in physical conditions	3	10.71%	-Lack of academician qualifications	6	13.33%
	-Insufficient lesson times	7	7.14%	-Not preparing the textbooks in accordance with the curriculum understanding	3	10.71%	-Insufficient content variety	4	8.89%
	-Curricula failing to reach objectives sufficiently	7	7.14%	-Lack of diversification of teaching methods and techniques	3	10.71%	-Lack of readiness of students	4	8.89%
	-Exam-oriented measurement and evaluation	6	6.12%	-Teacher-centered approach	2	7.14%	-Inadequacies in physical conditions	3	6.67%
	-Not considering socio-economic differences in curriculum development	6	6.12%	-Lack of readiness of students	2	7.14%	-Graduate unemployment problem	3	6.67%
	-Rote teaching and learning approach	5	5.10%	-The problem of teachers' adaptation to the curriculum	2	7.14%	-Application differences among universities in curricula	3	6.67%
	-Lack of readiness of students	5	5.10%	-Exam-oriented measurement and evaluation	2	7.14%	-Inadequate lesson times	2	4.44%
	-Number of courses and content intensity	5	5.10%	-Lack of teacher qualifications	2	7.14%	-Rote teaching and learning approach	2	4.44%
	-Not considering individual differences in curriculum development	4	4.08%	-Curricula not responding to needs	1	3.57%	-Lack of diversification of teaching methods and techniques	2	4.44%
	-The problem of teachers' adaptation to the curriculum	4	4.08%	-Incompatibility of objectives and teaching activities	1	3.57%	-Lack of practical training	2	4.44%
	-Not preparing the textbooks in accordance with the curriculum understanding	3	3.06%	-Insufficient materials and equipment	1	3.57%	-Exam-oriented measurement and evaluation	2	4.44%
	-Lack of diversification of teaching methods and techniques	3	3.06%	-Inadequate lesson times	1	3.57%	-Insufficient materials and equipment	1	2.22%
	-Teacher-centered approach	3	3.06%	-Incompatibility of joint programs with different types of schools	1	3.57%	-Lack of extracurricular activities	1	2.22%
	-Lack of teacher qualifications	3	3.06%				-Teacher-centered approach	1	2.22%
	-Incompatibility of joint programs with different types of schools	3	3.06%				-Lack of vocational training	1	2.22%
	-Curricula not responding to needs	2	2.04%				-Not considering individual differences in curriculum development	1	2.22%
	-Lack of extracurricular activities	2	2.04%				-Lack of university autonomy	1	2.22%
	-Lack of teacher autonomy	2	2.04%						
	-Inadequate curriculum evaluation	2	2.04%						
	-Insufficient guidance and counseling service	2	2.04%						
	Total	98	100%	Total	28	100%	Total	45	100%

Suggested Decisions About the Curricula with reference to the Curriculum Evaluation Studies Conducted in the Last Ten Years

Based on the curriculum problems revealed, various suggestions were presented for the decisions to be taken about the curricula at different levels in the studies examined. Descriptive statistics regarding these recommendations are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. *Descriptive Statistics on Decisions to be Taken About Curricula at Different Levels*

Levels	Primary Education			High School		
	Codes	f	%	Codes	f	%
Suggestions	Partial updates should be made in the curriculum	9	33.33%	Extensive updates should be made in the curriculum	4	44.44%
	Extensive updates should be made in the curriculum	8	29.63%	Partial updates should be made in the curriculum	4	44.44%
	The curriculum should be redeveloped	5	18.52%	The curriculum should be redeveloped	1	11.11%
	No suggestions were made for curriculum development	5	18.52%			
	Total	27	100%	Total	9	100%
Levels	University			COMBINED		
	Codes	f	%	Codes	f	%
Suggestions	Extensive updates should be made in the curriculum	6	37.50%	Extensive updates should be made in the curriculum	18	34.62%
	Partial updates should be made in the curriculum	4	25.00%	Partial updates should be made in the curriculum	17	32.69%
	The curriculum should be redeveloped	3	18.75%	The curriculum should be redeveloped	9	17.31%
	No suggestions were made for curriculum development	3	18.75%	No suggestions were made for curriculum development	8	15.38%
	Total	16	100%	Total	52	100%

When Table 2 is examined, the most basic step recommended being taken in studies evaluating primary education curricula between 2012 and 2021 is to make partial updates in the relevant curricula. In addition, it was emphasized that high school and university curricula needed comprehensive updates. When all the suggestions are considered as a whole, it is observed that comprehensive updates are needed. However, in 15.38% of the studies examined, there is no recommendation for the decisions to be taken about any curriculum.

Commonplaces of Different Curriculum Approaches

Commonplace is the term used by Schwab to address the basic elements of the curriculum that contains the concepts of the learner, the teacher, the milieu, and the subject matter (Schwab, 1973). Later, these commonplaces were increased to five by Null and they were handled as teachers, learners, subject matter, context, and curriculum making (Null, 2011). The *milieu* expression in Null's commonplaces has later been changed to *context*. On the other hand, curriculum making includes three dimensions that are practice, purpose, and integration (Null, 2011). In this context, the curriculum understandings of different curriculum approaches were examined in the context of Schwab and Null's *commonplace* concept from the studies that provide clear statements about these commonplaces. Table 3 shows the commonplaces of different curriculum approaches.

Table 3. *Commonplaces of Curriculum Approaches**

<i>Curriculum Approach</i>	<i>Teacher Commonplace</i>	<i>Learner Commonplace</i>	<i>Subject Area Commonplace</i>	<i>Context Commonplace</i>	<i>Curriculum Making Commonplace</i>
Behaviorist Curriculum	Teacher is the main implementer of the curriculum and is the person who monitors the students and gives immediate feedback, accompanied by direct instruction, exercises and practices.	Student is a passive person who receives information until she/he achieves success towards certain goals.	It focuses on functional and effective school management based on scientific management theories, influenced by industry.	The context is the inputs and outputs within the school itself. In particular, the objectives are the factors that must be achieved.	It adopts a goal-oriented curriculum development process and emphasizes that schools should adopt a region-oriented approach based on the needs of that region in the curriculum development process.
Liberal Curriculum	Teacher is a person who receives any formal or informal curriculum and offers it to students.	It is crucial who they are and what their interests, backgrounds, levels are. How they are motivated and how they react to different and new ideas is taken into consideration.	The subject area is also called the content. While content is a subject that curriculum makers should pay particular attention to, it is included in all five factors mentioned.	It refers to the fiction in which the curriculum is taught. Although it shows similarities with the student dimension, it points to a wider society rather than the students in the school.	Curriculum development processes are thought to hold other commonplaces together. It is argued that without curriculum development processes, the other four commonplaces will remain intangible.
Systematic Curriculum	Teacher is the implementer of the curriculum that focuses on the needs of the students.	Interests and abilities are important in bureaucratic systems, and they are considered as customers in free market systems.	It is based on actions and experiences obtained as a result of research in bureaucratic systems, but it is based on random research in free market systems.	In bureaucratic and free market systems, the context is all institutions in which any curriculum-related problem is attempted to be resolved.	Curriculum development processes are based on experience, expert knowledge, or curriculum standards.
Existentialist Curriculum	Teacher is the person who gives suggestions to the students about the subjects they might want to learn.	The student is the core element of existential curricula. A good curriculum should refine the psychology of students.	The subject area is in the background of the curriculum. The best subject area is to study life itself.	The belief that focusing on the needs of the students will lead to the formation of a good curriculum is dominant.	It argues that curriculum development should be done with an individualistic approach. Life is a big curriculum development process.

Table 3. (Cont.)

<i>Curriculum Approach</i>	<i>Teacher Commonplace</i>	<i>Learner Commonplace</i>	<i>Subject Area Commonplace</i>	<i>Context Commonplace</i>	<i>Curriculum Making Commonplace</i>
Radical Curriculum	Teacher is the most crucial factor of the curriculum. No society can be formed without the active participation of teachers.	The student is the raw material for radical education to be used to rebuild society.	Emphasis is placed on social sciences. Even when teaching experimental disciplines, the teacher needs to know that the subject is influenced by his or her social point of view.	It gives importance to context in order to understand the class structure of the society they will rebuild.	Curriculum development is a goal-oriented process, but radicals never aim at a definite goal.
Pragmatic Curriculum	Teacher is the person who manage the learning experiences. Effective teachers are people who can solve problems using their experience.	There is a belief that students are shaped through experiences.	The subject area is important only insofar as it offers solutions to social, political and economic problems to a certain extent. In pragmatic curricula, no discipline contains a solid body of knowledge.	Context is almost everything. All other factors can be omitted from the curriculum if the context requires it.	Curriculum development is important if it means finding new ways to make the curriculum work better. It is because pragmatist curriculum makers dislike curriculum development processes, which are their ultimate goals.
Academic Curriculum	Teacher is a person who constructs the knowledge and guides the student on how to learn.	Student is a person who is trained as an intellectual and expert in her/his field and trained with knowledge-based practices.	It deals with teaching, learning, guidance, evaluation, inspection and management processes, especially in schools.	Context is seen as all knowledge processes that must be acquired in the field to be specialized.	It has an expert-oriented curriculum development philosophy in every field based on theoretical foundations.

* Simplified from Ornstein & Hunkins (2018); Ornstein, Levine, Gutek & Vocke (2016) & Null (2017).

The aforementioned approaches were used in order to benefit from its strengths and to learn from its weaknesses:

- The emphasize in which systematic approach states that every curriculum should be systematic to a certain extent.
- The value given to human by existential and liberal approaches.
- The commitment of radical curriculum makers to their ideals.
- The commitment of liberal and academic approaches to values.
- The importance that the behaviourist approach gives to observable and measurable objectives.
- The importance that the liberal approach gives to mind.
- The importance that pragmatic and systematic curricula give to practice rather than theory.
- The importance given to the stakeholders of the curriculum by the existential and liberal approaches.

The previously mentioned approaches have inspired aspects of the curriculum approach based on reason, values, and culture. However, none of these approaches includes these features on their own. This situation is reflected in the teacher, student, subject area, context and curriculum making processes of the related approaches in different ways.

Curriculum Based on Reason, Values and Culture

When the curriculum problems identified in the research are examined, it is observed that there are problems directly related to the preparation and implementation of the curricula in addition to the issues such as physical conditions, lack of equipment, and materials. These issues are related to commonplaces such as teachers, learners, subject matter, context, and curriculum making as expressed by Schwab and Null. Especially under the curriculum making topic, there are problems in the practice, purpose, and integration issues of the curriculum. Table 4 includes the distribution of the curriculum problems identified in Türkiye in the context of commonplaces.

Table 4. *Distribution of the Curriculum Problems in the Context of Commonplaces*

	<i>Teachers</i>	<i>Learners</i>	<i>Subject matter</i>	<i>Context</i>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teacher-centered approach - Lack of teacher qualifications - Lack of academician qualifications - Lack of teacher autonomy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of readiness of students - Graduate unemployment problem - Insufficient guidance and counseling service 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number of courses and content intensity - Insufficient content variety 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Inadequacies in physical conditions - Insufficient materials and equipment - Inadequate lesson times
Curriculum Making	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Not considering socio-economic differences in curriculum development - Not considering individual differences in curriculum development 	<p><i>Practice</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Rote teaching and learning approach - Exam-oriented measurement and evaluation - Lack of diversification of teaching methods and techniques - Lack of extracurricular activities - Lack of practical training - Lack of vocational training 		

Table 4. (Cont.)-

Inadequate curriculum evaluation	<i>Purpose</i>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Curricula failing to reach objectives sufficiently - Curricula not responding to needs - Incompatibility of objectives and teaching activities
	<i>Integration</i>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The problem of teachers' adaptation to the curriculum - Not preparing the textbooks in accordance with the curriculum understanding - Incompatibility of joint programs with different types of schools - Application of differences among universities in curricula

The analytical approach considers the problems that may arise in the future, as well as the existing problems in determining the needs in the curriculum development process (Demirel, 2017). In this context, if a responsive curriculum approach is mentioned, besides the problems identified in the curriculum evaluation studies, the effects of the COVID-19 global epidemic, which has become the problem of the whole world as of 2020, should not be ignored. For example, it is stated that the use of technology may negatively affect children's brains, socio-emotional, cognitive and physical development (Gottschalk, 2019). It is known that the COVID-19 global epidemic causes excessive use of technology (Montag & Elhai, 2020). On the other hand, one of the most important requirements underlying today's educational needs is the development of the mind (Peters, 2010). This situation can lead to the growth of individuals who are open to manipulation and whose perception can be played with. At this point, it is important to gain the ability to use the mind reasonably.

Values lie on the basis of the development of this skill in the right direction. It is difficult to gain these values only with the rules valid in the school (Dewey, 1909; Durkheim, 1993). Although thinkers such as Dewey and Durkheim emphasized the values and values dimension of education, these views lost their popularity over time (Kohlberg, 1975). This might be an indicator of the risk that education is losing its functionality in terms of making students gain values. Undoubtedly, the family and the culture of the family have an important place in the acquisition of values as the family has a role of carrier and transmitter of culture (Celkan, 1991). Education, on the other hand, is a tool for the realization of social ideals (Genç, 2018). For this reason, it seems necessary to adopt an education approach that attaches importance to culture in raising individuals who have values and use their minds in a good way.

In addition to the characteristics mentioned above, today's human being is a technology-dependent (dependent) entity, especially with the effect of the COVID-19 global epidemic. The mind, values and culture-based approach take all these features into account in its curriculum understanding. In addition to these features, the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum approaches expressed before are also considered in the development of the mind, values, and culture-based approach. So, ignoring all these approaches and starting all processes from the beginning and trying to create a new approach will not bring us anything in learning from past mistakes and successful steps.

Commonplaces of Reason, Values and Culture-Based Curriculum Approach

In the research, a responsive approach that is believed to be useful in solving current curriculum problems has been proposed. This curriculum approach based on reason, values and culture has human virtues such as reason and values and tries to develop other human characteristics in a positive way within the framework of these virtues. While this approach brings various virtues to individuals, it remains loyal to the culture of the society and no practice is independent of culture. Although there are many different definitions of education, culture, one of the most basic dynamics of society, has found a place in these definitions. For example, one of these definitions describes education as acculturation, that is, the society's shaping of individuals in line with their own expectations and wishes (Helvacı, 2008). The only institutions where these cultural expectations will be realized are schools. Schools are institutions that constitute the formal education, which includes activities carried out within a certain plan and program (Görge, 2013). Education should convey the values of the society and the culture of the society to the students while providing the students with the written objectives of the curricula. Moreover, culture should find a place for itself in the formal or informal goals of the school. Transferring cultural heritage to future generations is among the main functions of education (Genç, 2018). From this point of view, a responsive approach that responds to the curriculum problems identified in each commonplace under the same headings has been put forward. In this context, the five basic commonplaces of the reason, values and culture-based curriculum approach are stated below.

Teacher Commonplace

In the curriculum evaluation studies examined, one of the most basic problems related to the instructors who carry out the teaching activities is the quality problem of teachers and academicians. At this point, besides the competencies of the teachers, their autonomy and authoritarian approaches are also criticized. In addition, the problem of teachers' adaptation to the curriculum is also included in the integration title under curriculum making commonplace. However, in the reason, values, and culture-based curriculum approach the teacher is a both stakeholder in the curriculum development process and an expert in the implementation processes. S/he is a guide in teaching individuals to use their minds reasonable and let them be have strong will. Also, the teacher is a master in providing students with professional qualifications. Based on these qualifications, the teacher should have professional ethics and pedagogical knowledge as well as having a command of the professional field in which he/she teaches. Teacher must use the language well and have a command of the mother tongue. They should liberate their minds in a values and rational framework instead of controlling the students. In order to do this, their own minds must be liberated and, contrary to what is stated, they must have a consciousness of autonomy. They should adhere to the cultural values of the society while doing these actions. Individuals with the cultural characteristics of the region to be assigned are selected as teachers. So, it is believed that the teacher is the only power that can control the effect of culture on the student in this approach.

Learner Commonplace

Issues such as readiness problems of students and unemployment of graduates identified in the studies examined are an indication that real needs are not considered in student selection. Contrary to the responsive approach, this situation can cause both student needs

and employment needs not to be met. In addition, the issue of not providing effective guidance and counselling services for students is one of the problems emphasized. However, a child/student is like a precious and sensitive metal. S/he is naturally clean. This mineral should be used in the best way. S/he should not be considered as a tool to be used for cutting or crushing metals that are softer than himself/herself, but as a well-worked jewellery. Mines are so diverse that each can be used for useful purposes. Just like in this metaphor, each student has different interests and abilities, and by using these features in the best way, they can be trained as qualified personnel for different professions. At this point, providing effective guidance and counseling services is of vital importance. The student should be introduced to the culture he is in and should be supported to keep up with the social and cultural values. The mental, values, emotional and physical development of students is crucial in these processes.

Subject Area Commonplace

Although the subject area is a commonplace that changes in relation to the level of education, it is a quite important commonplace. While the high number of courses and the content density are considered problems in the studies examined, the quality of these courses, which are high in number, is criticized. In addition, the compatibility of the textbooks with the understanding of the curriculum is another subject that has been criticized. However, the course contents should be responsive to be used in real life in accordance with the understanding of the program. In this context, subject area is mostly occurred within the framework of teaching the mother tongue at primary school level, as well as lessons for getting to know life, and fields such as art, sports, culture and values education in the reason, values and culture-based curriculum approach. At the secondary school level, in addition to these areas, foreign language education is given importance. When it comes to the high school level, vocational education comes into play. This is the stage where the subject area becomes somewhat more complex. In addition to the courses that contribute to the ethical and intellectual development of the student, vocational courses are also included in the curricula at this level. Moreover, cultural elements should be included in all materials to be used during teaching.

Context Commonplace

Although the studies examined have been carried out in different contexts and curriculum levels, there are common problems in issues such as inadequacies in physical facilities, inadequacies of equipment and materials, limitations in teaching methods and techniques and course durations, understanding of exam-based measurement and evaluation. This is actually an indication that the same mistakes are made about the curriculum in different contexts. The context commonplace is the most important one in the reason, values, and culture-based curriculum approach. The context factor constitutes the infrastructure of the concept of culture in this approach. However, it should not be considered independently of other commonplaces. The context can be examined from two different aspects in the reason, values, and culture-based curriculum approach. The first of these is the context of the school type and level, and the other one is the social and cultural context in which the school is located. The context related to school type and level does not differ greatly in terms of curriculum in primary and secondary schools as a common understanding of education has been adopted for everyone at these levels. The processes in which the context changes due to school type and grade are related to high schools. So, high schools are evaluated in different contexts regarded to

professional fields, and curriculum studies are carried out accordingly in this approach. However, although primary and secondary school levels have a similar structure, they should also be evaluated in their own contexts in relation to the region they are located in. In addition, teaching should take place in a context where theory and practice will feed each other, and emphasis should be placed on solving the problems arising from the context as quickly and practically as possible.

Curriculum Making Commonplace

In the curriculum evaluation studies carried out in the last ten years, problems such as not considering socio-economic and individual differences in the curriculum making process and insufficient evaluation of the developed curricula have been mentioned. This situation is considered a serious issue in the curriculum approach based on reason, values, and culture as the culture and values adopted by this approach are based on social and individual characteristics. In addition, various problems are mentioned under the sub-dimensions of curriculum making commonplace, purpose, practice, and integration. For example, features such as the incompatibility of the teaching activities with the objectives of the curriculum or the inability to reach the objectives of the curriculum sufficiently could be evaluated as the purposes of a curriculum making process. On the other hand, in the curriculum approach based on reason, values, and culture it is important to what extent the predetermined purposes or objectives are achieved. Undoubtedly, Tyler is one of the names who give the most importance to the achievement of the goals of the curriculum (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2018). Tyler's target resources are students, contemporary life, subject area, philosophy, and psychology (Tyler, 2013). These resources are no less important in a curriculum approach based on reason, values, and culture. However, in this approach, it is expected that the basic qualities that students are expected to acquire, regardless of their level and field, will be shaped within the framework of mental skills, values and culture. In other words, reason, values, and culture are a tool in shaping the other elements of the curriculum, especially the goals to be achieved.

In this context, the lack of diversification of teaching methods and techniques, inadequate vocational and applied education, the absence of extracurricular activities, and the institutional differences in the implementation of centrally developed curricula are among the problems. This situation can be interpreted as the inability of formal curricula at different levels in Türkiye to adequately respond to the needs. In the studies examined, the fact that the curricula do not meet the needs has also been expressed as a curriculum problem. In the curriculum approach based on reason, values, and culture it is aimed to raise values of individuals who are experts in a profession, who have the ability to use their minds correctly, and who do not contradict the cultural values of the society, as outputs of the education system and the curriculum. The characteristics of the reason, values, and culture-based approach in the context of the five commonplaces above are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5. *Five Commonplaces of Curriculum Approach Based on Reason, Values and Culture*

<i>Curriculum Approach Based on Reason, Values and Culture</i>				
<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Student</i>	<i>Subject Area</i>	<i>Context</i>	<i>Curriculum Making</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - S/he is a stakeholder in curriculum development process and expert in practice. - S/he is a guide in teaching individuals to use their minds in a good way, to have values and to have strong will, and also is a master in gaining professional qualifications. - S/he liberates the minds of students in a mental and values framework. - Individuals carrying the cultural characteristics of the region to be assigned are selected as teachers. - S/he is the only force that can control the influence of culture on the student. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - S/he is the mine that needs to be processed. - Individual differences are considered for different occupational groups. - Their development, conditions and interests should be considered. - Their mental, values, emotional, and physical development is important. - The culture to which s/he belongs should be introduced correctly, and they should be supported to keep up with the social and cultural values. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It is a commonplace that varies in relation to the education level. - The conditions of the region where the school is located should be considered. - Cultural elements should be included in all materials to be used during teaching. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It can be shown as the most important commonplace, but it is not independent of other commonplaces. - It guides what role other commonplaces should play. - The situation presented by the type and level of the school and the social and cultural context in which the school is located are emphasized. - Teaching should take place in a context where theory and practice will feed each other. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It is important to what extent the predetermined targets have been achieved. - It is expected that the basic qualifications that students are expected to acquire, regardless of their level and field, will be shaped within the framework of mental skills, values and cultural values. - Reason, values, and culture are a tool in shaping the other commonplaces of the curriculum, especially the goals, as well as the goals to be achieved. - As the outputs of the curriculum, the purpose is to raise values of individuals who are experts in a profession, have the ability to use their minds correctly, and do not contradict the cultural values of the society.

Results, Discussion and Suggestions

The studies examined in line with the curriculum evaluation, commonplaces of the curriculum as teacher, student, subject area, context, and curriculum development were taken into consideration, and the problems that emerged were handled within the framework of these commonplaces. One of the most basic problems about teachers or instructors who carry out teaching activities is their qualifications. The quality of teachers and academics in Türkiye has been a subject that has been questioned not only today but also in the past (Kavcar, 1980; Şen & Erişen, 2002; Tekişik, 1986). At this point, besides the competencies of the teachers, their autonomy and authoritarian approaches are also criticized. Issues such as readiness problems

of students and unemployment of graduates identified in the studies examined are an indication that real needs are not considered in student selection. In addition, the issue of not providing effective guidance and counselling services for students is one of the problems emphasized. Curricula are developed for purposes such as establishing a quality education system at national or international level, raising qualified manpower that will ensure the development of the country, and supporting the protection and development of social and cultural values with reference to the report published by OECD (2020). From this point of view, it is seen that there is an opposite relationship between the two situations. So, it is possible to say that the effect of the curricula developed in Türkiye on qualified students and teachers is relatively weak. Similarly, the fact that curricula do not guide teachers (Çobanoğlu & Yıldırım, 2021) supports the results obtained. Although the high number of courses and the content density are considered problems in the studies examined, the quality of these courses, which are high in number, is criticized. In addition, the compatibility of the textbooks with the understanding of the curriculum is another subject that has been criticized. Similar results were obtained in different studies on the problems related to the content of the curricula (Akıncı, 2021; Altındağ, 2017; Dinçer, 2013).

Although the studies examined have been carried out in different contexts and curriculum levels, there are common problems in issues such as inadequacies in physical facilities, inadequacies of equipment and materials, limitations in teaching methods and techniques and course durations, understanding of exam-based measurement and evaluation. Similar findings have been revealed in different studies on the physical, technological, and methodological limitations of the teaching environment in Türkiye (Balım, 2020; Eyiöl, 2019; Kurt, 2016; Uçar Kaplan, 2015). In the curriculum evaluation studies carried out in the last ten years, problems such as not considering socio-economic and individual differences in the curriculum making process and insufficient evaluation of the developed curricula were mentioned. In addition, various problems are mentioned under the sub-dimensions of curriculum making commonplace, purpose, practice, and integration. For example, features such as the incompatibility of the teaching activities with the objectives of the curriculum or the inability to reach the objectives of the curriculum sufficiently could be evaluated as the purposes of a curriculum making process. In this context, the lack of diversification of teaching methods and techniques, inadequate vocational and applied education, the absence of extracurricular activities, and the institutional differences in the implementation of centrally developed curricula are among the problems. This situation can be interpreted as the inability of formal programs at different levels in Türkiye to adequately respond to the needs. In the studies examined, the fact that the curricula do not meet the needs has also been expressed as a curriculum problem. It is seen that these problems mostly focus on the inadequacy of theoretical knowledge, the inability to transfer the results into practice, and competencies mentioned also by Yapıcıoğlu, Kara & Sever (2016). However, curriculum can equally limit the creativity and agency of students and teachers if there is not sufficient space for them to explore their own interests and sense of purpose (Coburn & Stein, 2006). Also, if curriculum remains unchanged for years, it may lack the necessary innovation to adapt to changes in society. Therefore, countries periodically reform curriculum to ensure that it is relevant to students and to the world outside of school (Kuiper & Berkvens, 2013).

In the studies examined, the most basic step recommended being taken in studies evaluating primary education curricula between 2012 and 2021 is to make partial updates to the relevant curricula. In addition, it was emphasized that high school and university programs needed comprehensive updates. When all the suggestions regarding the curricula are considered as a whole, it is observed that comprehensive updates are needed. However, in 15.38% of the studies examined, there is no recommendation for the decisions to be taken about any curriculum. Curricula should be inclusive, multilayered, dynamic, holistic, and multidirectional (OECD, 2020). Also, all subjects including literature, art, music, dance, and vocational education serve as means to end, expand the learner's understanding of culture, and enhance the learner's sensitivities and appreciation of the norms and values of society. Around 2015, amid growing global debate on globalization and migration, climate change, and technological advancements such as artificial intelligence, countries began to revisit questions on the kinds of competencies students would need for the future and how these could best be fostered through curriculum. Furthermore, while curriculum had long been considered a highly domestic issue with high stakes and sensitive political implications, there was a clearly identified need to consolidate an evidence base that would support countries in creating systematic curriculum design processes (Penuel & Shepard, 2016). The COVID-19 pandemic has also revealed and amplified the weaknesses of current systems. It has highlighted the urgent need to think differently about how to close the equity gaps that have existed and are now growing. The COVID-19 context has accelerated this analysis to make it as relevant as possible to tackle existing challenges, particularly that of placing student well-being at the center of curriculum design and re-design (OECD, 2020). So, it must be pointed out that the kinds of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values are necessary to understand, engage with and shape a changing world towards a better future. Therefore, the policies and practices should be transformed effectively to support people's learning and wellbeing within the framework of changing societies and economies (Shepard, Penuel, & Pellegrino, 2018).

The curriculum problems identified in the study show that curricula in Turkey fall short in responding to the needs of their stakeholders in various contexts. However, an educational system or curriculum is expected to respond to the need of stakeholders (Stake, 2011; 2013). It is crucial what kind of approach is adopted and what is done to meet these needs. In this context, different curriculum approaches have been examined in the research, and a curriculum approach that is thought to be able to respond to today's education needs and may be useful in solving current curriculum problems in Türkiye has been put forward by using the experiences, strengths, and weaknesses of these approaches. Considering the years in which they were introduced and the rapid change in the curriculum approaches that have been expressed before, it is open to debate whether they have adopted an understanding that will meet today's needs. Especially since the beginning of the 2000s, the rapid breakthrough in computer technology, the introduction of mobile phones into our lives, the virtual sharing culture created by social media and finally the emergence of the COVID-19 epidemic have changed the educational needs of the society and individuals in the last 10-15 years. Now, in addition to the question of how we should raise a person, the question of how we should protect individuals from the harms of technology has become one of the main concerns of education (Gottschalk, 2019). Of course, it is not appropriate to say that previous approaches are completely unresponsive to today's needs. In this respect, it is possible to talk about the strengths as well as the weaknesses of the approaches examined in the context of the

educational needs of 21st-century societies. However, since these features, which are expressed as strengths, belong to different curriculum approaches, there is a dividedness. In this context, these features considered to be the strengths of different curriculum approaches in this study have been integrated into the reason, values, and culture-based approach and have been trying to be integrated within the framework of mental and cultural values within this approach.

Although the concept of systematic is a feature that gives its name to the systematic approach, each curriculum must be systematic to a certain extent. This situation is also reflected in the definition of the concept of curriculum development. Curriculum development is most defined as the design, implementation, evaluation, and reorganization of a curriculum in scientific research processes (Demirel, 2017; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2018). The processes of designing, implementing, evaluating, and reorganizing a curriculum should be carried out in a planned and systematic way for effectiveness. In this context, the reason, values and culture-based approach also adopts a systematic approach in the curriculum development process. However, the main concern here is to determine beforehand what, where, when and by whom it will be done, and to carry out educational activities in an organized and systematic manner. Being systematic is not meant to serve any economic or political system. The systematic approach is criticized because it forms the basis of the understanding of serving the economic system of the age and therefore focuses on the concern of economic benefit (Samuels, 2017). This situation has brought along problems such as not accepting disadvantaged individuals to schools due to the concern that private education institutions will reduce school success (Jabbar, 2016).

It is stated that existential and systematic curriculum approaches give importance to the stakeholders of the curriculum, namely individuals and society (Null, 2011). Considering the criticism that individual and social differences are not taken into account in the curriculum development process in Türkiye, it is possible to indicate that the relevant approaches are strong in this respect. Therefore, it is claimed to be an approach that responds to needs. However, the existential approach is sometimes criticized for neglecting society while valuing the individual (Forbes, 2016; Singer, 2006). The issue of valuing the individuals who are the stakeholders of the curriculum is of course substantial. However, it should be noted that not every individual will contribute to the curriculum to the same extent. In this respect, the reason, values and culture-based approach gives importance to expertise as much as it gives importance to the opinions of the stakeholders in the curriculum development process. In addition, the understanding of leaving individuals to their own responsibility, adopted by the existential approach, is open to criticism in terms of gaining social responsibility awareness (Singer, 2006). Leaving people to their own responsibility, especially at an early age, is seen as a problem in the reason, values, and culture-based approach. The reason, values, and culture-based approach argues that sometimes it is necessary to protect people from themselves. This might be possible by providing effective counseling and guidance services, the adequacy of which is shown as a curriculum problem in Türkiye. In addition, effective guidance and counseling services are important for individuals to gain thinking skills (Hidayah, Yuliana, & Hanafi, 2020). The reason, values, and culture-based approach, like the liberal approach, aims at raising individuals who use their minds in a good way. Using the mind reasonable should not be seen as independent from the values. In this context, liberal and academic approaches emphasize the moral dimension of the curriculum (Null, 2011; Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery, &

Taubman, 1995). In addition, there is a strict adherence to ideas in the radical curriculum approach (Null, 2017). However, individuals need to be aware of the ideas they defend. The reason, values, and culture-based approach considers it essential to use one's mind while defending certain ideals. One of the main functions of the curriculum should be to improve the reasoning ability of the society with reference to this approach.

It is essential for the objectives of the curriculum to express observable student behaviors in terms of measurement and evaluation (Miller, Linn, & Gronlund, 2009). The importance that the behaviorist approach gives to student behavior is understandable in this respect. However, it has been stated in the studies examined that this understanding sometimes causes exam-oriented measurement and evaluation problems. The reason, values, and culture-based approach, while considering measurable characteristics, does not ignore the fact that human is a more complex creature. Tyler is one of the names who focus on how well the goals of the curriculum are achieved (Stufflebeam, Madaus, & Kellaghan, 2000). However, approaches such as Tyler focusing on the extent to which the objectives of the curriculum are achieved are criticized for ignoring the different functions of education (Fitzpatrick, Sanders, & Worthen, 2011). Therefore, these approaches tend to see achievement tests as a basic measurement tool to determine the extent to which the objectives of the curriculum have been achieved (Stufflebeam, Madaus, & Kellaghan, 2000). However, this approach is only for theoretical education. In this respect, this feature of pragmatic and systematic approaches that see the curriculum as an application rather than an ideal should be taken as an example. However, the issue here should not be to reject ideals, but to put them into practice. Reason, values, and culture-based approach tends to put ideals into goals and goals into practice. Such an understanding can also be a solution to the inadequacy of practical and vocational training processes, which is expressed as a curriculum problem in Türkiye.

In summary, it is thought that current curriculum approaches may have problems in meeting today's needs within the scope of current developments such as widespread use of technology and the global epidemic of COVID-19. In this context, when the curriculum evaluation studies conducted in Türkiye were examined, it was observed that the curricula have various problems in terms of the commonplaces. In addition, in the studies examined, it has been suggested that comprehensive updates be made in the curricula to solve the identified problems. In this study, an approach that is thought to contribute to the solution of these identified problems has been put forward. The reason, values, and culture-based approach is a responsive approach that aims to train individuals who attach importance to mental and cultural values. In addition to the solution proposals in the approach put forward, various suggestions were presented to the institutions authorized for the curriculum development process in Türkiye and to researchers who will study similar issues.

- Various contexts, individual, social and economic differences, and opportunities should be taken into account in the curriculum development processes.
- Teaching and evaluation methods and techniques should be diversified in accordance with the objectives of the curriculum, and in this context, skill-based approaches should be adopted to prevent exam anxiety in the transition between levels and in the employment process.

- Individuals who are compatible with the professions should be trained in line with the needs of different professions, especially teachers to prevent employment, qualification, and readiness problems.
- The intensity of the course content should be reduced in the curricula, and the main concern should be to present responsive and sufficient content instead of offering many courses.
- Considering the rapid change in every field today, curriculum approaches should adopt a flexible and updatable approach.
- It should not be forgotten that there is no single right or wrong about the curriculum and education, and the experiences of different approaches should be used.

References

- Abma, T. A. (2006). The practice and politics of responsive evaluation. *American Journal of Education*, 27(1), 31-43. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1098214005283189>
- Akıncı, M. (2021). *Eğitimde ölçme ve değerlendirme dersi programının değerlendirilmesi*. (Unpublished PhD dissertation). Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Antalya, Türkiye.
- Aktan, S. (2018). *Curriculum studies in Türkiye: A historical perspective*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Akyol, B., Yılmaz, K., Çavuş, B., & Aksoy, V. (2018). Akademisyen yöneticilerin görüşlerine göre Türkiye’de yükseköğretimin sorunları. *Electronic Turkish Studies*, 13(11), 111-131. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7827/TurkishStudies.13232>
- Altındağ, A. (2017). *Ortaokul 5. sınıf matematik dersi öğretim programının Stake’in uygunluk-olasılık modeline göre değerlendirilmesi*. (Unpublished PhD dissertation). Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Ankara, Türkiye.
- Apple, M. W. (1990). *Ideology and curriculum* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Arslan, M. (2000). *Cumhuriyet dönemi ilköğretim programları ve belli başlı özellikleri*. Retrieved from https://dhgm.meb.gov.tr/yayimlar/dergiler/Milli_Egitim_Dergisi/146/aslan.htm
- Aslan, E. (2010). Türkiye Cumhuriyeti’nin ilk ders kitapları. *Eğitim ve Bilim*, 35(158), 215-231.
- Aydın, M. Ş. (2005). *Cumhuriyet döneminde din eğitimi öğretmeni*. İstanbul: DEM Yayınları.
- Balım, D. (2020). *Beşinci sınıf İngilizce ağırlıklı öğretim programının aydınlatıcı değerlendirme modeliyle değerlendirilmesi*. (Unpublished master’s thesis). Pamukkale Üniversitesi, Denizli, Türkiye.
- Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27-40. <https://doi.org/10.3316/QRJ0902027>
- Bümen, N. T. (2019). Türkiye’de merkeziyetçiliğe karşı özerklik kaskacında eğitim programları: Sorunlar ve öneriler. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi*, 27(1), 175-185. <https://doi.org/10.24106/kefdergi.2450>
- Celkan, H. Y. (1991). Beşerî kültürün temel ögesi aile. *Sosyal Politika Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 1(1), 1-4.
- Coburn, C. E. & Stein, M. K. (2006). Communities of practice theory and the role of teacher professional community in policy implementation. In Honig, M. (ed.), *New directions in education policy implementation: Confronting complexity* (pp. 25-46). New York: State University of New York Press.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Boston: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed.). California, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Çetin, H., İbrahim, M., Aydın, S., & Yazıcı, N. (2018). İlköğretim matematik öğretmen adaylarının Türk eğitim sistemi sorunlarına ilişkin görüşleri ve çözüm önerileri. *Akdeniz Eğitim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 12(25), 117-135. <https://doi.org/10.29329/mjer.2018.153.7>

- Çobanoğlu, R., & Yıldırım, A. (2021). Türkiye’de program geliştirme çalışmaları: Cumhuriyet’in ilanından günümüze tarihsel bir analiz. *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 19(2), 810-830. <https://doi.org/10.37217/tebd.912329>
- Demirel, Ö. (2017). *Eğitimde program geliştirme kuramdan uygulamaya* (25th ed.). Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.
- Demirel, Ö. (1992). Türkiye’de program geliştirme uygulamaları. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 7, 27-43.
- Dewey, J. (1991). *The school and society/The child and the curriculum* (Edited by Philip W. Jackson). Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Dinçer, B. (2013). *7. sınıf İngilizce öğretim programının Stufflebeam’in Bağlam-Girdi-Süreç-Ürün (CIPP) modeline göre değerlendirilmesi*. (Unpublished PhD dissertation). Aydın Adnan Menderes Üniversitesi, Aydın, Türkiye.
- Durkheim, E. (1993). *Ethics and the sociology of morals* (R. T. Hall, Translated) New York: Prometheus Books.
- Eğitim Reformu Girişimi [ERG]. (2017). Öğretim programları arka plan raporu. Retrieved from <https://www.egitimreformugirisimi.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/Ogretim-Programlari-Arka-Plan-Raporu.pdf>
- Eisner, E. (1994). *Cognition and curriculum reconsidered* (2nd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Eyiol, K. Ö. (2019). *Ortaokul matematik uygulamaları öğretim programının Eisner’in eğitsel eleştiri modeline göre değerlendirilmesi*. (Unpublished master’s thesis). Pamukkale Üniversitesi, Denizli, Türkiye.
- Fitzpatrick, J. L., Sanders, J. R., & Worthen, B. R. (2011). *Curriculum evaluation: Alternative approaches and practical guidelines* (4th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.
- Forbes, C. (2016). A pragmatic, existentialist approach to the scientific realism debate. *Synthese*, 194(9), 3327-3346. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11229-016-1015-2>
- Frase, L. E., Fenwick, W. E., & William, K. P. (1995). *The curriculum management audit. Improving school quality*. Lancaster, PA: Technomic.
- Genç, S. Z. (2018). Kültür ve eğitim. E. Köse & S. Z. Genç (Eds.). *Eğitim sosyolojisi* içinde (ss. 115-160). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Goleman, D., & Senge, P. (2014). *The triple focus: A new approach to education*. Florence, MA: More Than Sound.
- Gottschalk, F. (2019). Impacts of technology use on children: Exploring literature on the brain, cognition and well-being. *OECD Education Working Paper No. 195*.
- Görgeç, İ. (2013). Program geliştirmede temel kavramlar. H. Şeker (Ed.). *Eğitimde program geliştirme kavramlar yaklaşımları* içinde (ss. 1-18). Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Green S., & Higgins S. (2008). *Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions*. England: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Helvacı, A. (2008). Eğitimle ilgili temel kavramlar. F. Ereş (Ed.). *Eğitim bilimine giriş* içinde (ss. 1-19). Ankara: Maya Akademi.

- Hidayah, N., Yuliana, A. T., & Hanafi, H. (2020). Theoretical validity of Problem Focused-Coping Skill Guideline to Develop Students' Critical Thinking Skills. *Jurnal Kajian Bimbingan Dan Konseling*, 5(4), 183-191. <https://doi.org/10.17977/um001v5i42020p183>
- Jabbar, H. (2016). Selling schools: Marketing and recruitment strategies in New Orleans. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 91(1), 4-23. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0895904819874756>
- Joyce, B., Weil, M. & Showers, B. (2004). *Models of teaching* (7th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Karasar, N. (2005). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemi*. Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- Kavcar, C. (1980). Nitelikli öğretmen sorunu. *Eğitim ve Bilim*, 5(28), 17-22.
- Kendall, J. (2011). *Understanding common core state standards*. Alexandria, VA: Associate for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Kısakürek, M. A. (1969). Eğitim programlarının geliştirilmesi ile öğretim süreçleri arasındaki ilişkiler. *Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi*, 2(1), 45-53.
- Kohlberg, L. (1975). The cognitive-developmental approach to moral education. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 56(10), 670-677.
- Kuiper, W., & Berkvens, J. (2013). *Balancing curriculum regulation and freedom across Europe*. SLO, Enschede: CIDREE Yearbook.
- Kurt, A. (2016). *4. sınıf İngilizce dersi öğretim programının bağlam, girdi, süreç, ürün modeline göre değerlendirilmesi*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Antalya, Türkiye.
- Levine, D. N. (2007). *Powers of the mind: The reinvention of liberal learning in America*. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Marsh, C. J., & Willis, G. (2007). *Curriculum: Alternative approaches, ongoing issues*. New Jersey, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Martin, J. (2002). *The education of John Dewey: A biography*. New York: Columbia University.
- Mertens, D. M. (2002). The evaluator's role in the transformative context. In K. E. Ryan & T. A. Schwandt (Eds.), *Exploring evaluator role and identity: Evaluation and society* (pp. 103-117). Greenwich, CT: IAP.
- Mertens, D. M., & Wilson, A. T. (2019). *Program evaluation theory and practice* (2nd ed.). Guilford Publications.
- Miller, M. D., Linn, R. L., & Gronlund, N. E. (2009). *Measurement and assessment in teaching* (10th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.
- MoNE. (2005). *Talim Terbiye Kurulu program geliştirme çalışmaları*. Retrieved from http://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/programlar/prog_giris.pdf
- MoNE. (2017). *Müfredatta yenileme ve değişiklik çalışmalarımız üzerine*. Retrieved from http://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2017_07/18160003_basin_aciklamasi-program.pdf
- Null, W. (2017). *Curriculum: from theory to practice* (2nd ed.). Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield Publishing.
- Null, W. (2011). *Curriculum: from theory to practice*. Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield Publishing

- O'Leary, Z. (2017). *The essential guide to doing your research project*. London: SAGE Publications Inc.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]. (2020). *Curriculum (re)design: A series of thematic reports from the OECD Education 2030 project*. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/education/2030-project/contact/brochure-thematic-reports-on-curriculum-redesign.pdf>
- Ornstein, A. C., & Hunkins, F. P. (2018). *Curriculum: Foundations, principles, and issues* (2nd ed.). Edinburgh: Pearson Education Limited.
- Ornstein, A. C., Levine, D. U., Gutek, G., & Vocke, D. E. (2016). *Foundations of education*. Cengage learning.
- Özdemir, S. M. (2009). Eğitimde program değerlendirme ve Türkiye'de eğitim programlarını değerlendirme çalışmalarının incelenmesi. *Yüzüncü Yıl Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 6(2), 126-149.
- Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Penuel, W., & L. Shepard (2016). *Social models of learning and assessment in the handbook of cognition and assessment*. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons.
- Peters, R. S. (2010). Education and the educated man. In R. F. Dearden, , P. H. Hirst, & R. S. Peters (Eds.). (2010). *Education and the development of reason* (pp. 1-13). London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd.
- Pinar, W. F., Reynolds, W. M., Slattery, P., & Taubman, P. M. (1995). *Understanding curriculum*. New York: Peter Lang.
- Samuels, R. (2017). *Educating inequality: beyond the political myths of higher education and the job market*. New York: Routledge.
- Schwab, J. J. (1973). The practical 3: Translation into curriculum. *The school review*, 81(4), 501-522.
- Shepard, L. A., Penuel W. R., & Pellegrino J. W. (2018). Using learning and motivation theories to coherently link formative assessment, grading practices, and large-scale assessment. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice*, 37 (1), 21-34. <https://doi.org/10.1111/emip.12189>
- Singer, J. B. (2006). The socially responsible existentialist: A normative emphasis for journalists in a new media environment. *Journalism studies*, 7(1), 2-18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616700500450277>
- Stake, R. E. (2013). Responsive evaluation IV. In M. C. Alkin (Ed.) *Evaluation roots. A wider perspective of theorists' views and influences* (pp. 189-197). Los Angeles: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Stake, R. E. (2011). Program evaluation particularly responsive evaluation. *Journal of Multi-Disciplinary Evaluation*, 7(15), 180-201.
- Standridge, M. (2002). Behaviourism. In M. Orey (Ed.), *Emerging perspectives on learning, teaching, and technology* (pp. 271-277). Bloomington: AECT Publishing.
- Stufflebeam, D. L., & Coryn, C. L. S. (2014). *Evaluation theory, models, and applications* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Josey-Bass.

- Stufflebeam, D. L., Madaus, G. F., & Kellaghan, T. (2000). *Evaluation models: Viewpoints on educational and human services evaluation* (2nd ed.). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Şen, H. Ş., & Erişen, Y. (2002). Öğretmen yetiştiren kurumlarda öğretim elemanlarının etkili öğretmenlik özellikleri. *Gazi Üniversitesi Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 22(1), 99-116.
- Şener, G. (2018). Türkiye’de yaşanan eğitim sorunlarına güncel bir bakış. *Milli eğitim dergisi*, 47(218), 187-200.
- Tekişik, H. H. (1986). Türkiye’de öğretmenlik mesleği ve sorunları. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 2(2), 24-33.
- Tyler, R. (2013). *Basic principles of curriculum and instruction* (with a foreword by Peter S. Hiebowitsh). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Uçar Kaplan, E. (2015). Okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin yönetim ile yaşadığı sorunlar ve çözüm önerileri. *Yaşadıkça Eğitim*, 29(1), 49-64.
- Uşun, S. (2012). *Eğitimde program değerlendirme: Süreçler yaklaşımlar ve modeller*. Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Van den Akker, J. (2006). Curriculum development re-invented. In Letschert, J. (Ed.), *Curriculum development re-invented* (pp. 16-30). Enschede: SLO (Netherlands institute for curriculum development).
- Varış, F. (1998). Temel kavramlar ve program geliştirmeye sistematik yaklaşım. A. Hakan (Ed.), *Eğitim bilimlerinde yenilikler içinde* (ss. 3-19). Eskişehir: Anadolu Üniversitesi Açık Öğretim Fakültesi Yayınları.
- Wiles, J. & Bondi, J. (1993). *Curriculum development: A guide to practice*. New York, NY: McMillan Publishing Company.
- Yapıcıoğlu, D. K., Kara, D. A. & Sever, D. (2016). Türkiye’de program değerlendirme çalışmalarında eğilimler ve sorunlar: alan uzmanlarının gözüyle. *Uluslararası Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 6(12), 91-113.
- Yıldırım, A. (1994). Program geliştirme modelleri ve ülkemizdeki program geliştirme çalışmalarına etkileri. *I. Eğitim Bilimleri Kongresi Bildiri Tam Metinleri Kitabı, Cilt I içinde* (ss. 150-162). Adana: Çukurova Üniversitesi Basımevi.
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2013). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri* (9th ed.). Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Yüksel, İ., & Sağlam, M. (2014). *Eğitimde program değerlendirme* (2nd ed.). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.



TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Türk Eğitim Sisteminin Program İhtiyaçlarına Cevap Verici Bir Yaklaşım: Akıl, Değerler ve Kültür Temelli Program

Giriş

Bu araştırmanın amacı, Türkiye'deki güncel eğitim programlarına ilişkin sorunları tespit etmek ve bu sorunlar doğrultusunda hâlihazırda benimsenen program yaklaşımlarının güçlü yönlerinden yararlanarak çözüm önerileri içeren bir yaklaşım sunmaktır. Bu bağlamda çalışmada aşağıdaki sorulara cevap aranmaya çalışılmıştır:

1. Türkiye'de son on yılda yapılan program değerlendirme çalışmalarına göre mevcut program sorunları nelerdir?
2. Bu çalışmalarda değerlendirilen öğretim programları hakkında ne tür kararlar önerilmektedir?
3. Ortaya konulan problemlerin çözümünde faydalı olabilecek farklı program yaklaşımlarının ortak noktaları nelerdir?
4. Türkiye'deki güncel program sorunlarının çözümünde nasıl bir program yaklaşımı benimsenmelidir?

Araştırma, farklı program değerlendirme çalışmalarında tespit edilen mevcut programlara ilişkin problemlerin ortaya konulması, bu problemler arasında en yaygın olanların belirlenmesi ve bu problemlerin teoride de olsa çözümüne yönelik farklı yaklaşımların güçlü yönlerinden nasıl yararlanılabileceğine dair öneriler sunması açısından önemli görülmektedir.

Yöntem

Bu çalışmada sistematik derleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Elde edilen çalışmalar nitel araştırma desenlerinden doküman incelemesi çerçevesinde ele alınmıştır. Doküman analizi, belirli bir amaca yönelik kaynakları bulma, okuma, not alma ve değerlendirme süreçlerini içerir (Karasar, 2005). Diğer bir deyişle doküman analizi, basılı ve elektronik (bilgisayar tabanlı ve internet erişimli) materyallerin incelenmesi ve değerlendirilmesi sürecinde yer alan bir dizi süreçtir (Bowen, 2009). Bu süreç, araştırılması amaçlanan olgu veya olgular hakkında bilgi içeren yazılı materyallerin incelenmesi olarak da tanımlanmaktadır (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2013). Aynı zamanda resmi veya özel kayıtların toplanması, sistematik olarak incelenmesi ve değerlendirilmesidir (Ekiz, 2015). Ayrıca eğitim alanında öğretim programı, ders içerikleri,

verilen bir eğitimin etkililiği ve eğitim uygulamaları doküman incelemesi yöntemiyle araştırılabilir (O'Leary, 2017).

Araştırmada veri toplama sürecinde dokümanlardan yararlanılmıştır. Dokümanlar, özellikle nitel araştırmalar için temel veri kaynakları arasında gösterilmektedir (Creswell, 2012). Bu kapsamda, 2012-2021 yılları arasında gerçekleştirilen program değerlendirme çalışmaları incelenmiştir. Bu çalışmaların seçiminde çeşitli kriterler göz önünde bulundurulmuştur. Bu nedenle incelenen çalışmaların seçiminde kullanılan örnekleme yöntemi ölçüt örnekleme olarak kabul edilebilir. Ölçüt örneklemede, örneklem seçiminde önceden belirlenmiş bir dizi ölçüte uyulması gerekmektedir (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2013). Araştırmada incelenen program değerlendirme çalışmalarının seçiminde kullanılan ölçütler şu şekildedir:

- 2012-2021 yılları arasındaki 10 yıllık dönemde yapılan çalışmalar incelenmiştir.
- İncelemeye yalnızca herhangi bir program değerlendirme modeli kullanan çalışmalar dahil edilmiştir.
- Sadece farklı eğitim seviyelerindeki örgün programları değerlendiren çalışmalar incelemeye dahil edilmiştir.

Yukarıdaki kriterler dikkate alınarak Veri Tabanı Erişim ve İstatistik Sistemi (Vetis) ve Ulusal Tez Merkezi gibi ulusal ve uluslararası veri tabanlarından erişilen 19 makale, 18 yüksek lisans tezi ve 15 doktora tezi olmak üzere toplam 52 çalışma analize dahil edilmiştir. İlgili çalışmalar Nvivo 10 uygulaması kullanılarak içerik analizine tabi tutulmuştur. İçerik analizi, nitel veri analizi sürecinde verilerin belirli temalar içerisinde çeşitli özellikler açısından kodlanması ve temalaştırılmasını içerir (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2013). Bu doğrultuda incelenen çalışmalarda belirlenen program sorunlarına ilişkin sonuç ve öneriler kodlanmış, eğitim kademeleri altında temalaştırılmıştır. Ayrıca çeşitli kaynaklardan farklı program yaklaşımlarının ortak noktaları ortaya çıkarılmış ve program sorunlarının çözümüne katkı sağlayacağı düşünülen bu yaklaşımların güçlü yönleri vurgulanmıştır.

Bulgular

İncelenen program değerlendirme çalışmaları doğrultusunda programların öğretmen, öğrenci, konu alanı, bağlam ve program geliştirme unsurları dikkate ele alınarak elde edilen bulgular şu şekildedir:

İncelenen program değerlendirme çalışmalarında öğretim faaliyetlerini yürüten öğretim elemanları ile ilgili en temel sorunlardan biri öğretmen ve akademisyenlerin kalite sorunudur. Bu noktada öğretmenlerin yeterliklerinin yanı sıra özerklikleri ve otoriter yaklaşımları da eleştirilmektedir. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin programa uyum sorunu da program geliştirme başlığı altında verilmiştir.

İncelenen çalışmalarda tespit edilen öğrencilerin hazırbulunuşluk sorunları ve mezunların işsizliği gibi konular öğrenci seçiminde gerçek ihtiyaçların dikkate alınmadığının bir göstergesidir. Ayrıca öğrencilere yönelik etkili rehberlik ve psikolojik danışma hizmetlerinin sağlanamaması da üzerinde durulan sorunlardan biridir.

İncelenen çalışmalarda ders sayısının ve içerik yoğunluğunun fazla olması sorun olarak görülse de sayıca fazla olan bu derslerin kalitesi eleştirilmektedir. Ayrıca ders kitaplarının program anlayışıyla uyumluluğu da eleştirilen bir diğer konu olarak ele alınmıştır.

İncelenen çalışmalar farklı bağlamlarda ve program düzeylerinde gerçekleştirilmiş olsa da, fiziki olanaklardaki yetersizlikler, araç-gereç ve malzeme yetersizlikleri, öğretim yöntem ve teknikleri ile ders sürelerindeki kısıtlılıklar, sınava dayalı ölçme ve değerlendirme gibi yaygın problemlerin görüldüğü bulgularına varılmıştır.


Son on yılda gerçekleştirilen program değerlendirme çalışmalarında program geliştirme sürecinde sosyo-ekonomik ve bireysel farklılıkların dikkate alınmaması ve geliştirilen programların yeterince değerlendirilememesi gibi sorunlar yaygın olarak ele alınan problemler arasında gösterilmiştir.


Sonuç, Tartışma ve Öneriler

Özetle yaygın teknoloji kullanımı ve COVID-19 küresel salgını gibi güncel gelişmeler kapsamında mevcut program yaklaşımlarının günümüz ihtiyaçlarını karşılamada sorunlar barındırabileceği düşünülmektedir. Bu bağlamda, Türkiye’de yapılan program değerlendirme çalışmaları incelendiğinde programın temel faktörleri açısından çeşitli sorunlarının olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca incelenen çalışmalarda tespit edilen soranların çözümü için programlarda kapsamlı güncellemelerin yapılması önerilmiştir. Bu araştırmada ise tespit edilen bu sorunların çözümünde katkısı olabileceği düşünülen bir yaklaşım ortaya koyulmuştur. Akıl, değerler ve kültür temelli yaklaşım, zihinsel ve kültürel değerlere önem veren bireyler yetiştirmeyi amaçlayan ihtiyaca cevap verici (responsive) bir yaklaşımdır. Ortaya koyulan yaklaşımdaki çözüm önerilerine ek olarak Türkiye’de program geliştirme sürecinden sorumlu olan kurumlara ve benzer konularda çalışma yapacak araştırmacılara çeşitli öneriler sunulmuştur.

- Program geliştirme süreçlerinde farklı bağlamlar, bireysel, toplumsal ve ekonomik farklılıklar ve olanaklar daha fazla dikkate alınmalıdır.
- Öğretim ve ölçme-değerlendirme yöntem ve teknikleri programların hedeflerine uygun bir biçimde çeşitlendirilmeli, bu bağlamda kademeler arası geçiş ve istihdam sürecinde sınav kaygısının önüne geçecek beceri temelli yaklaşımlar benimsenmelidir.
- İstihdam, nitelik ve hazırbulunuşluk sorunlarının önüne geçebilmek için başta öğretmenler olmak üzere farklı meslek dallarına yönelik ihtiyaçlar doğrultusunda mesleklere uyumlu bireyler yetiştirilmelidir.
- Programlarda ders içeriklerinin yoğunluğu azaltılmalı, temel kaygı çok sayıda ders sunmak yerine ihtiyaca cevap verici yeterli içerikleri sunmak olmalıdır.
- Günümüzde her alandaki hızlı değişimi dikkate alarak program yaklaşımları esnek ve güncellenebilir bir anlayış benimsemelidir.
- Programa ve eğitime yönelik tek bir doğru ya da yanlışın olmadığı unutulmamalı, farklı yaklaşımların tecrübelerinden yararlanılmalıdır.

A Systematic Review on Teacher's Expectations and Classroom Behaviors³

Özge Aydın, Gendarmerie and Coast Guard Academy, ozge.aydin@jsga.edu.tr, 
<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1640-2069>

Ahmet Ok, Middle East Technical University, as@metu.edu.tr, 
<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5941-4158>

Keywords

Systematic Review
Teacher Expectations
Teacher Behaviors
Student Achievement

Article Info:

Received : 11-03-2022
Accepted : 06-06-2022
Published : 18-06-2022

DOI: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.011

Abstract

The aim of the present study was to scrutinize how teacher expectations are shaped and reflected in teachers' classroom behaviors by presenting a holistic picture of teacher expectation literature that has significantly developed since 1968. To achieve this, a systematic review design was utilized in the study, and different academic databases, which were namely EBSCOhost, ERIC, Science Direct, Journal Park Academic, and HEC Theses Centre, were examined. Among 1.227 of the studies conducted, 32 research studies were included in the current review based on a set of inclusion and exclusion criteria after the identification, screening, and eligibility processes. After the content analysis carried out on the included studies, the review extracted certain factors shaping teachers' expectations of students' academic achievement, which were grouped as *students' readiness, skills and abilities, teacher- and family-related factors, and school policies*. In classes, teachers differentiated their instructional methods according to students' ability levels, presented more group work opportunities, established more eye-contact, assigned cognitively harder tasks, and expected more quality work from high-expectancy students. Teachers also tended to decrease their interaction time by turning to another student when a low-expectancy student could not answer a question, and to know personal or academic strengths of high-expectancy students more than low-expectancy ones.

To cite this article: Aydın, Ö., & Ok, A. (2022). A systematic review on teacher's expectations and classroom behaviors. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 12(1), 247-274. doi: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.011

³ An earlier version of this study was presented orally in International PEGEM Conference on Education held in Antalya, Turkey, on 27th – 30th October, 2021.

Introduction

Students are directly influenced by their teachers' expectations (Weinstein, 2002), which consist of their beliefs and inferences about students' general behaviors and academic potential, mostly indicating how much they could achieve (Li & Rubie-Davies, 2017). These expectations are of high importance in educational settings to define standards for student evaluation because whereas one teacher's higher expectations bring about fostered learning outcomes in students, one's mediocre expectations may hamper students' further academic progress owing to students' lower academic self-image for themselves (Dusek & Joseph, 1983; Jordan & Stanovich, 2001; Rubie-Davies, 2006). The impacts of teachers' level of expectations on students' learning outcomes have also been tracked as *the self-fulfilling prophecy* or *the Pygmalion effect* in the literature put forward by Rosenthal and Jacobson as early as 1968.

In their leading study, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) falsely informed teachers about the students' results of an achievement test at the beginning of an academic year and their academic potential to achieve higher. Although the students were not selected based on the achievement test scores as declared, these students showed greater progress in test scores than the others in the same classroom. Teachers' expectations imposed by the researchers at the very beginning have shaped their behavior towards the students in the class, so the students have produced a positive 'self-fulfilling prophecy' effect (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). This appears as an initially wrong assumption which is proven to be accurate following the emergence of new behavior in the environment (Merton, 1968). To be more precise regarding the presence of self-fulfilling prophecy in classrooms, firstly a teacher forms an opinion or expectation of a student's academic capability; then, the teacher demonstrates differential behaviors towards high- and low-expectancy students, which results in a confirmation of what the teacher has expected initially about the student (Gentrup & Rjosk, 2018; Jussim, Robustelli, & Cain, 2009), also named as sustained expectations by Cooper and Tom (1984). Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1968) study stands as a milestone since it reveals the role of affective factors in cognitive skills such as self-esteem, self-efficacy beliefs, motivation, and anxiety (Andres, 2002; McClure, Meyer, Garisch, Fischer, Weir, & Walkey, 2011).

As voiced by Smith (2011), "*The human mind does not like to be wrong.*" (p. 33), and so teachers may form an expectation bias and retain it even if students start to perform differently (Bognar, 1982, as cited in Stegemiller, 1989). Therefore, teachers' classroom practices and behaviors may inevitably be formed by such expectations and beliefs. Rhem (1999) exemplifies teachers demanding simpler answers and tasks from low-achiever students. Cruickshank, Jenkins, and Metcalf (2009) also summarize common features of teachers with low expectations as being ignorant of task orientation, discipline, and students' response time in classes, lacking accurate and timely feedback, and positive reinforcement. On the contrary, when teachers have higher expectations from the students and believe in their academic potential, their instructional practices are moved to a higher level that presents a clear set of learning objectives, well-organized explanations relating to student interests, and more challenging learning opportunities together with remediation strategies – if necessary, more advanced thinking skills, and a more demanding curriculum (Cruickshank et al., 2009; Warren, 2002). Rosenthal (1974) also found out that teachers tend to build a more positive learning environment for high-expectancy students by nodding and smiling at them more. They are also inclined to evaluate these students' work more positively, present more praises and

positive reinforcements, and behave in a more encouraging way (Babad, 1992; Madon, Jussim, & Eccles, 1997). Moreover, Rubie-Davies (2007) asserted that teachers with high expectations for their students have a tendency to provide more feedback, ask cognitively demanding questions more, and demonstrate more constructive behavior management techniques in their classes when compared to teachers with low expectations.

The literature is also home to many studies investigating the factors indicating how teacher expectations are shaped. Students' ethnicity (Rampaul, Singh, & Didyk, 1984) and socio-economic status may show parents' incapacities to academically assist their children and provide resources at home (Claassen & Mulders, 2003; De Boer, Bosker, & Van der Werf, 2010; Ditton, Krüsken, & Schauenberg, 2005). Gender of the students may also lead to differential teacher expectations. To illustrate, Timmermans, De Boer, and Van Der Werf (2016) point out that teachers have positively higher expectations for female students who are considered to possess better study skills and more engagement in school work whereas lower expectations of achievement for male students reported less successful in classes. Similarly, regarding teachers' expectations, female students are also favored in Driessen and Van Langen's (2013) study in terms of their cooperative and self-regulated learning skills.

Depending on the variety among these studies on teacher expectations and classroom behaviors, it is believed that a systematic review could prove more generalizable results by providing a fuller and more collective picture of the key findings of the previous studies. The current study also aimed to put the previously conducted studies forward in a more holistic way rather than focusing on their findings individually through a systematic review. For these reasons, the study aspired to illustrate how the teacher expectation literature has developed *since 1968* by investigating how teacher expectations are shaped and reflected in their classroom behaviors. In this way, the study may increase the professional awareness of teachers regarding how they form their expectations of academic achievement and how these expectations are transmitted to their classroom behaviors and consequently to students. Thus, teachers might make an effort to regulate their differential behaviors towards high- or low-expectancy students so that they could avoid sustained expectations - if they have any, in the light of what the relevant literature has put forth thus far.

A meta-analysis study was carried out on teacher expectation interventions and their effects on student outcomes by De Boer, Timmermans, and Van Der Werf (2018). The researchers delved into 19 studies meeting their eligibility criteria after a literature search on PsycINFO and ERIC. They found out three kinds of interventions, namely changing teacher behaviour, awareness of expectancy effects, and teacher beliefs concealed in expectations. More importantly, they underlined the possibility of raising teacher expectations (De Boer et al., 2018). Tenenbaum and Ruck (2007) addressed the differentiation of teacher expectations for ethnic minority or European American students through another meta-analysis study. After working on 32 studies, they revealed that teachers tended to hold higher and more positive expectations for European American students than ethnic minority ones. It was also reported that teachers made fewer positive referrals and speech to ethnic minority students (Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). The first systematic review on this issue was published in 2018 by Wang, Rubie-Davies, and Meissel (2018) where the quantitative studies reporting only statistically significant findings were essentially included, and the effects of teacher expectations on student achievement were investigated by going back to the last 30 years only (1989-2018). The

researchers conducted the study on PsycINFO and ERIC and included 144 articles meeting their inclusion and exclusion criteria. They put forth four main themes regarding influential factors on teacher expectations, transmission ways of teacher expectations, factors moderating teacher expectations effects, and teacher expectation effects on student achievement (Wang et al., 2018). Depending on the fact that these meta-analyses and the systematic review scrutinized merely quantitative studies on similar databases, the current systematic review aspired to specifically address qualitative findings in the literature, which might display more in-depth perspectives of teachers concerning their expectations of students and their classroom behaviors. In addition, unlike the other studies mentioned above, the researchers took 1968 as the starting point of the literature search for this review, when Rosenthal and Jacobson's study was first conducted.

Method

Research Design

The present study employed the systematic review as its research design. The characteristics of this design can be considered as adopting a bias-free approach with the use of a rigorous and methodical way of literature search in a specific field (Hanley & Cutts, 2013). Petticrew and Roberts (2006) focus on the significant aspects of this method, which are to examine, compile and reunite research evidence in a critical way. To achieve this, having a set of eligibility criteria to choose studies from the literature, providing a systematic and reproducible method, and an organized way of synthesizing and presenting the findings of the included studies are musts of this design so as to answer the research questions formulated for the review (Systematic Review Module, 2018).

Research Questions

To achieve the aforementioned purposes, the present study sought answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the potential reasons shaping teacher expectations of students regarding their academic achievement in the research studies selected for the review?
2. How are teacher expectations transmitted, tracked, or reflected in teachers' behaviors in classrooms to students in the studies selected for the review?

Procedures of Literature Search

Since most of them were fed by similar sources, certain electronic databases for educational research were selected for the review, namely EBSCOhost – Academic Research Complete, ERIC, and Science Direct along with Journal Park Academic powered by TUBITAK ULAKBIM and Higher Education Council Theses Centre with the aim of reviewing the studies in both Turkish and international contexts. Another reason behind this selection was also the fact that it provided a better manageability and practicality for the researchers. While searching, various combinations of keywords were employed such as "teacher* expectation* AND student achievement", "teacher* expectation* AND academic achievement", "self-fulfilling prophecy in education", "Pygmalion in the classroom", "teacher* expectation* of students*" since they constitute the major terms in titles, abstracts, or keywords of the studies. For Turkish databases, "öğretmen beklentileri", "öğretmenlerin başarı beklentileri", "Pygmalion etkisi" were utilized.

Depending on the options offered by these databases, peer-reviewed, full-text, open-access/archive, academic journals, research/journal articles, and theses and doctoral dissertations were selected interchangeably to narrow down the search to more reliable studies.

The number of initial results declined with the selection of the studies written in either English or Turkish and published after 1968. Within the scope of the current systematic review, the databases were last accessed on the 2nd of January 2020 by the researchers, and the total number of the recognized studies was 1.227. EBSCOhost-Academic Research Complete contributed to this number with 199 studies, ERIC with 535 studies, Science Direct with 489 studies, and HEC Thesis Centre with 4 studies. No studies including the target keywords were found on Journal Park Academic.

Inclusion-Exclusion Criteria

The duplicates were firstly removed from these 1.227 studies by using Mendeley Software (Elsevier, Mendeley Ltd., 2020). The studies without full texts were also excluded from the review. After this identification process, 319 studies were found appropriate for the upcoming screening process. In the next phase, *the first criterion* was to exclude the studies conducted on teachers' expectations of disabled, gifted, and ethnically diverse students since the current systematic review primarily focused on teachers' expectations of students' academic achievement naturally occur in regular classes because both the field of special education and ethnicity issues require a different academic perspective and expertise due to their complexity stemming from the combination of psychology, anthropology, and sociology disciplines (Good & Nichols, 2001; Odom et al., 2005). For this reason, teachers of such learners are expected to demonstrate different classroom behaviors and play varying roles and responsibilities (Eisenman et al., 2011) shaping their expectations of students in return (Gillung & Rucker, 1977).

Based on the first criterion, the researcher discarded 106 studies. *The second criterion* was to exclude the studies carried out with pre-service teachers and students based on their expectations of teachers or the teaching profession, teachers' accuracy of judgements, their expectations of themselves, or expectations of the implementations of a new method, or teaching approach because they do not reflect the essential aim of the current review. Herein, 21 studies were eliminated from the review.

In line with the purpose of the study, the researchers excluded 160 quantitative studies. Therefore, in the *eligibility* process, the researcher included qualitative and mixed design studies only based on *the third criterion* in line with the aim of the study, which was to display a multifaceted picture of teachers' expectations of student achievement and their classroom behaviors rather than presenting only statistically meaningful findings. Finally, the studies which collected qualitative data directly from in-service teachers were involved in the study as a result of *the fourth criterion*. All in all, 32 studies were *included* in the study in the final step. These processes can be examined through a three-step flowchart demonstrated in Figure 1.

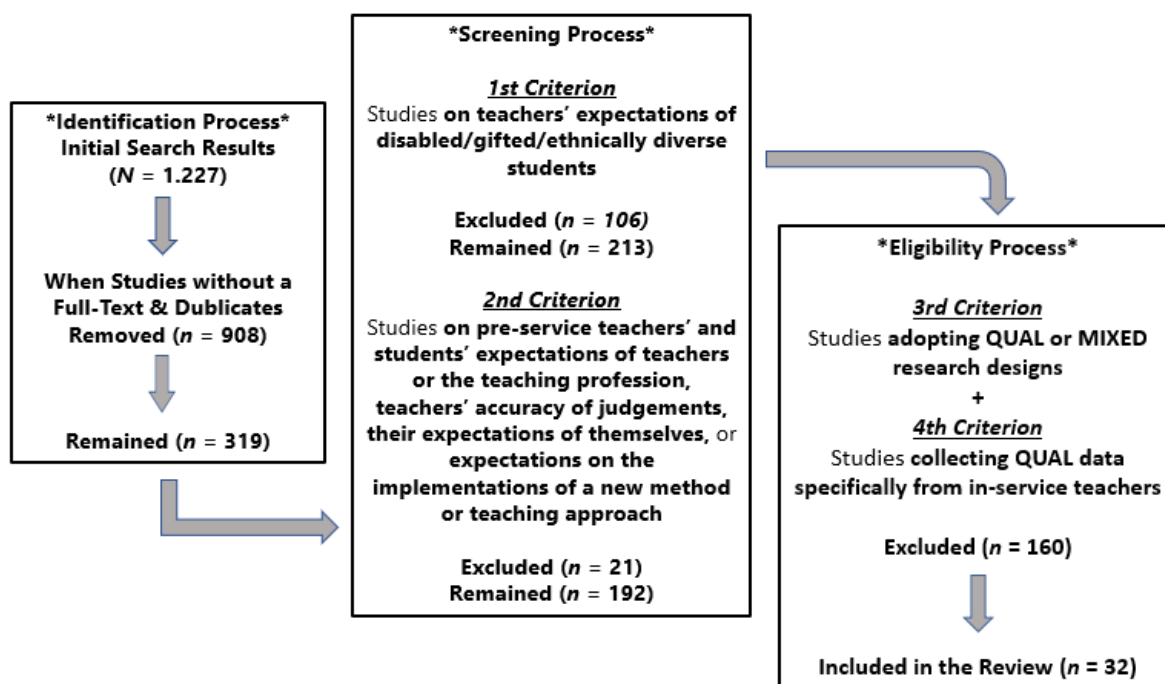


Figure 1. A Three-Step Flowchart Indicating the Steps of the Review

Data Extraction and Analysis

By the nature of the systematic research, the researchers first examined the characteristics of the selected studies involving their aims, participants, research contexts where the data were collected, data collection instruments, sampling methods, and data analysis procedures. Apart from this data extraction process, the findings of the studies were analyzed through content analysis with the derivation of codes and themes determined in line with the research questions of the current review. In addition, the researchers checked their code agreements in the analysis but did not calculate the congruence.

Results

Profile of the Selected Studies

Among the studies included in the review ($n = 32$), 90.63% of them ($n = 29$) were research articles published in academic journals, 6.25% of them ($n = 2$) were doctoral dissertations, and 3.13% ($n = 1$) of them were master's theses. When the school contexts were scrutinized, 20.51% ($n = 8$) of the studies collected qualitative data from elementary schools, 17.95% ($n = 7$) of them from secondary schools and primary schools ($n = 8$), and 12.82% ($n = 5$) of them collected data from middle schools and high schools ($n = 5$). Moreover, 5.12% ($n = 2$) of the studies were conducted at universities while 2.56% ($n = 1$) were carried out in a kindergarten. Four studies did not specify the school setting at all. Table 1 indicates more detailed descriptive information about the studies.

Table 1. *Descriptive Information about the Included Studies*

<i>Citations</i>	<i>Methods/Designs</i>	<i>Participants</i>	<i>Instruments</i>
Engin, 2018	Multiple case study	20 teachers	Open-ended questionnaire
Göksoy, 2018	Phenomenology	15 teachers	Semi-structured interview
Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018	Grounded theory	20 teachers	Semi-structured interview
Timmons, 2018	Qualitative (not specified)	30 teachers	Open-ended questionnaire
Whittle, Telford, & Benson, 2018	Qualitative (not specified)	37 teachers	Focus group interview & field notes
Amini, 2016	Qualitative (not specified)	2 teachers	Semi-structured interview
Fletcher, 2016	Qualitative (not specified)	126 students & 7 teachers	Students' artefacts & interview
McDonald, Flint, Rubie-Davies, Peterson, Watson, & Garrett, 2016	Qualitative (not specified)	84 teachers	Open-ended questionnaire, field notes, & workshop evaluation form
Niari, Manousou, & Lionarakis, 2016	Qualitative (not specified)	6 faculty members & 16 graduate students	Non-participatory observation & semi-structured interview
Sedova & Salamounova, 2016	Micro-ethnographic discourse analysis	2 teachers & 2 students	Video-recordings of classes & interview
Yanisko, 2016	Case study	2 alternatively certified teachers	Classroom observation & field notes
Ng, Wang, & Liu, 2015	Qualitative (not specified)	48 students & 3 teachers	Group & individual interview
Nutter, 2015	Phenomenology	9 teachers	Interview, classroom observation, questionnaire & review of teacher artefacts
Deuker, 2014	Action research	3 teachers & 23 students	Focus group & individual interview
Harris, 2012	Mixed methods	270 teachers & school leaders	Semi-structured interview
Jones, Miron, & Kelaher-Young, 2012	Mixed methods	12 principals, 9 counselors, & 20 teachers	Interview & student survey
Kususanto & Fui, 2012	Qualitative (not specified)	17 teachers & 20 students	Unstructured interview

Table 1. (Cont.)

<i>Citations</i>	<i>Methods/Designs</i>	<i>Participants</i>	<i>Instruments</i>
Nishino, 2012	Mixed methods	4 teachers	Classroom observation, field notes, survey & individual interview
Williams, 2012	Quasi-experimental mixed methods	170 teachers	Open-ended survey
Mercuri & Ebe, 2011	Qualitative (not specified)	1 teacher	Observation, audio-taped instruction, & interview
Odabasi-Cimer & Cimer, 2010	Mixed methods	24 teachers	Semi-structured interview & document analysis
Rubie-Davies, Irving, Peterson, & Widdowson, 2010	Qualitative (not specified)	26 teachers	Focus group interview
Stevens & Vermeersch, 2010	Mixed methods	17 teachers	Semi-structured interview, survey, & student performance test
Wedin, 2010	Ethnography	3 teachers	Classroom observation & interview
Calabrese, Hummel, & Martin, 2007	Case study	16 teachers, 2 principals, & 1 assistant principal	Focus group, semi-structured individual interview, & online survey
Bergqvist, 2005	Qualitative (not specified)	8 teachers	Interview
Jones & Myhill, 2004	Qualitative (not specified)	144 students & 40 teachers	Semi-structured interview & classroom observation
Janisch & Johnson, 2003	Qualitative (not specified)	11 teachers	Interview, field notes, & classroom observation
Timperley & Phillips, 2003	Mixed methods	26 teachers	Follow-up interview, questionnaire & observation
Robinson, 1994	Mixed methods	180 students, 6 teachers, & 30 parents	Observation, interview, questionnaire, & school records
Goldenberg, 1992	Case study	2 first graders & 1 teacher	Classroom observation & performance test
Eder, 1981	Mixed methods	23 students & 1 teacher	Observation, individual interview, & analyses of video-taped classroom interaction

Although the selected studies underlined that they utilized qualitative research paradigm in general, 33.33% of the studies ($n = 13$) did not clarify any specific qualitative research design, 23.08% of them ($n = 9$) employed mixed methods without specifying any typology from the

relevant literature. Furthermore, 5.12% of them ($n = 2$) used ethnography, 10.25% of them ($n = 4$) used case study, and 5.12% of them used ($n = 2$) phenomenology. While one study utilized grounded theory, another one was an action research study as seen in Figure 2. Despite being limited, typical qualitative sampling procedures were explicitly stated to be used such as purposive maximum variation sampling (Göksoy, 2018), snowball sampling (Amini, 2016), convenience sampling (Niari et al., 2016), and criterion-based purposive sampling (Nutter, 2015).

As for data collection instruments, the selected studies described the following methods, which were namely open-ended surveys (e.g., Engin, 2018; Timmons, 2018; Williams, 2012), unstructured or semi-structured individual interviews (e.g., Amini, 2016; Göksoy, 2018; Harris, 2012; Kususanto & Fui, 2012; Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018; Ng et al., 2015; Niari et al., 2016; Nishino, 2012), classroom observations (e.g., Goldenberg, 1992; Niari et al., 2016; Nishino, 2012; Timperley & Phillips, 2003; Yanisko, 2016), video-recordings of classroom interaction (e.g., Eder, 1981; Mercuri & Ebe, 2011; Sedova & Salamounova, 2016), document analyses through the reviews of teacher artefacts (Mercuri & Ebe, 2011; Nutter, 2015; Odabasi-Cimer & Cimer, 2010) or student artefacts (Fletcher, 2016), student performance tests and school records (Goldenberg, 1992; Robinson, 1994; Stevens & Vermeersch, 2010), and focus group interviews (Calabrese et al., 2007; Deuker, 2014; Rubie-Davies et al., 2010; Whittle et al., 2018). Furthermore, the researchers' field notes also contributed to the data collection procedures of certain selected studies (e.g., Janisch & Johnson, 2003; McDonald et al., 2016; Nishino, 2012; Yanisko, 2016).

All the studies in the review employed content analysis and derived codes and themes. While analyzing the data, some studies underlined the use of certain qualitative data analysis software such as N6 (Stevens & Vermeersch, 2010), MrInterview and CATPAC (Calabrese et al., 2007), Atlas Ti (Harris, 2012), and NVivo (Whittle, Telford, & Benson, 2018). Moreover, one of the studies touched upon Excel as a helpful tool in data analysis (Nutter, 2015). When examined closely, some of the selected studies overtly declared that open or axial coding (Jones et al., 2012; Stevens & Vermeersch, 2010; Whittle et al., 2018), selective coding (Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018), situation or activity codes (Kususanto & Fui, 2012) were adopted as coding strategies. However, such details were rarely given in the included studies of the review.

When it comes to the trustworthiness of the selected studies, the researchers mainly put emphasis on intercoder reliability assured through the help of a second qualitative researcher who was responsible for coding the data (Eder, 1981; Engin, 2018; Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018; McDonald et al., 2016; Mercuri & Ebe, 2011; Ng et al., 2015; Odabasi-Cimer & Cimer, 2010; Rubie-Davies et al., 2010; Timmons, 2018). In addition, some studies stressed triangulation through different data collection methods (Calabrese et al., 2007; Harris, 2012; Mercuri & Ebe, 2011) while some highlighted other strategies such as audit trails (Calabrese et al., 2007; Nutter, 2015), member checks (Niari et al., 2016; Nishino, 2012; Nutter, 2015), thick descriptions provided for transferability (Göksoy, 2018; Nutter, 2015), and an independent observer (Timperley & Phillips, 2003). The selected studies mostly allocated room for teachers' quotations from the interviews while presenting their findings (e.g., Amini, 2016; Deuker, 2014; Göksoy, 2018; Yanisko, 2016).

After the systematic recognition of all these studies, common themes were derived in relation to the research questions. The first main theme was determined as the factors

influencing teachers' expectations of academic achievement whereas the second main theme was teachers' reflected classroom behaviors. A table for themes and codes was also presented in Table 2 below. The following sections displayed the findings in a more detailed way with the relevant quotations.

Table 2. *Themes, Sub-themes and Codes Derived from the Included Studies*

Themes	Sub-themes		Related Codes	
Factors Influencing Teachers' Expectations of Academic Achievement	Students' Readiness, and Abilities	Skills	self-efficacy beliefs cognitive readiness/capabilities comprehension/self-expression abilities prior academic achievement response and work quality	interaction with peers interest and commitment on/off-task behaviors study skills and autonomy science vs. art orientation gender
		Teacher-related Factors	past teaching/learning experiences competencies in teaching self-efficacy beliefs	professional development creativity and patience interaction with students/colleagues
	Family-related Factors		SES of families cultural/social orientation interest in children/academic work	lack of academic resources life at home
		School Policies	lack of instructional time limited instructional resources stream hierarchy	ability grouping student records
	Teachers' Reflected Classroom Behaviors	High-expectancy Students	setting clear standards for success efforts enhancing student learning teacher-student talks & teacher-parent conferences more cognitively demanding tasks putting pressure	classroom language more eye-contact & proximity reflectivity during instruction more group work & student autonomy knowing them better monitoring them less
Low-expectancy Students		scaffolding & structured support spoon-feeding adjusting the standards/instruction	providing less response time addressing them less harsher warnings labelling	

Factors Influencing Teachers' Expectations About Students' Academic Achievement

In line with the first research question, the researchers defined a main theme named the factors influencing teachers' expectations of academic achievement under which there were

certain sub-themes as *students' readiness, skills, and abilities, teacher- and family-related factors, and school policies.*

Students' Readiness, Skills, and Abilities

Within this review, the included studies revealed student-related factors shaping teachers' expectations of student achievement which were students' lack of pre-learning or cognitive readiness to learn new subjects (Göksoy, 2018; Timperley & Phillips, 2003), self-efficacy beliefs (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010), problems with the medium of instruction hindering comprehension and self-expression (Nishino, 2012; Timperley & Phillips, 2003), cognitive capabilities, maturity (Eder, 1981; Göksoy, 2018; Harris, 2012; Nutter, 2015), prior academic achievement (Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018; Niari et al., 2016; Rubie-Davies, et al., 2010), reading and writing skills in exams and expressions used in-class activities (Bergqvist, 2005; Harris, 2012; Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018; Timperley & Phillips, 2003). Students' interactions with their friends, response, and work quality during lessons were also reported as the other factors shaping teacher expectations of students' academic achievement (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010). Some of these findings were evidenced by the quotations below:

"I do not believe that all of my students are able to learn all subjects. Because each student is different in terms of perception and learning levels. (T8)" (Göksoy, 2018, p. 210).

"I feel that it's very important not to push these children beyond their learning capabilities or their absorption levels at that time. You can't push these children into a place where they're not ready. Then you see what will happen ... they'll flounder. (A teacher)" (Timperley & Phillips, 2003, p. 636).

"When I call on students, they only repeat what is written in the textbook... They do not say anything different at all (T16)." (Odabasi-Cimer & Cimer, 2010, p. 9).

Moreover, students' interest and commitment to the subjects (Deuker, 2014; Fletcher, 2016; Göksoy, 2018; Ng et al., 2015; Niari et al., 2016), motivation in learning and test-taking (Deuker, 2014; Fletcher, 2016; Göksoy, 2018; Harris, 2012; Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018; Ng et al., 2015; Nishino, 2012), study skills and autonomy such as previewing the textbook before classes and doing exercises after classes (Deuker, 2014; Fletcher, 2016; Harris, 2012; Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018), and having academic discipline (Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018) also stood out as the student-related factors affecting teacher expectations as explained by a teacher:

"I would be expecting them all to be researching independently. I would be expecting them all to be independently seeking me out for areas and asking questions as opposed to just coming to lessons and doing their homework. (T3)" (Deuker, 2014, p. 72).

On the contrary, students' off-task behaviors in class, insufficient abilities and short attention span to keep up with the classroom routines may lead them to be regarded as low-expectancy students (Eder, 1981; Goldenberg, 1992). Teachers tended to expect more from science-oriented/stream students than art-oriented/stream ones who were only expected to pass the required exams and have more off-task behaviors in classes while science-oriented/stream ones were expected to achieve much higher scores (Kususanto & Fui, 2012; Yanisko, 2016). It was exemplified by the comments of a student from an art-oriented stream: *"My teachers used to prejudge us as being incapable to score high. (S11)"* (Kususanto & Fui, 2012, p. 112).

Even in the 21st century, students' gender was also seen as another factor shaping teachers' expectations of students' academic achievement (Nutter, 2015; Williams, 2012). Sometimes high-achiever female students were described as *"a girl who does more than is required (Teacher X)"* whereas no male students were defined like that (Jones & Myhill, 2004, p. 556). However, sometimes the high-achieving female students were considered "typical" while high-achieving male students were accepted as "atypical" in the eyes of their teachers (Jones & Myhill, 2004). Moreover, Janisch and Johnson (2003) also quoted a teacher who was surprised by male students' positive attitudes towards Shakespeare's work in their study:

"I thought they would be frustrated with this topic. ... but they became enthusiastic about the reading. It consumed them. When we read certain passages ... you could hear a pin drop. They were that interested in finding out the emotions and feeling ... even the boys." (p.302).

Teacher-related Factors

Secondly, *teacher-related* factors were also underlined in the included studies, which are teachers' lack of knowing their students' actual performances and their past teaching and learning experiences since teachers *teach as being taught* (Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018; Ng et al., 2015; Nishino, 2012). Moreover, teachers' competencies in teaching (Göksoy, 2018; Harris, 2012; Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018; Nishino, 2012) and their self-efficacy beliefs (Harris, 2012; Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018; Nishino, 2012) also came to the surface as the factors derived from the studies selected. To illustrate, there were teachers reporting that although they knew the potential in students, they professionally did not know what to do to reveal it with these words: *"... I can see the potential in this kid, but I don't know how to draw it out, to maximize it. (A Math teacher)"* (Harris, 2012, p. 138). Another teacher underlined the significance of professional development opportunities in Timperley and Phillips' study (2003) by expressing: *"Maybe the professional development made us lift our expectations of what children can do. It has made us look at what we're doing ourselves."* (p. 636).

Teachers' creativity, patience, and beliefs (Göksoy, 2018; Ng et al., 2015; Nishino, 2012) were also declared as the other factors having an impact on teachers' expectations of students' academic achievement since some teachers' notion was that every student could master the standards (Göksoy, 2018; Harris, 2012). However, some teachers expressed that while some of their students could easily contribute to society after being employed, some *"will be rotting in jail"* (Rubie-Davies, et al., 2010, p. 43). Similar to these arguments, some teachers believed that low-expectancy students were *"are hard to reach, ... and only capable of working with a watered-down curriculum"* (Calabrese et al., 2007, p. 287).

Furthermore, teachers' interaction with students and colleagues (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010) was also reported to influence their expectations in time. Teachers' expectations were also formed by their own experiences with the students and their colleagues' opinions about the students (Amini, 2016).

Family-related Factors

Family-related factors became also apparent based on the socio-economic status of students' families (Odabasi-Cimer & Cimer, 2010; Göksoy, 2018; Harris, 2012; Nutter, 2015; Robinson, 1994; Stevens & Vermeersch, 2010), their cultural or social orientation (Odabasi-

Cimer & Cimer, 2010; Harris, 2012), their insufficient interest in their children and their academic work (Calabrese et al., 2007; Timperley & Phillips, 2003), lack of academic resources provided at home (Harris, 2012; Timperley & Phillips, 2003), and students' home life (Calabrese et al., 2007; Göksoy, 2018; Harris, 2012; Wedin, 2010). For instance, one interviewee teacher mentioned these issues by expressing that "... *Low socioeconomic students are going to perform lower because they don't have as many books in the home. Students don't know half the vocabulary you are looking at. ...*" (Harris, 2012, p. 137). Another quotation from Calabrese et al.'s (2007) study evidenced the same issue:

"The kids that we usually can't reach or have the most difficult time with are the ones that we get no parental support from. (Mike)" (p. 287)

Students from low socio-economic backgrounds were also considered more problematic regarding their attention span and working memory, which made them low-expectancy students for teachers (Nutter, 2015). What is more, students' motivation to learn and encouragement to go to university also built a base for teacher expectations depending on the level of their parents' valuing education (Rubie-Davies, et al., 2010). In relation to this, a teacher quoted in Robinson's (1994) study asked a crucial question *"If the parent has little concern for the child, why should I?"* (p.518).

School Policies

Finally, teachers mentioned that lack of instructional time (Harris, 2012) and limited instructional resources (Engin, 2018; Göksoy, 2018; Whittle et al., 2018) also had the potential to impact teachers' expectations of student achievement. It was also revealed that certain school administrators set different standards, goals, and programs for art-oriented/stream and science-oriented/stream students, which was a situation influencing teacher expectations and students' self-esteem in return (Kususanto & Fui, 2012). Some studies specifically touched upon a stream hierarchy and emphasized lower-stream schools (e.g., vocational education schools) as having less hard-working and more problematic students, and hence, negatively affecting teacher expectations of student achievement when compared to higher-stream schools (e.g., technical or general education schools) (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010; Stevens & Vermeersch, 2010) as depicted below:

"And I said, whoever told you, you could pick any goal you want really didn't realize that you were going to say you're going to be a brain surgeon, because . . . you can't tie your shoes. I mean, I don't want to rain on their parade, but sometimes it's not too realistic. (Teacher)" (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010, p. 42).

The same *streaming* factor was also described as an obstacle to the formation of self-esteem in students due to the student stereotypes determined by teachers (Kususanto & Fui, 2012; Rubie-Davies et al., 2010). In some schools, ability grouping in classes also had an impact on teachers' expectations of student achievement (Amini, 2016; Eder, 1981; Goldenberg, 1992; Nutter, 2015; Timmons, 2018; Williams, 2012). In addition, some school administrators wanted teachers to read students' records before they started teaching and there were teachers reporting that reading such kind of documents about students would prevent them to form their own expectations from scratch regarding students' academic achievement (Amini, 2016). In this issue, Amini (2016) quoted a teacher declaring this: *"... I was told within the first week, I*

would have to spend time going through the student's Ontario Student Record and as a teacher... I felt I'm not gonna do that... because I don't want those biases to creep in." (p. 37).

Teachers' Reflected Classroom Behaviors

As an attempt to answer the second research question, the reviewed studies were investigated to reveal the evidence of teachers' classroom behaviors reflected by their high or low expectations, which also became the second main theme of the current systematic review.

Depending on their expectations of student achievement, some teachers let their students know about their expectations directly by clearly stating the expected behavior (Amini, 2016; Engin, 2018; Nutter, 2015), setting the standards for success (e.g., rubrics), and making efforts to enhance student learning outcomes (Amini, 2016; McDonald et al., 2016). Teachers sometimes preferred talking one-on-one to students (Goldenberg, 1992; Timmons, 2018), communicating with parents through private conferences (Goldenberg, 1992), or weekly newsletters sent to homes (Nutter, 2015). As reported, especially one-on-one student-teacher conferences could provide empathy, trust, and understanding regarding teacher expectations on the side of both students and teachers (Nutter, 2015). When teachers had high expectations, they also had a tendency to increase the level and the number of tasks demanding more cognitive efforts from the students for better intellectual gains (Amini, 2016; Nutter, 2015; Rubie-Davies et al., 2010; Wedin, 2010; Yanisko, 2016), employ flexible grouping in their classes where students' own choices mattered and students were guided through goal-setting and self-management strategies (McDonald et al., 2016).

In the studies analyzed, depending on teachers' expectations of student achievement, teachers differentiated their instructional methods, materials, and pacing according to students' individual differences or learning styles (Amini, 2016; Göksoy, 2018; Janisch & Johnson, 2003; Mercuri & Ebe, 2011; Li & Rubie-Davies, 2018; Nishino, 2012; Nutter, 2015; Stevens & Vermeersch, 2010; Williams, 2012) as depicted by the words of a teacher:

"... And very important for a teacher, especially with groups like that (vocational education), is how you explain things. You have to change the content of what you teach, you have to explain it in different ways, and try to get feedback, one way or another ..." (Stevens & Vermeersch, 2010, p. 274).

Therefore, as a consequence of a slackened instructional pacing, teachers complained about falling behind curricular requirements in their classes (Engin, 2018; Stevens, & Vermeersch, 2010). Furthermore, teachers provided scaffolding and structured support when they had low-expectancy students whereas they presented more collaborative and group work opportunities (Janisch & Johnson, 2003; Mercuri & Ebe, 2011; Yanisko, 2016) such as letting students check their answers with friends, edit their peers' papers or discuss the processes of problem-solving when they have high expectations of student achievement. They also assigned harder tasks, put much pressure, and expected more quality work in the presence of high-expectancy students (Jones et al., 2012; Rubie-Davies et al., 2010). More interestingly, it was exemplified in one of the studies that a high-expectancy student might also be ignored and monitored less by his/her teacher due to the beliefs that they would be fine by themselves, which made them *a victim of great expectations* in the end (Deuker, 2014; Goldenberg, 1992). Another example of the same issue could be found in Rubie-Davies et al.'s study (2010) where there were higher-

stream students declaring their teachers expected them to know things in advance and provided less support in the learning process.

Similarly, teachers' time and efforts spent on each student, and classroom management strategies also differed in relation to their expectations of students (Goldenberg, 1992; Robinson, 1994). As depicted in Eder's (1981) findings, teachers had a tendency to ask more questions and employ more management acts while working with low-expectancy students because, in such classes, low-expectancy students violated each other's turns more often. Herein, Robinson (1994) found out that the way of managing off-task behaviors during lessons also changed according to teachers' expectations of student achievement because while teachers warned low-expectancy students in a harsher manner by saying *"You wrote it all wrong"* or *"You don't listen to me"* (p. 519), they tended to use more motherly words with a soft tone of voice while warning high-expectancy ones.

Furthermore, teachers' encouragement with a friendly style and interaction with students were also accepted as signs of teacher expectations (Niari et al., 2016). To exemplify, during classroom interaction, teachers might blame or label students as being low-achiever or low-expectancy (Sedova & Salamounova, 2016); and might start to decrease teacher-student interaction time by addressing the low-expectancy ones less (Robinson, 1994), or by turning to another student when a low-expectancy student could not answer a question (Sedova & Salamounova, 2016), and by knowing personal or academic strengths of high-expectancy students more than low-expectancy ones (Sedova & Salamounova, 2016). Additionally, teachers were most of the time aware of when and whom to push students to accomplish better academic performances (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010; Timperley & Phillips, 2003) since as teachers' expectations became higher, they asked critical thinking questions, spent more time on eliciting answers from high-expectancy students (Janisch & Johnson, 2003; Sedova & Salamounova, 2016), and questioned the reasons behind the correct answers more (Yanisko, 2016).

Based on their expectations, teachers arranged their classroom language and used 1st person plural or *we* language (Niari et al., 2016; Yanisko, 2016), students' first names, superlative adjectives, and possessive pronouns (Niari et al., 2016) more frequently. Moreover, when their expectations were high, some teachers established more eye contact with students and utilized more positive facial expressions and proximity to those students during classes (Niari et al., 2016). They also tended to appreciate students more (Yanisko, 2016) and feel happier when low-expectancy students achieved higher than what they had expected (Fletcher, 2016; Goldenberg, 1992; Rubie-Davies et al., 2010; Yanisko, 2016). A teacher quoted in Fletcher's (2016) study described her/his feelings after low-expectancy students' performance as:

"Students really surprised me and worked well on their writing activity. ... Students like [Charlie], who are normally weak in writing skills, did well and never complained about having to write a recount." (p. 411)

Another teacher also mentioned their regret regarding their low expectations of students' achievement by saying:

"As wrong as it was for me to assume that these sixth graders should be at a lower level in their reading and comprehension, I expected little from them. When I saw that these

students were actively engaged in several works by Shakespeare, I went home feeling a little guilty..." (Janisch & Johnson, 2003, p. 306)

Additionally, one of the studies asserted that building rapport with students in the class was also required to learn about students' weaknesses and guide them better to take risks without being afraid of making mistakes (Nutter, 2015) in a well-established emotionally-free climate (Whittle et al., 2018; Niari et al., 2016) where student autonomy was also encouraged properly with enough guidance from the teacher (Mercuri & Ebe, 2011). What is more, teachers having high expectations of their students were found more inclined to be more self-aware and reflective in relation to what and how they were teaching in classes (Whittle et al., 2018; Ng et al., 2015), doing wrong or right (Ng et al., 2015), and finding ways to motivate students and draw the potential out of them (Amini, 2016; Harris, 2012). Similarly, they spoon-fed low-expectancy students by simplifying their teaching methods, re-arranging assignments and assessment procedures such as by revising crucial topics before exams, adjusting criteria to judge mastery of the expected standards (Harris, 2012; Nutter, 2015), presenting cognitively less demanding questions in the exams (Odabasi-Cimer & Cimer, 2010), and modifying their expectations so that low-expectancy students could achieve certain standards as well (Harris, 2012; Ng et al., 2015) because teachers did not actually mark students' exams, but their own expectations (Amini, 2016). They also varied exam questions in line with their varying expectations of student achievement as one teacher expressed with these words:

"In the exams, I ask one or two questions they can answer easily and questions that can be counted as of medium difficulty, and then there are one or two difficult questions. I want to see how many of them can answer these questions. These last ones show who really studied." (Odabasi-Cimer & Cimer, 2010, p. 14).

Another teacher also carried out a modification for low-expectancy students and was quoted in Nutter's (2015) study:

"When I put the project together, I knew I was going to have them do fewer of the requirements than the other students because I knew they wouldn't be able to handle it. ... I knew I was going to need it changed a little bit to make it easier for them." (p. 107).

It was also underlined in one of the studies that either low or high, such teacher expectations were also noticed by students; therefore, when teachers had high expectations and an encouraging manner to help students achieve higher standards academically, students started to feel the same way and reflected the expectations of their teachers (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010).

Discussion and Implications

The current review aspired to systematically investigate the potential factors building teacher expectations for students' academic achievement and teachers' reflected classroom behaviors as a result of their expectations. Student motivation and engagement in academic subjects previously stand as primary student-related factors forming the basis of teacher expectations (Thorburn, 2003; Wijnia, Loyens, Derous, & Schmidt, 2016). It is also seen that students' prior achievement is another student-related factor shaping teacher expectations in the review; however, there are some studies arguing that students' prior academic achievement makes no difference in teachers' expectations of students (Batten, Batey, Shafe, Gubby, & Birch,

2013). Moreover, students' study skills and tendencies to work independently give rise to teachers' having either low or high expectations of student achievement as asserted in previous studies (Coertjens, Donche, Maeyer, Van Daal, & Van Petegem, 2017).

Teachers' characteristics (Rubie-Davies, 2007), beliefs, and previous experiences as a student and a teacher also shape what they expect from students (Pajares, 1992) since former teaching experiences with their ex-students and previous learning experiences play significant roles in the formation of their expectations of student achievement by providing them with both professional and experiential insights. Moreover, teachers' self-efficacy is supposed to influence teachers' expectations of student achievement (Rubie-Davies, Flint, & McDonald, 2012) in a way that when teachers have higher self-efficacy beliefs and higher self-esteem in implementing certain teaching methods and techniques, they have higher expectations regarding their students' achievement so they become more inclined to think that every student can reach certain standards in learning. On the contrary, teachers' low expectations of students may bring about academically lower self-perceptions of students themselves (Rubie-Davies, 2006), which creates a disadvantageous situation due to the so-called self-fulfilling prophecy for students.

In the light of the factors shaping teacher expectations, their reflections on teachers' classroom behavior were also investigated systematically in the review. As Brophy (1983) suggested, teacher expectations cannot directly influence students' academic progress; however, when teachers start to differentiate their classroom behaviours in line with their expectations, such differential behaviours of teachers are perceived by students, and then, self-fulfilling prophecy takes the lead, especially when there is a kind of special treatment towards *good* or *high-expectancy* students (Trouilloud & Sarrazin, 2003). Parallel to these arguments, while high expectations of success lead to high levels of student achievement, low expectations may tend to cause low levels of student achievement (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2013) because when students feel discouraged by teachers' low expectations in time, they stay passive during the classes and hence, go on fulfilling the low student profile attributed by the teachers (Lefstein & Snell 2014). For these reasons, depending on their expectations of students, the detection of teachers' differential classroom behaviours is still worth exploring because these behaviours are generally known as being invisible on the side of teachers (Babad, 1993).

The present systematic review also puts forth that teachers have a tendency to change and adapt their teaching methods and techniques so that students can achieve the learning outcomes as expected. With the aim of promoting students' academic progress, teachers are expected to organize the learning environment in line with students' individual differences (Dennis, 2006). On the other hand, teachers' differential behaviours such as interacting more with high-expectancy students, waiting for more to elicit the correct responses from them, and labelling low-expectancy ones in classes, might create a learning atmosphere where students, especially low-expectancy ones, are hesitant about whether the teacher likes and respects them or not (Hamre & Pianta, 2001). They might also feel that their academic abilities are undervalued by teachers (Cooper, 1984). These arguments have similarly been verified in the literature such as Brophy's study (1983) revealing that teachers tend to give correct responses directly instead of asking probes to low-expectancy students, let them sit at the back rows in classes, address them less frequently, reward even their inappropriate answers, establish less eye-contact with them, and smile less to them by paying insufficient attention to them.

Therefore, this situation may pose an obstacle to the establishment of a cooperative and encouraging classroom environment for better learning opportunities.

It has also been revealed in the review that reflective teaching is in relation to teachers' expectations of student achievement because teachers start to evaluate their own teaching skills and performance after classes when they want to accomplish more in terms of students' academic progress. When teachers possess higher expectations for their students, they make more professional investments and try to foster their teaching skills in a more conscious and motivated way (Gorski, 2008; Hinnant, O'Brien, & Ghazarian, 2009). The current review has also found out that teachers have a tendency to assign more demanding tasks to high-expectancy students so as to provide them with more cognitive gains. This finding was also proven in the literature by Brophy (1983) and Mitman (1985) indicating that high-expectancy students are more often criticized by their teachers than low-expectancy ones with the aim of displaying teachers' high expectancies even against more challenging tasks.

It seems evident that teacher expectancies may cause differential teacher behaviors in classes, which might affect levels of student achievement in return as a result of the self-fulfilling prophecy (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Therefore, especially teachers' classroom behaviors which are the reflections of their expectations of students may stand as a potential danger transmitting their low expectations of some students who may simply be considered low-achievers whose academic abilities are generally underestimated. On the other hand, some high-expectancy students may face this potential danger in a different form, which is being ignored due to the presence of their teachers' overconfidence in their academic capabilities. As a result, although they are supposed to achieve higher, such students may fall behind academically owing to their teachers' diminished care and attention during instruction.

Implications for Practice

Teacher expectations might be a potential obstacle to students' learning capabilities whether they are high or low. Whereas some students are capable of utilizing high expectations as a bar raised highly and making more efforts to reach it, some might feel underestimated and lose their confidence in attaining certain learning outcomes, especially when their teachers' low expectations become apparent. For these reasons, teachers should become more aware of what to expect from their students professionally and how they transmit these expectancies to their students with the professional understanding of knowing the possible positive or negative consequences of their expectations. Therefore, when teachers start teaching, their classroom behaviors should be scrutinized closely so that they do not pose more obstacles to some low-expectancy students' learning. Classroom observations or video recordings of the classes might be employed so as to raise teachers' self-awareness on the issue. Professional development can also be beneficial so that teachers can evaluate their teaching from the expectancies perspective and discuss the possible ways of changing their attitudes to avoid sustained expectations.

Implications for Further Research

The current systematic review showed that in teacher expectation literature there is a need for more on-site investigations such as conducting more ethnographies, case studies, or phenomenological studies which may allocate rooms for more observations, interviews, or focus groups to display fuller, more authentic and in-depth pictures concerning how teacher

expectations are reflected in classrooms. Rather than focusing on the factors shaping teacher expectations, their genuine reflections to classrooms as teacher classroom behaviors, might be studied more frequently because these studies are the ones revealing the real effects of teacher expectations on students and their academic achievement. For a similar purpose, students' expectations can also be examined qualitatively so as to find out whether they are in compliance with their teachers' expectations, and learn more about their feelings and reactions to their teachers' expectations as affective filters in learning processes. Herein, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, reflectivity, and perfectionism might be potential variables influencing their expectations of students by affecting their standards and definitions of *achievement*. Future studies and researchers might focus on possible relationships among these variables. Studies leading to model or theory building on factors influencing teacher classroom behaviors could also be helpful.

References

Note. The studies starting with an "*" are the ones included in the systematic review.

- *Amini, A. W. (2016). *Pygmalion effect: reflexive strategies to mitigate teacher bias*. (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Toronto, Canada.
- Andres, V. (2002). The Influence of affective variables on EFL/ESL learning and teaching. *The Journal of the Imagination in Language Learning and Teaching*, 7, 1-5.
- Babad, E. (1992). Teacher expectancies and nonverbal behavior. In R. S. Feldman (Ed.), *Applications of nonverbal behavioral theories and research* (pp. 167-190). Hillsdale, NJ, US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Babad, E. (1993). Pygmalion: 25 years after interpersonal expectations in the classroom. In P. D. Blank (Ed.), *Interpersonal expectations: Theory, research, and application. Studies in emotional and social interactions* (pp. 125-153). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Batten, J., Batey, J., Shafe, L., Gubby, L., & Birch, P. (2013). The influence of reputation information on the assessment of undergraduate student work. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 38, 417-435. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2011.640928>
- Brophy, J. E. (1983). Research on the self-fulfilling prophecy and teacher expectations. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 75, 631-661.
- Brophy, J. E., & Good, T. L. (1970). Teachers' communication of differential expectations for children's classroom performance: Some behavioral data. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 61(5), 365-374.
- Claassen, A., & Mulders, L. (2003). *Students after the transition*. Nijmegen, ITS.
- Coertjens, L., Donche, V., Maeyer, S. D., Van Daal, T., & Van Petegem, P. (2017). The growth trend in learning strategies during the transition from secondary to higher education in Flanders. *Higher Education*, 73, 499-518. Retrieved from <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10734-016-0093-x>
- Cooper, H. (1984). Models for teacher expectation communication. In J. B. Dusk, V. C. Hall, & W. J. Meyer (Eds.), *Teacher expectancies*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Cruikshank, D.R., Jenkins, D.B., & Metcalf, K.K. (2009). *The act of teaching*. Boston: McGraw Hill.
- De Boer, H., Bosker, R. J., & Van der Werf, M. P. C. (2010). Sustainability of teacher expectation bias effects on long-term student performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 102, 168-179. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017289>
- De Boer, H., Timmermans, A. C., & Van der Werf, M. P. C. (2018). The effects of teacher expectation interventions on teachers' expectations and student achievement: narrative review and meta-analysis. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 24(3-5), 180-200. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2018.1550834>
- Dennis, T. (2006). Emotional self-regulation in pre-schoolers: The interplay of child approach reactivity, parenting, and control capacities. *Development Psychology*, 42, 84-97.
- *Deuker, C. (2014). What expectations do teachers have research cycle. *The British Psychological Society*, 20(2), 64-78.
- Ditton, H., Krüsken, J., & Schauenberg, M. (2005). *Bildungsungleichheit– der Beitrag von Familie und Schule, Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft*. 8, 285-304.
- Driessen, G., & van Langen, A. (2013) Gender differences in primary and secondary education: Are girls really outperforming boys? *International Review of Education*, 59, 67-86.

- Dusek, J. B., & Joseph, G. (1983). The bases of teacher expectancies: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 75(3), 327–346. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.75.3.327>
- Eisenman, L. T., Pleet, A. M., Wandry, D., & McGinley, V. (2011). Voices of special education teachers in an inclusive high school: Redefining responsibilities. *Remedial and Special Education* 32(2) 91-104.
- Gentrup, S., & Rjosk, C. (2018). Pygmalion and the gender gap: Do teacher expectations contribute to differences in achievement between boys and girls at the beginning of schooling? *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 24(3-5), 295-323.
- Gillung, T. B., & Rucker, C. N. (1977). Labels and teacher expectations. *Exceptional Children*, 43(7), 464-465.
- *Goldenberg, C. (1992). The limits of expectations: A case for case knowledge about teacher expectancy effects. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29(3), 517-544.
- Good, T. L., & Nichols, S. L. (2001). Expectancy effects in the classroom: A special focus on improving the reading performance of minority students in first grade classrooms, *Educational Psychologist*, 36(2), 113-126. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15326985EP3602_6
- Gorski, P. (2008). The myth of the culture of poverty. *Educational Leadership*, 65(7), 32-36.
- *Göksoy, S. (2018). Teacher views on the applicability of mastery learning model in teaching learning process. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 18(78), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.14689/ejer.2018.78.10>
- Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2001). Early teacher-child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. *Child Development*, 72(2), 625-638.
- Hanley, T., & Cutts, L. (2013). What is a systematic review? *Counselling Psychology Review*, 28(4), 3-6.
- *Harris, D. M. (2012). Varying teacher expectations and standards: Curriculum differentiation in the age of standards-based reform. *Education and Urban Society*, 44(2), 128-150. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124511431568>
- Hinnant, J. B., O'Brien, M., & Ghazarian, S. R. (2009). The longitudinal relations of teacher expectations to achievement in the early school years. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 101(3), 662–670.
- Jordan, A., & Stanovich, P. (2001). Patterns of teacher-student interaction in inclusive elementary classrooms and correlates with student self-concept. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 48, 33-52. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10349120120036297>
- Jussim, L., Robustelli, S. L., & Cain, T. R. (2009). Teacher expectations and self-fulfilling prophecies. In K. R. Wentzel, & A. Wigfield (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation at school* (pp. 349-379). New York, NY: Routledge.
- *Kususanto, P., & Fui, C. S. (2012). Streaming and students' self-esteem: A qualitative study on teachers' correspondence bias. *Journal of Educational, Health and Community Psychology*, 1(2), 20–30.
- Lefstein, A., & Snell, J. (2014). *Better than best practice: Developing teaching and learning through dialogue*. Routledge, London.
- Li, Z., & Rubie-Davies, C. (2017). Teachers matter: Expectancy effects in Chinese university English-foreign-language classrooms. *Studies in Higher Education*, 42, 2042-2060. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2015.1130692>

- *Li, Z., & Rubie-Davies, C. M. (2018). Teacher expectations in a university setting: The perspectives of teachers. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 24(3-5), 201-220. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2018.1550835>
- Lunenburg, F. C., & Ornstein, A. C. (2013). *Educational administration [Eğitim yönetimi]*. G. Arastaman (Translate Eds.). Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık.
- Madon, S., Jussim, L., & Eccles, J. S. (1997). In search of the powerful self-fulfilling prophecy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72, 791-809.
- McClure, J., Meyer, L. H., Garisch, J., Fischer, R., Weir, K. F., & Walkey, F. H. (2011). Students' attributions for their best and worst marks: Do they relate to achievement? *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 36(2), 71-81.
- Mendeley (2020). *Elsevier Mendeley Ltd.* [Computer software]. Retrieved from <https://www.mendeley.com/>
- Merton, R. K. (1968). *Social theory and social structure*. New York: Free Press of Glencoe.
- Mitman, A. L. (1985). Teachers' differential behavior toward higher and lower achieving students and its relation to selected teacher characteristics. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77(2), 149-161.
- *Ng, B., Liu, W. C., & Wang, C. K. J. (2015). A preliminary examination of teachers' and students' perspectives on autonomy-supportive instructional behaviors. *Qualitative Research in Education*, 4(2), 192-221. <https://doi.org/10.17583/qre.2015.1463>
- *Niari, M., Manousou, E., & Lionarakis, A. (2016). The pygmalion effect in distance learning: A case study at the Hellenic Open University. *European Journal of Open, Distance and E-Learning*, 19(1), 36-52. <https://doi.org/10.1515/eurodl-2016-0003>
- *Nishino, T. (2012). Modeling teacher beliefs and practices in context: A multimethods approach. *Modern Language Journal*, 96(3), 380-399. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2012.01364.x>
- *Nutter, B. M. (2015). *A phenomenological investigation of teachers' beliefs, expectations, and perceptions of classroom practices*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation) University of Northern Colorado, Greeley Colorado, the USA. Retrieved from <http://ovidsp.ovid.com/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&PAGE=reference&D=psyc13&NEWS=N&AN=2016-37849-234>
- Odom, S. L., Brantlinger, E., Gersten, R., Horner, R., Thompson, B., & Harris, K. R. (2005). Research in special education: Scientific methods and evidence-based practice. *Exceptional Children*, 71(2), 137-148.
- Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62, 307-332. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543062003307>
- Petticrew, M., & Roberts, H. (2006). *Systematic reviews in the social sciences. A practical guide*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- Rampaul, W., Singh, M., & Didyk, J. (1984). The Relationship between academic achievement and teacher expectations of native children in a northern Manitoba school. *TESL Canada Journal*, 2(1), 27-40. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v2i1.447>
- Rhem, J. (1999). Pygmalion in the classroom. *NTLF*, 8(2), 1-4.
- Rosenthal, R., & Jacobson, L. (1968). Pygmalion in the classroom. *The Urban Review*, 3(1), 16-20. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02322211>

- Rosenthal, R (1974). *On the social psychology of the self-fulfilling prophecy: Further evidence for Pygmalion effects and their mediating mechanisms*. New York: MSS Modular Publications.
- Rubie-Davies, C. M. (2006). Teacher expectations and student self-perceptions: Exploring relationships. *Psychology in the Schools*, 43, 537-552.
- Rubie-Davies, C. M. (2007). Classroom interactions: Exploring the practices of high and low expectation teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77, 289-306.
- *Rubie-Davies, C. M., Peterson, E., Earl, I., Deborah, W., & Robyn, D. (2010). Expectations of achievement student, teacher and parent perceptions. *Research in Education*, 83, 36-53.
- Rubie-Davies, C. M., Flint, A., & McDonald, L. G. (2012). Teacher beliefs, teacher characteristics, and school contextual factors: What are the relationships? *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 270-288. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8279.2011.02025.x>
- *Salamounova, Z., & Sedova, K. (2016). Teacher expectancies, teacher behaviour and students' participation in classroom discourse. *Journal of Educational Enquiry*, 15(1), 44-61.
- Skinner, E., & Belmont, M. (1993). Motivation in the classroom: Reciprocal effects of teacher behavior and student engagement across the school year. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 85, 571-581.
- Smith, S. S. (2011). *The user's guide to the human mind*. New Harbinger Publications, Inc.
- Stegemiller, H. A. (1989). *An annotated bibliography of the literature dealing with the contributing factors of teacher expectations on student performance* (Report No. SP 031 604). Indiana University, South Bend, the USA. Retrieved from: <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED313323.pdf>
- Systematic Review Module. (2018). Retrieved from: <https://ebbp.org/training/systematicreview>
- Tenenbaum, H., & Ruck, M. (2007). Are teachers' expectations different for racial minority than for European American students?: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99 (2), 253-273. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.99.2.253>
- Timmermans, A. C., De Boer, H., & Van Der Werf, M. P. C. (2016) An investigation of the relationship between teachers' expectations and teachers' perceptions of student attributes. *Social Psychology Education*, 19, 217-240. Retrieved from <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s11218-015-9326-6>
- *Timperley, H. S., & Phillips, G. (2003). Changing and sustaining teachers' expectations through professional development in literacy. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 19(6), 627-641. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X\(03\)00058-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(03)00058-1)
- Thorburn, M. (2003). *The effects of an integrated curriculum model on teacher's pedagogy practices*. Paper presented at the British Educational Research Association Annual Conference, Heriot-Watt University, Edinburgh.
- Trouilloud, D., & Sarrazin, P. (2003). Les connaissances actuelles sur l' effet Pygmal ion: Processus, poids et modulateurs. *Revue Française de Pédagogie*, 145, 89-119.
- Wang, S., Rubie-Davies, C. M., Meissel, K. (2018). A systematic review of the teacher expectation literature over the past 30 years. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 24(3-5), 124-179.
- Warren, S. (2002). Stories from the classroom: How expectations and efficacy of diverse teachers affect the academic performance of children in poor urban schools. *Educational Horizons*, 80(3), 109-116.

- Weinstein, R. S. (2002). *Reaching higher: The power of expectations in schooling*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wijnia, L., Loyens, S. M. M., Derous, E., & Schmidt, H. G. (2016). University teacher judgments in problem-based learning: Their accuracy and reasoning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 59, 203–212. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.06.005>
- *Williams, A. R. (2012). *The effect of teachers' expectations and perceptions on student achievement in reading for third and fifth grade students*. (Doctoral Dissertation). The University of Southern Mississippi, the USA.
- *Yanisko, E. J. (2016). Negotiating perceptions of tracked students. novice teachers facilitating high-quality mathematics instruction. *Journal of Urban Mathematics Education*, 9(2), 153-184.



TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Öğretmenlerin Beklentileri ve Sınıf İçi Davranışları Üzerine SistematiK Bir İnceleme

Giriş

Öğretmenlerin beklenti düzeylerinin öğrencilerin öğrenme çıktıları üzerinde etkisi vardır (Rosenthal ve Jacobson, 1968) ve bu durum literatürde *Pygmalion etkisi* olarak da tanımlanabilmektedir. Bu beklentiler, eğitim ortamlarında standartları belirlemek ve öğrencileri değerlendirmek için büyük önem taşımaktadır, çünkü öğretmenler daha az beklentiye sahip olduklarında ve daha düşük standartlar belirlediklerinde, öğrenciler daha fazla çaba harcamadan bunları başarma eğilimi gösterirler. Diğer yandan, eğer öğretmenler daha yüksek standartlar belirler ve daha fazlasını beklerse, öğrenciler bunları başarmak için daha fazla çaba ve ilerleme gösterme eğilimindedir.

İlgili alanyazın, öğretmen beklentilerinin nasıl şekillendiğini gösteren faktörleri araştıran birçok çalışmaya da ev sahipliği yapmaktadır. Öğrencilerin etnik kökenleri (Rampaul et al., 1984) ve sosyo-ekonomik statüleri, ebeveynlerin çocuklarına akademik olarak yardım etme ve evlerde kaynak sağlama konusundaki yetersizliklerini gösterebilir (Claassen & Mulders, 2003; De Boer et al., 2010; Ditton et al., 2005). Öğrencilerin cinsiyeti de öğretmen beklentilerinin farklılaşmasına yol açabilir. Örnek vermek gerekirse, Timmermans ve diğ. (2016), öğretmenlerin daha iyi çalışma becerilerine ve okul çalışmalarına daha fazla katılıma sahip olduğu düşünülen kız öğrencilerden daha yüksek beklentileri olduğunu, buna rağmen erkek öğrenciler için daha düşük başarı beklentilerinin olduğunu bildirmektedir.

Sonuç olarak, öğretmenler, öğrencilerin başarısına ilişkin beklentileri yüksek olduğunda, bu öğrencilerin çalışmalarını daha olumlu değerlendirme, onlara daha zorlayıcı görevler verme, daha fazla övgü ve olumlu pekiştirme sunarak daha teşvik edici davranma eğilimi gösterirler (Babad, 1992; Madon et al., 1997). Ayrıca Rubie-Davies (2007), öğrencilerine yönelik beklentileri yüksek olan öğretmenlerin, düşük beklentileri olan öğretmenlere göre derslerinde daha fazla geri bildirim verme, daha fazla soru sorma ve derslerinde daha olumlu sınıf yönetimi teknikleri sergileme eğiliminde olduklarını ileri sürmüştür.

Tüm bunlar ışığında, bu araştırma, öğretmen beklentilerinin nasıl şekillendiğini, öğrencilere nasıl aktarıldığını ve öğretmenlerin sınıf davranışlarına nasıl yansıdığını inceler. Mevcut çalışma ayrıca, aşağıdaki araştırma sorularına yanıt arayarak, öğretmenlerin öğrencilerden yüksek veya düşük başarı beklentilerinin potansiyel olarak farklılaştırdığı davranışlarına ilişkin mesleki farkındalıklarına katkıda bulunabilir:

1. İncelemeye dahil edilen çalışmalarda öğrencilerin akademik başarılarına ilişkin öğretmen beklentilerini şekillendiren potansiyel faktörler nelerdir?
2. İncelemeye dahil edilen çalışmalarda öğretmen beklentileri öğretmenlerin sınıf içi davranışlarına nasıl aktarılmakta ve davranışlarına nasıl yansıtılmaktadır?

Yöntem

Sistematiik bir inceleme olan bu çalışma 1968'den sonra yayınlanan araştırma bulgularını deęerlendirir ve sentezler. Çeşitli anahtar kelime kombinasyonları aracılığıyla EBSCOhost – Academic Research Complete, ERIC, Science Direct, YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi ve Dergi Park Akademik gibi veri tabanlarında hakemli dergilerde yayınlanan ve tam erişime açık olan makalelere, yüksek lisans ve doktora tezlerine erişilmiştir.

Başlangıçta tespit edilen 1.227 kişiden ilk olarak mükerrer olan çalışmalar çıkarılmış; öğretmen adaylarının beklentileri, öğrencilerin akademik başarı beklentileri ile özel eğitim, etnik çeşitlilik veya azınlık öğrencileri üzerinde yapılan çalışmalara *hariç tutma kriterleri* uygulanmıştır. *Uygun bulma* sürecinde, araştırma sorularına yönelik daha derinlemesine bir resim ortaya koymak adına temelde hizmet içi öğretmenlerden nitel veri toplayan 32 araştırma seçilmiştir.

Bulgular

Bu sistematiik inceleme, öğretmenlerin öğrencilerin akademik başarısına ilişkin beklentilerini şekillendiren, öğrencilerin hazırbulunuşlukları ve becerileri ilgili, öğretmenle ilgili, aileyle ilgili ve okul politikaları ilgili faktörleri ortaya çıkarmıştır. Öğretmenler, öğretim yöntemlerini öğrencilerin bireysel farklılıklarına veya öğrenme stillerine göre farklılaştırmış, öğrencileri yetenek seviyelerine göre gruplandırmış, daha fazla yönlendirici destek sağlamış, daha fazla grup çalışması fırsatı sunmuş, daha fazla göz teması kurmuş, daha zor görevler vermiş ve yüksek beklenti duyulan bu öğrencilerden daha kaliteli işler beklemiştir. Öte yandan, yüksek beklenti duyulan öğrenciler öğretmenler tarafından göz ardı edilebilmekte ve daha az takip edilmektedir ki bu da onları "büyük beklentilerin kurbanı" haline getirebilmektedir. Öğretmenler ayrıca, düşük beklentisi olan bir öğrenci bir soruya cevap veremediğinde başka bir öğrenciye yönelerek onlarla etkileşim sürelerini azaltma ve yüksek beklenti duyulan öğrencilerin kişisel veya akademik güçlerini düşük beklenti duyulan öğrencilerden daha fazla bilme eğilimindeydiler.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler


Öğretmen beklentileri ister yüksek ister düşük olsun, öğrencilerin öğrenme yeteneklerine karşı potansiyel bir engel olabilir. Bazı öğrenciler, bu yüksek beklentileri kullanma ve onlara ulaşmak için daha fazla çaba gösterme yeteneğine sahipken, bazıları hafife alındığını hissedebilir ve özellikle öğretmenlerinin düşük beklentileri ortaya çıktığında, belirli öğrenme çıktılarına ulaşma konusundaki güvenlerini kaybedebilir. Bu nedenlerle öğretmenler, öğrencilerinden beklentilerinin olumlu ve olumsuz sonuçları olabileceğini bilerek bu beklentileri sınıfta onlara profesyonel bir anlayışla nasıl aktaracakları konusunda daha bilinçli hale gelmelidir. Bu nedenle, öğretmenlerin sınıf içi davranışları yakından incelenmelidir.

Öğretmenlerin bu konudaki farkındalıklarını artırmak için sınıf gözlemleri veya derslerin video kayıtları kullanılabilir. Öğretmenlerin kendilerini var olan bu beklentiler açısından değerlendirebilmeleri ve gerekirse tutumlarını değiştirmenin olası yollarını tartışabilmeleri için hizmet içi eğitimler de faydalı olabilir.

Mevcut sistematik inceleme, öğretmen beklentileri alanyazınında daha fazla etnografi, vaka veya olgubilim çalışmaları gibi daha fazla saha incelemesine ihtiyaç olduğunu göstermiştir. Benzer bir amaçla, öğretmenlerinin başarı beklentilerine karşı öğrencilerin beklentileri, duygu ve tepkileri, öğrenme süreçlerindeki duyuşsal filtreler olarak da incelenebilir. Burada öğretmenlerin öz-yeterlik inançları ve bir kişilik özelliği olarak mükemmeliyetçiliği de *başarı* tanımlarını ve standartlarını etkileyerek öğrenci başarı beklentileri üzerinde etkili olabilir. Gelecekteki çalışmalar ve araştırmacılar bu değişkenler arasındaki olası ilişkilere odaklanabilir çünkü mevcut veri tabanlarında öğretmen beklentileri ile ilgili olarak bu tür değişkenleri araştıran herhangi bir çalışmaya rastlanmamıştır.

Opinions of Classroom Teachers Working in Public Education Centers on Adult Education*

Yusuf Başkan, Dicle University, yusuf.baskn@gmail.com,  0000-0002-1751-3676

Mehmet Bars, Dicle University, mehmetbars21@gmail.com,  0000-0002-8695-2648

Keywords

Adult education
Public education
Public education center
Classroom teaching
Adult learner

Article Info:

Received : 27-03-2022
Accepted : 22-05-2022
Published : 18-06-2022

DOI: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.012

Abstract

This research aims to examine the opinions of classroom teachers working in public education centers on adult education. One of the qualitative research designs, a basic qualitative research design, was used. The research group of the research was determined through criterion sampling, and criteria such as a permanent or contracted classroom teacher linked with the Ministry of National Education and having worked or working in public education facilities were sought from the participants. The research group of the research consisted of 20 participants. A semi-structured interview form was used as a data collection tool in the research, and the data were collected as audio recordings. The results of the interviews with the teachers who could not get permission for the voice recorder were obtained by transcribing the words of the teachers. The content analysis method was used in the analysis of the data. Themes and sub-themes were formed from the answers given by the participants. Adult education is vital for individuals and society, and results showed that adults' responsible manners influenced adult education. Furthermore, adult education teachers saw that adult education has a wide range of working hours and that block lessons can be held as an advantage. It has been concluded that they see trainee absences and adults' focus on obtaining certificates rather than the educational process as a problem.

To cite this article: Başkan, Y., & Bars, M. (2022). Opinions of classroom teachers working in public education centers on adult education. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instructional Studies*, 12(1), 275-304. doi: 10.31704/ijocis.2022.012

* This study was produced from the first author's master's thesis "Opinions of Classroom Teachers Working in Public Education Centers on Adult Education".

Introduction

Changes in social, communal, and economic fields occur quickly in our day due to the advancement of science and technology. Individuals must develop new skills and information to keep up with these changes. Today, education has become critical and valuable with the changes experienced (Türkoğlu & Uça, 2011). The rapid realization of change in the 21st century has created the need for continuous learning in individuals and made adult education inevitable. In addition, the inability of adults residing in rural areas to benefit from formal education is one of the conditions that necessitate adult education (Kocabatmaz, 2020).

Adult education has a critical role in helping countries achieve their long-term development goals. The fast shift in population in certain nations also gives rise to changes in the current workforce. Adults will need to devote more time to schooling in future occupations. Adults must learn new skills or improve old ones to adapt to shifting business lines as the population shifts. In delivering comprehensive solutions to the problems, especially the growth of countries, increasing involvement in adult education and disseminating this education fairly and inclusively for everyone is crucial (UNESCO, 2019).

It is still essential to provide basic educational needs for adults and literacy courses to illiterate adults (Sayılan, Yıldız & Baykal, 2017). Adult education can provide adults with essential knowledge and skills, especially literacy courses.

Especially in underdeveloped countries, the deprivation of formal education of people living in rural areas or the inability to benefit from formal education necessitates adult education. In developing countries, reasons such as the rapid increase in the young population, the problem of attending school, and the high fertility rate make adult education necessary (Kocabatmaz, 2020).

The importance of adult education has grown because formal education cannot meet the needs of societies while also addressing social, economic, and social changes in a rapidly changing world. There are dizzying advances in knowledge and technology today. Change is unavoidable as a result of this advancement. Societies will need to develop new behaviors, attitudes, and skills. Adult education will enable the realization of new behaviors, attitudes, and skills on the part of adults (Turgay, 2019; Karabacak Aşır, 2011).

Furthermore, it is possible that changes in the business world, deepening globalization, new technologies, and existing skills will make it difficult to change jobs, and countries will require more advanced workers. In these profound changes, individuals, firms, and economies must develop existing skills or create new skills (OECD, 2018). Adult education's role is to teach adults new skills, adapt to technological and economic changes, and assist adults in overcoming these skills and changes (Duman, 2007).

Adult education focuses on non-formal educational activities that enhance occupational and personal skills in people who have completed or never completed formal schooling (Karabacak & Kaygın, 2018). Adult education allows people to obtain new skills and information, participate in educational activities for a specific goal, and improve their living standards. Adult education is not a replacement for formal education; instead, it may be considered the filling in gaps in formal education or the discovery of previously unknown skills (Göksan, Uzundurukan, & Keskin, 2009).

The primary purpose of adult education is to educate adults to solve the problems of countries and societies (Park, 2002). In a world where skills and knowledge are rapidly becoming outdated, everyone needs to improve themselves by benefiting from adult education activities at any level (Miser, 2002).

Adults have an idea of what they need to learn and what they want to learn because of their life experiences. Educators need to exchange views with adults on these issues (Deveci, 2021).

Geray (1978) lists the prominent differences between adult education and children's education in terms of purpose, scope, and method as follows:

- The aim of education, which is generally directed toward children, is to develop the child's personality, raise a good member of society, and prepare them for the life they will embark on in the future. Adult education has the opposite approach. It is directed toward solving the problems that adults face today.
- Knowledge and skills related to the adult's area of interest indicate the subject of adult education. It is desired to provide the child with the knowledge and skills in the program prepared by the institutions beforehand at school.
- The methods and practices used in adult education are different. While there is an educational effort to develop children's personalities, an approach that ensures the protection and activation of the personality developed in adults is required.

The government usually offers adult education in Turkey; however, private institutions can also provide adult education, even in limited numbers. In public education facilities, the Ministry of National Education provides a variety of vocational, cultural, and social courses to people (Turgay, 2019). Adults attend various courses for educational purposes. The Ministry of National Education (MNE) established the General Directorate of Lifelong Learning to address the demand for lifelong education and reach out to all sectors of society. Adult education is provided as a lifelong learning institution in Turkey by the General Directorate of Lifelong Learning, including public education centers, maturity institutes, and open education schools (MNE Lifelong Learning Institutions Regulation, 2018). For all citizens' expectations, interests, and wishes, public education centers are the most accessible lifelong learning institution in adult education, offering free courses in social, cultural, sports, occupational, and economic domains (General Directorate of Lifelong Learning, [HBOGM], 2020). In this regard, this research investigated the perspectives of classroom teachers working in public education centers on adult education, and it attempted to draw meaningful conclusions about the status of adult education, the difficulties encountered in adult education, and the contributions of educators to the process in terms of their roles.

Purpose and Significance of the Research

This research aims to examine the opinions of classroom teachers working in public education centers on adult education. For this purpose, answers were sought to the following questions about classroom teachers:

1. What are the teachers' views on adult education?
2. What are the characteristics of a good adult educator?
3. What are the advantages and limitations of adult education?

4. What are the problems experienced in adult education?

Adult education is included in our country's definition of lifelong learning. When the monitoring and evaluation reports provided by the Ministry of National Education's General Directorate of Lifelong Learning are analyzed, it is clear that adult education participation has grown in general. Based on these figures, adult education demand is expected to increase even more in the following years. As the need for adult education courses grows, it will become increasingly vital.

When the research on adult education is examined, it is discovered that primary education consists of three skill areas in adult education. Literacy, basic mathematics, and life skills are the three skill categories. When evaluated globally, these skills are considered within the literacy framework as a concept. When studies on primary education for adults worldwide are examined, it is clear that literacy is regarded as a social practice. Public institutions and organizations worldwide offer literacy courses, including in Turkey. Literacy courses are provided in Turkey by the Ministry of National Education's General Directorate of Lifelong Learning. According to the monitoring and evaluation report published by the General Directorate of Lifelong Learning in 2021, literacy courses were the fifth most open course area in Turkey, 13,690 literacy courses were opened, and 35,619 people attended these courses. Classroom teachers take part in the literacy courses opened. In addition, there are dozens of course areas that classroom teachers can open for adults in the course areas of the General Directorate of Lifelong Learning. For these reasons, classroom teachers are an essential element of adult education (Akay & Ültanir, 2010; HBOGM, 2021; Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2012; Yıldız, 2010).

Even though adult education is frequently performed in our country, only a few studies on this issue (Kılıç & Arslan, 2016), when the limited studies in the literature are analyzed, it is discovered that studies employ more quantitative research methodologies and that qualitative research in the field of adult education is lacking (Alınca, 2019; Babanlı, 2018; Güner, 2018; Kızanlık, 2018; Özengi, 2017; Ata, 2016).

On this topic, the perspectives of adult education teachers are crucial. Classroom instructors work in adult education institutions, primarily in literacy programs. When the studies in the literature are examined, it has been determined that the studies on the views of classroom teachers about adult education are limited. For these reasons, it was thought that it would be crucial to examine the views of teachers who provide adult education. The goal of this research is to find out what classroom instructors think about adult education and contribute to adult education.

Method

Research Model

In the research, basic qualitative research design, one of the qualitative research models, was used. The research seeks to comprehend the experiences of classroom teachers working in public education centers and their perceptions of those experiences, and the meanings they construct. As a result, the study's preliminary qualitative research design was used (Altheide & Johnson, 2011). Primary qualitative research method; phenomenology is an essential and interpretive type of study that does not delve into methods such as case studies or implicit

theory. The researcher creates themes in the results section and attempts to make sense of the data (Merriam, 2013).

Study group

The criterion sampling method, which is one of the purposeful sampling methods, was used to determine the research study group. The basic understanding of the criterion sampling method is to research all cases that meet a predetermined set of criteria. Purposive sampling was chosen to acquire in-depth certified data for the investigation (Patton, 2014). These criteria were either produced by the researcher or taken from an available list (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018).

The participants in this research had to meet the following criteria: they had to be permanent or contract classroom instructors linked with the Ministry of National Education. They had to have worked or worked in public education facilities. The study group for this research consisted of 20 persons who fulfilled these criteria.

Demographic information of the participants in the study group is given in Table 1.

Table 1. *Distribution of Classroom Teachers by Gender, Age, Educational Information, Professional Experience, Adult Education Status*

<i>Variable</i>		<i>Frequency</i>
Gender	Female	7
	Male	13
	Total	20
Age	20-30	7
	31-40	8
	41-50	5
	Total	20
Education information	Bachelor's degree	18
	Master's degree	2
	Total	20
Professional experience	1-5	4
	6-10	7
	11-15	3
	16-20	2
	21 and over	4
	Total	20
Status of receiving education for adult education	Received	5
	Not received	15
	Total	20

When Table 1 is examined, it is seen that the number of men participating in the research is higher than the others. The age range of the participants varies between 20 and 50. The majority of the participants are undergraduate graduates, they have at most 6 to 10 years of professional experience, and the majority have not received any training for adult education.

Data Collection Tool

The interview approach, a qualitative data-gathering instrument, was chosen for the research. The interview approach allows participants to offer detailed information. The interview is a qualitative data-gathering strategy that aids in obtaining the intents, ideas, and feelings that are difficult to see by asking questions. The quality of the results gained primarily depends on the researcher (Patton, 2014).

In the research, data were collected using a semi-structured interview form. A semi-structured interview is the most frequently used data collection tool in qualitative research methods. It is a flexible method that allows the participant to express their point of view and thoughts on any issue in their own words. As a consequence of the semi-structured interview, the researcher interviews with the questions prepared beforehand (Çarkoğlu, 2013).

The researcher asked the participants the interview questions prepared under the sub-problems and obtained responses during the interview. For the use of the semi-structured interview form, which the researchers produced after consulting with experts, Dicle University's ethics committee clearance was first sought, followed by authorization from the Diyarbakır Provincial Directorate of National Education. To obtain detailed data on the research, the researcher asked the following questions to the participants:

1. What are your thoughts on adult education?
2. Do you think adult education is known enough? What can be done to increase the awareness of adult education?
3. What qualities do you think a good adult educator should have?
4. What are the advantages and limitations of adult education?
5. What do you think are the problems of adult education? What are your suggestions for solutions to these problems?
6. Is there anything else you would like to add?

Data Collection Procedures

The actual application was submitted to Dicle University's Social and Human Sciences Ethics Committee for the approval of the research's ethics committee. The research was judged to be ethically suitable by the relevant committee's decision dated 30.12.2020-102.

Schools and public education centers were contacted to select acceptable participants for the interviews. The appropriate participants were notified and interviewed under the concept of voluntariness. All but three of the interviews were recorded on a voice recorder. Although it was proposed that the interview be documented on paper rather than using a tape recorder, two of the interviewees left the interview midway because they were uncomfortable with recording their voices.

Data were collected utilizing an interview approach from the 20 participants in March and April. The volunteer participants' schools were visited, and interviews were scheduled at convenient times.

For the 17 participants who consented to their permission, a voice recorder was employed throughout the interviews, and then the researcher transferred the voice recordings to a computer system. The data from the written analysis and the responses to each question were combined into a single file. The written data was examined several times, and ideas and concepts that would allow for meaning analysis were identified and interpreted in a way that would clarify the research goals.

The results of the interviews with three participants were collected by transcribing the words of the participants in the same context since authorization for the voice recorder could not be secured.

Analyzing Data

The data was analyzed using the content analysis approach. Content analysis is intended to bring the generated material together within the framework of particular concepts and topics and then turn it into a form that readers can understand (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). The data in this research were evaluated in four stages: coding, discovering themes, arranging and defining the codes and themes, and interpreting the results. The researcher converted the data to electronic media, evaluated the generated data in-depth, and produced codes from the data with the help of three specialists. Thematic coding was used to find similar characteristics among the determined codes. The codes were compared and contrasted, and sub-themes and themes were created by grouping together the connected codes. The codes were compared and contrasted, and sub-themes and themes were created by grouping together the connected codes.

Validity and Reliability

In qualitative research, the term "validity" refers to the correctness of the results. It refers to an objective examination of the topic under investigation. Internal validity is the ability to expose the researched reality of the process used by the researcher to arrive at the conclusions of the research. Internal validity is related to the fact that the facts observed by the researcher reflect reality. External validity (transferability) is the transferability of the results to similar groups or environments. External validity is related to the generalizability of the research. Based on the assumption that social events change according to the environment, none of them can be directly generalized to another person. However, they can be generalized to some extent by analogy. In qualitative research, generalizations can be made indirectly, not directly. In qualitative research, the sample should be diversified enough to allow generalization (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018).

The researcher attained expert opinion while preparing the interview form to increase the internal validity of the research. For the participants to answer the questions sincerely during the interview, the participants were promised that their identifiable information would not be shared and that the data obtained would only be used for scientific purposes. Participants supported the research by the principle of voluntariness. The participant chose the location

and time of the interview to respond honestly, and the participant was interviewed in a place where he or they felt comfortable and at the right time.

To improve external validity, the researcher interviewed twenty participants using criteria sampling, taking special care to choose participants from Diyarbakır teachers working in various districts. The results were presented in detail as themes and sub-themes.

Güler, Halicioğlu, & Taşkın (2013) define reliability as the appearance of identical results whether research is undertaken by multiple observers or by the same observer at different periods. The researcher discussed data collection and data analysis in great detail to increase the dependability of the research. The participants were given pre-interviews to experience the challenges and difficulties that could arise during the interviews, and the individuals who were interviewed were not included in the research. The number of participants in the research was kept as large as possible, and interviews were done in settings where researchers felt comfortable. Three experts' opinions were taken to create the codes to increase the reliability. The reliability formula of Miles and Huberman (1994) was used according to this formula. Consequently, Reliability: $(\text{Agreement} / (\text{Agreement} + \text{Disagreement}) \times 100)$ was calculated from the formula. A total of 147 codes were created from the research data. Experts developed 142 of these codes, even though there were disagreements of opinion in 5 of them. A value of 96.5 percent was derived using the general results of Miles and Huberman's (1994) reliability calculation ($G: 142 / (142+5) \times 100$). According to the coding control, which ensures internal consistency, experts should agree at least 80% of the time (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The research indicated that this technique, which was used to establish the dependability of data analysis, was 96.5 percent reliable. The Miles and Huberman reliability formula value was greater than 80 percent which meant the coding system was reliable.

Results

Results Regarding the Thoughts of Classroom Teachers Working in Public Education Centers about Adult Education

Results on thoughts of classroom teachers working on adult education at the public education center were organized into four categories based on the responses obtained and gathered from instructors. Adult education from instructors' perspective, the relevance of adult education, the impact of age on education, and the impact of responsibility on education are among the topics covered.

The results related to the theme of adult education from teachers' perspectives are given in Figure 1. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.

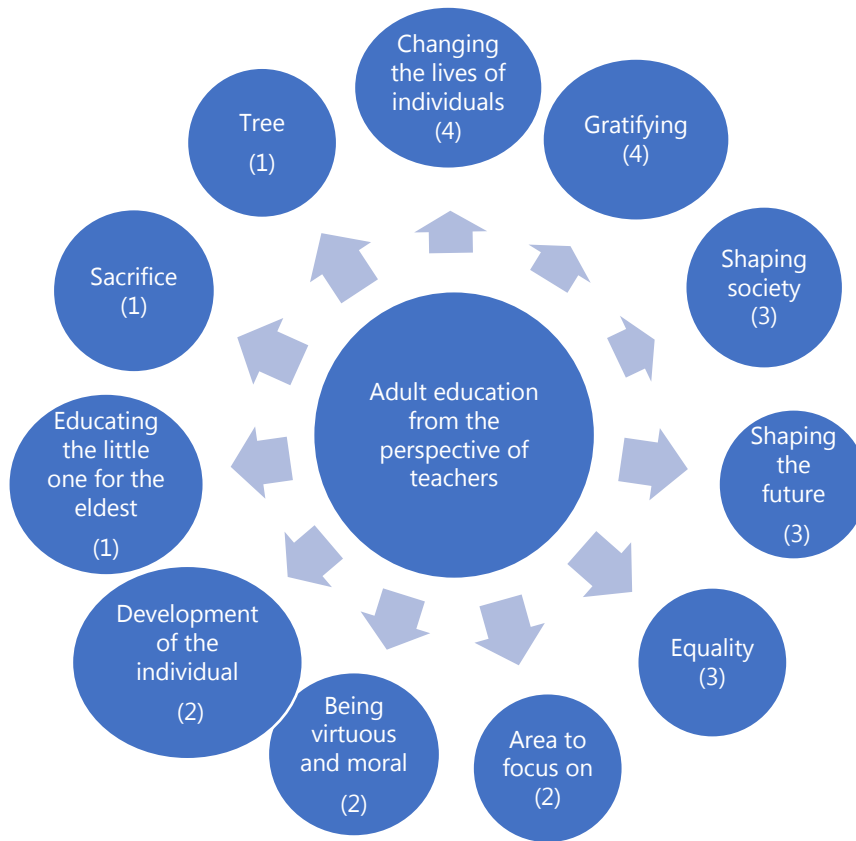


Figure 1. *The Results Related To The Themes of Adult Education From The Perspective of Teachers*

In line with the answers given by the participants; the theme of adult education from the perspective of teachers is divided into 11 sub-themes from the eyes the teachers: Changing the individual's life, gratifying, shaping the society, shaping the future, equality, the area to focus on, being virtuous and moral, the development of the individual, educating the little one for the eldest, sacrifice and tree. In these sub-themes, the participants mostly expressed the sub-themes that adult education changes the lives of individuals and that it is gratifying to provide adult education.

Some participants use the tree as an image used by their environment, while others use it as a labor of love that takes time to cultivate and care for. In their study, Lala, Yazar, and Çolak (2017) determined that teachers mostly use the 'tree' metaphor regarding adult education.

Some of the quotes from teachers regarding the sub-theme of changing the lives of individuals are as follows:

"Adult education; For me, the self-cultivation of an adult means the change of an individual's life." (P12)

"Adults should be educated for their personal development and raising a healthy generation to solve family problems more quickly, learn to live a peaceful life, and even improve their skills with the education they receive and contribute financially to their homes." (P19)

Quotations from the teachers regarding the gratifying sub-theme are as follows:

"Adult awareness increases after providing adult education. Perspectives on life are changing. For these reasons, I am happy to provide adult education." (P15)

The results related to the theme of the importance of adult education are given in Figure 2. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.

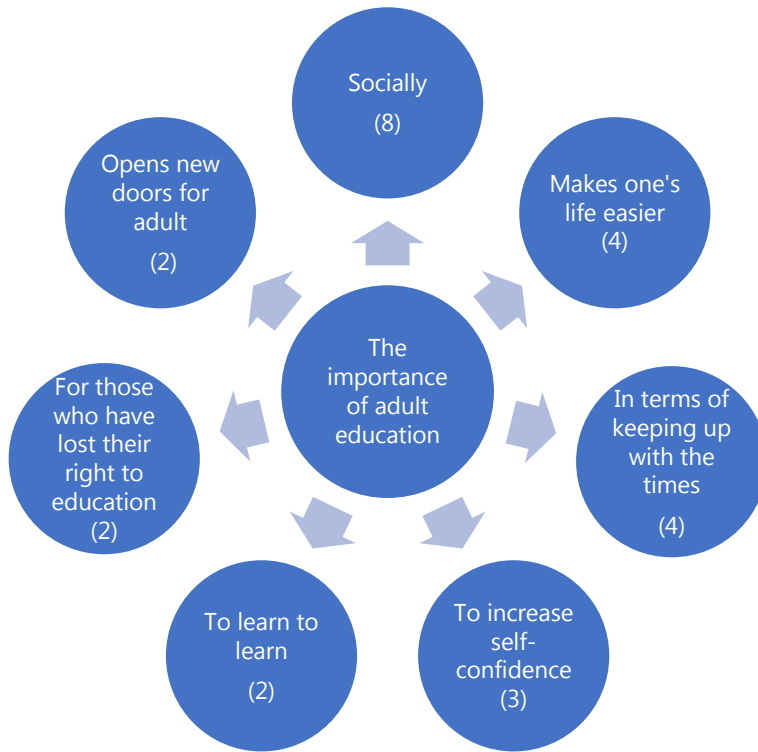


Figure 2. Results Related to the Theme of the Importance of Adult Education

In line with the answers given by the participants, the importance of the adult education theme was created and divided into seven sub-themes. These sub-themes are as follows: Socially, it makes one's life more manageable in terms of keeping up with the times, increases self-confidence to learn for those who have lost their right to education, and opens new doors for adults. In these sub-themes, the participants stated that adult education is the most important socially.

The situation as expressed socially means that the individual, as a member of society, adapts to the society while also making an individual contribution to the society's progress. Some of the quotes from the teachers regarding the sub-theme of social aspects are as follows:

"Adult education is just as important as child education. Adults are the people who direct the education of children and society. After all, adults need to be conscious." (P14)

"I care about the education of adults because adult education means the education of new generations. I think that adults should be educated first since the whole education of children depends on adults. In addition, self-development of adults also contributes to their environment." (P15)

Some of the quotes from the teachers regarding the sub-theme making the individual's life easier are as follows:

"We cannot constantly show a mother going to the hospital, a father asking for directions, or an older sister or brother who has moved to a new city. Our major purpose is to develop adults who will make life simpler with the education they will obtain." (P9)

The results related to the theme of the effect of the age factor on education are given in Figure 3. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.

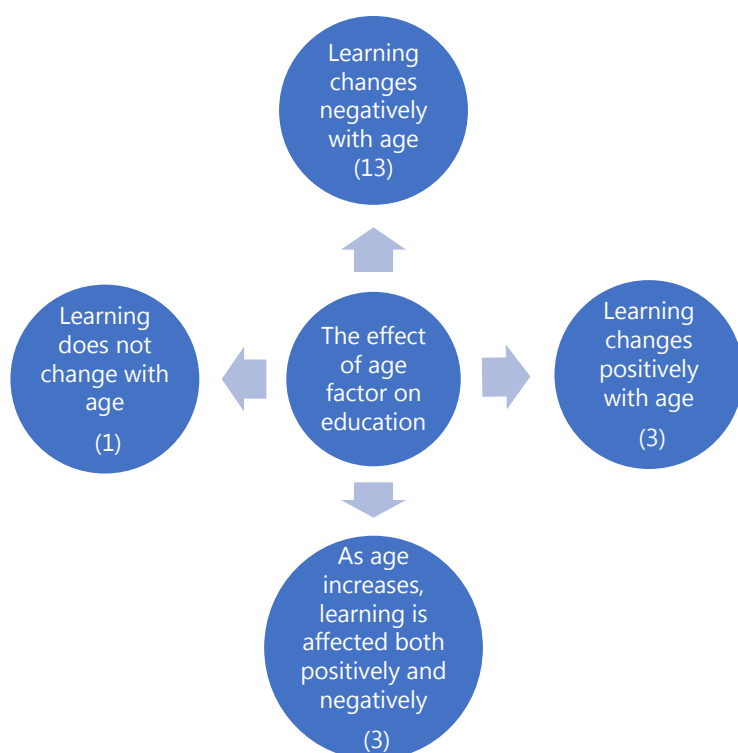


Figure 3. Results Related to the Effect of Age Factor on Education

In line with the answers given by the participants, the effect of the age factor on the education theme was created and divided into four sub-themes. These sub-themes are Learning changes negatively as age increases, Learning changes positively as age increases, learning is affected positively and negatively as age increases, and learning does not change as age increases. In these sub-themes, it was seen that the majority of the participants stated that learning was negatively affected with increasing age.

Some of the quotes from teachers regarding the sub-theme that learning changes negatively as age increases are as follows:

"As age changes, learning changes as age demands. Since the memory of children is clearer, the time for children to acquire information is shorter than adults." (P3)

Quotations from the teachers regarding the sub-theme that learning changes positively as age increases are as follows:

"Some adults come with their prior knowledge, which reflects positively on education."
(P13)

The results related to the impact of responsibility on education theme are given in Figure 4. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.

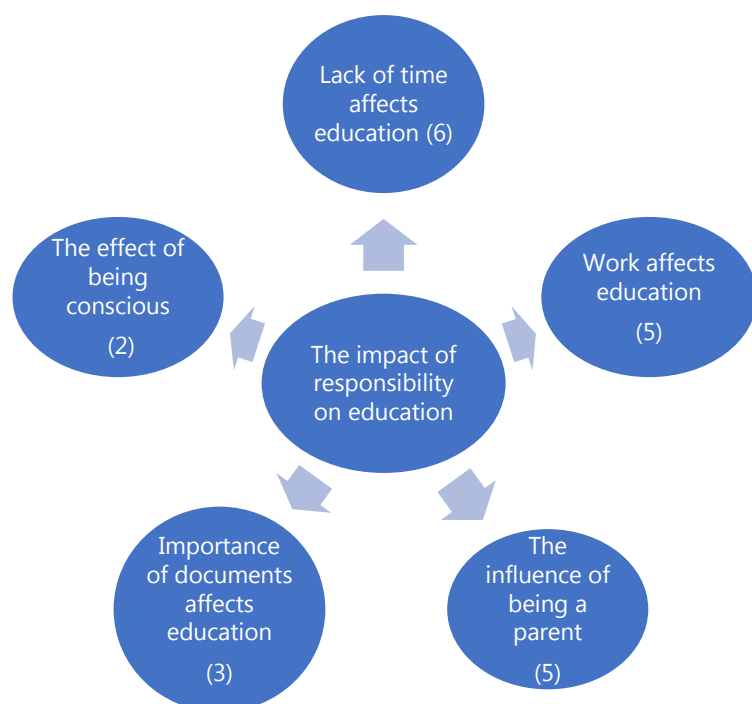


Figure 4. Results Regarding the Effect of Responsibility on Education

In line with the answers given by the participants, the effect of responsibility on education theme was created, and this theme was divided into five sub-themes. These sub-themes are: Lack of time affects education, work affects education, the influence of being a parent, the importance of the document affects education and the effect of being conscious. In these sub-themes, the participants mostly expressed the sub-theme that the lack of time affects education.

Some of the quotes from the teachers regarding the sub-theme, the lack of time affects education are as follows:

"Some adults are mothers. Some are workers. While receiving adult education, our mothers have much responsibility here, they have very little time for cooking and cleaning at home, and very little time is left for them if the spouses do not help." (P6)

"Adult responsibility has negative effects on education. The fact that they cannot attend continuous education and are constantly dealing with children, home and workforce cause them not to be able to receive on education." (P9)

Some of the quotations from the teachers regarding the sub-theme of work education effects are as follows:

"The responsibilities that individuals undertake require and encourage learning throughout the life of individuals. In working life, it is only possible for individuals to cope with the responsibilities imposed by their superiors through adult education, leading the adult to learn because of their responsibility." (P2)

Quotations from teachers regarding the sub-theme of the importance of the document affecting education are as follows:

"Individuals need certification as a requirement of their responsibility and job. However, this situation enables individuals to participate in adult education for certification purposes, not learning and self-development. This situation also prevents the formation of the desired efficiency in adult education." (P2)

Results Regarding What Can Be Done to Increase the Awareness of Adult Education of Classroom Teachers Working at the Public Education Center

The results regarding what can be done to increase the awareness of the classroom teachers working in the public education center about adult education were gathered in 3 themes in line with the answers given by the teachers. These themes raise awareness, cooperation with public institutions and organizations, and social activities. Results related to the theme of sensitivity building are given in Figure 5. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.

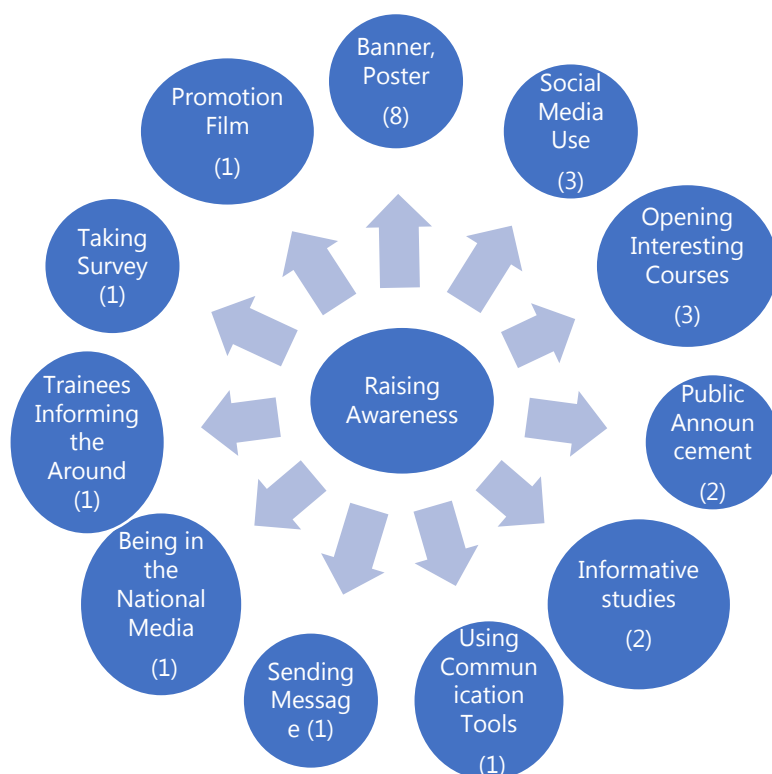


Figure 5. Results Regarding the Sensitivity Building Theme

In line with the answers given by the participants, the themes of raising awareness, cooperation with public institutions and organizations, and social activities were created.

Among these themes, the theme of raising awareness is divided into 11 sub-themes. These sub-themes are banner-poster, social media use, opening interesting courses, public service announcements, informative studies, using communication tools, sending messages, being in the national media, trainees informing them around, taking surveys, and making promotional films.

Some of the quotes from teachers regarding the banner and poster sub-theme are as follows:

"Billboards can be used more actively. Posters can be prepared in schools to raise awareness." (P1)

"The usefulness of the courses can be explained through posters, and those posters could be distributed to houses. It is necessary to show this awareness, especially to women." (P7)

The theme and sub-themes of cooperation with public institutions and organizations, among the results on what can be done to increase the awareness of adult education of classroom teachers working in the public education center, are given in Figure 6. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.

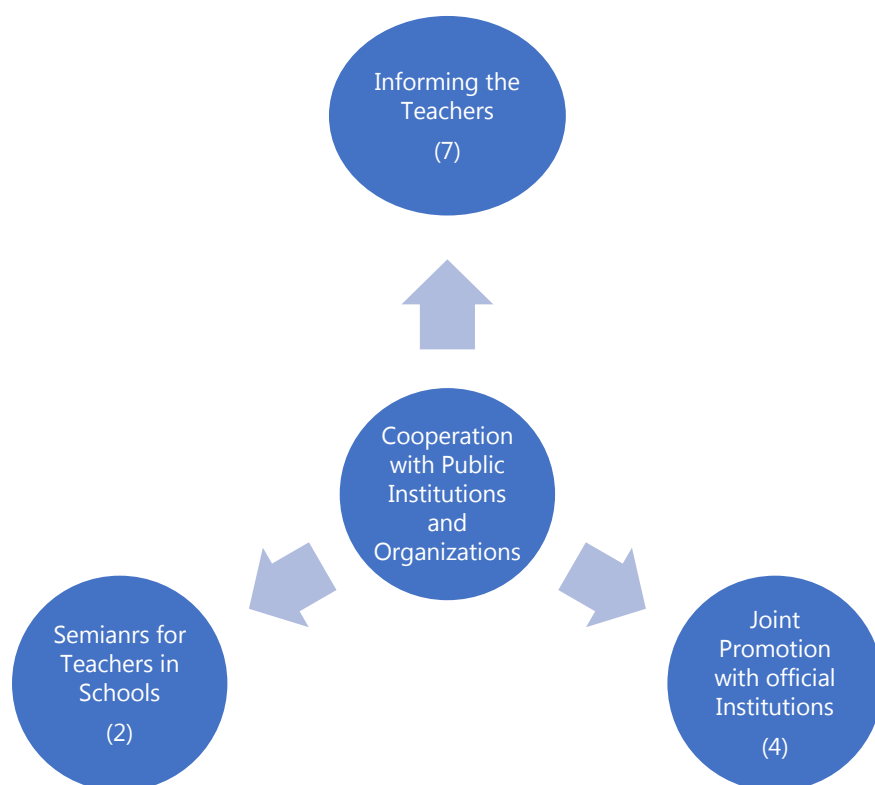


Figure 6. *The Theme and Sub-Themes of Cooperation with Public Institutions and Organizations*

The theme of cooperation with public institutions and organizations is divided into three sub-themes: Teachers to inform, joint promotion with official institutions, and seminars for

teachers in schools. In this theme, most of the participants expressed the sub-theme of informing the teachers.

Some of the quotations from the teachers regarding the sub-theme of informing the teachers as the sub-themes of the cooperation with public institutions and organizations are as follows:

"Announcement can be made by knocking on the doors one by one, as we do in villages." (P6)

"We, the teachers, should personally explain the courses in public education to the parents, which I implemented, so I ensured the participation of 3-4 parents in the education." (P8)

Some of the quotes from the teachers regarding the sub-theme of cooperation with public institutions and organizations, which is one of the sub-themes of the theme of cooperation with public institutions and organizations, are as follows:

"It is easier to direct people who share the same work environment to education in a field. Public institutions can direct their employees to adult education, making adult education more familiar." (P2)

The theme of social activities and its sub-themes are given in Figure 7, among the results regarding what can be done to increase the awareness of the classroom teachers working in the public education center about adult education. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.

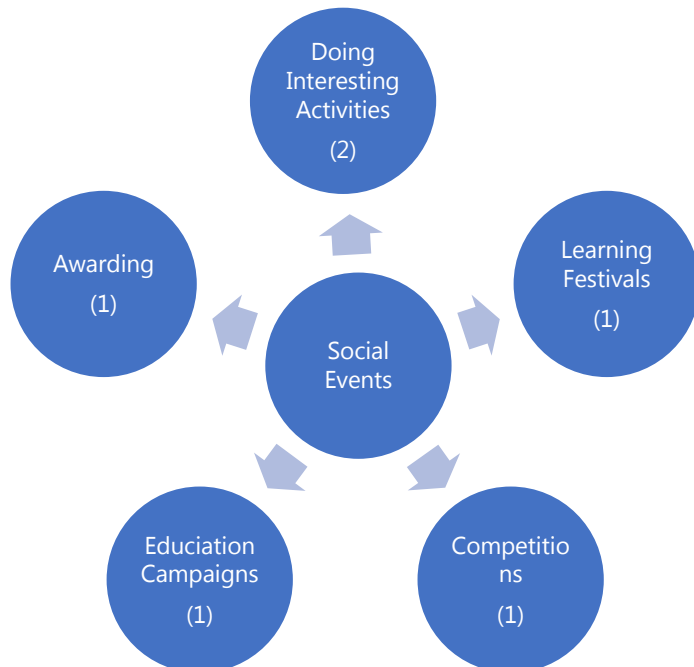


Figure 7. *Social Activities Theme and Sub-Themes*

The social activities theme is divided into five sub-themes: doing exciting activities, learning festivals, competitions, educational campaigns, and awards.

Some of the quotes from the teachers regarding the sub-theme of doing activities, which is one of the sub-themes of the social activities theme, are as follows:

"Interesting activities can be done in city centers. For example, products made by adults can be exhibited in city centers, and small gifts with information about adult education can be given to citizens. These increase the promotion of adult education."
(P1)

Results Regarding the Characteristics of a Good Adult Educator of Classroom Teachers Working in Public Education Center

The results regarding the characteristics of a good adult educator of the classroom teachers working in the public education center were collected in 2 themes in line with the answers given by the teachers. These themes are adult appeal and behavior, and competence to provide education. The results related to behavior and appeal to adults theme are given in Figure 8. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.



Figure 8. *Adult Behavior and Address Theme and Sub-Themes*

In line with the answers given by the participants, the theme of behavior and addressing adults was created and divided into eleven sub-themes. These sub-themes are Patient, sincere,

smiling, distant, informative, empathetic, positive language, understanding, self-proving, and exemplary, in the form of aunt uncle.

Some of the quotes from the teachers regarding the patient sub-theme, which is one of the sub-themes of behavior and addressing adults, are as follows:

"A good adult educator must first be patient. Because adult learners come to education with certain patterns, it becomes difficult to learn new information. In my opinion, adult educators should patiently carry out this difficult educational process." (P12)

"A good educator should be patient, explain well, and value the student." (P16)

Among the results regarding the characteristics of a good adult educator, the proficiency of classroom teachers working in the public education center is given in Figure 9. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.



Figure 9. *Teaching Competence Theme and Sub-Themes*

In line with the answers given by the participants, the theme of proficiency in providing education was created, and this theme was divided into five sub-themes: Academic qualification, applying existing techniques, education by doing, knowing adult psychology, and using adult-specific techniques.

Some of the quotations from the teachers regarding the academic competence sub-theme, which is one of the sub-themes of the teaching competence theme, are as follows:

"In institutions providing adult education, trainers should consist of specially trained people related to adult education. Adult trainers should receive training on adult education. A department under the name of adult education should be opened in universities, or those interested in adult education should be assigned only in this field with in-service training or seminars related to adult education." (P3)

"First of all, one must have the equipment and professional competence of his profession. Having good communication skills, we can say that continuing this process with adults is not as easy as it seems." (P10)

Results Regarding the Advantages and Limitations of Adult Education of Classroom Teachers Working in Public Education Center

Results regarding the advantages and limitations of adult education of classroom teachers working in public education centers are divided into themes of superiority and limitation.

The superiority theme and sub-themes of the results regarding the advantages and limitations of adult education of the classroom teachers working in the public education center are given in Figure 10. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.



Figure 10. *Superiority Theme and Sub-Themes*

In line with the answers given by the participants, the superiority theme was divided into eight sub-themes: Individuals coming for a purpose, learning new information, working hours, reaching adults, block lessons are appropriate, increasing literacy level, additional course fees,

and ease of supply materials. Among the sub-themes of the advantages of adult education theme, most participants expressed the sub-theme of individuals who come for the purpose.

Some of the quotations from the teachers regarding the sub-theme of the sub-theme Individuals coming for a purpose are as follows:

"Adults have no trouble adapting to physical and social environments because they acquire certain behaviors. It is easier to focus on the lesson and less busy with extracurricular activities, which makes education easier." (P3)

"We do not need to say words like 'stop, hush, continue' to people who have reached a certain age. It will be a quieter education environment. As a result, we will be able to make faster progress in this process." (P8)

Among the results regarding the advantages and limitations of adult education, the theme and sub-themes of the classroom teachers working in the public education center are given in Figure 11. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.



Figure 11. *Limitations Theme and Sub-Themes*

In line with the answers given by the participants, the theme of limitations was divided into eight sub-themes. These sub-themes: Age and gender differences make education difficult, attendance problems, not doing homework, not being able to pay attention to the lessons,

exceeding the critical threshold in education, inadequacies limit education, misunderstanding of adult education, and none.

Some of the quotations from the teachers regarding the sub-theme of the limitation theme, age-gender differences make education difficult, are as follows:

"Adult education's restriction for me issues, particularly gender disparities. Of course, in my instruction, I assist youngsters in writing by holding their hands when necessary, but I cannot do so while teaching someone of the opposite gender. In addition, I occasionally have difficulty speaking with adults. Furthermore, youngsters appear better prepared to study. There is a big difference in status between the children and their instructors, which aids in better guiding the youngsters; nevertheless, even if an adult arrives to learn, learning may not occur since there is no difference in status between them and the teachers." (P14)

Results from Classroom Teachers Working in Public Education Centres on Adult Education Issue

Themes of issues with the student, problems with the teacher, and problems with transportation, location, and equipment were established based on the participants' responses.

Among the results related to the problems of adult education of classroom teachers working in the public education center, the theme and sub-themes of problems with students are given in Figure 12. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.

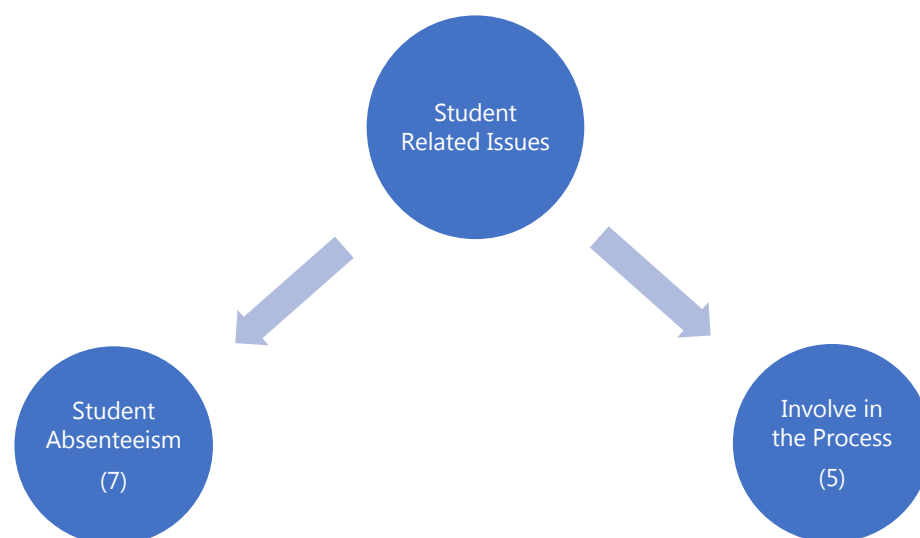


Figure 12. *Student Problems Theme and Sub-Themes*

The theme of student-related problems is divided into two sub-themes: trainee absenteeism and inclusion in the process.

The quotations from the teachers regarding the student absenteeism sub-theme, which is one of the sub-themes of the student-related problems, are as follows:

"In adult education, women's absenteeism is particularly high because women have greater obligations at home. We may increase women's involvement in continuing adult education if men share the responsibility at home and aid their spouses." (P8)

"Evening hours, in particular, should be instructed to guarantee that adults stay in the courses, as the majority of adults are working for folks, and adults favor evening hours." (P13)

Quotations from the teachers regarding the including in the process theme as the sub-theme of problems theme with the student are as follows:

"We should endeavor to engage adults in education by explaining the value and necessity of education. Adults should attend the classes for education rather than certification, and adults should be guided toward education. Furthermore, the substance of the programs should be organized so that adults will be interested." (P2)

The results related to the tutorial issues theme are given in Figure 13. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme is written in parentheses on the figure.

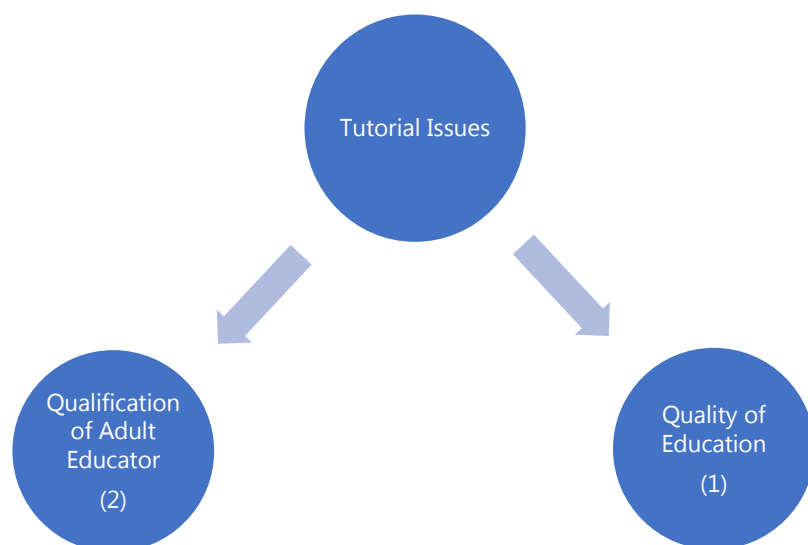


Figure 13. *Tutorial Issues Theme and Sub-Themes*

The quality of the adult educator and the quality of education are two sub-themes of the tutorial-related difficulties subject.

The following are quotes from the instructor on the sub-theme of adult educator quality, which is one of the sub-themes of the problem with the teacher:

"In-service training and seminars in adult education should be provided, and additional payments should be made to instructors who work in this field. As a result, more competent instructors participate in the program, and the educational quality improves." (P3)

The adult education challenges of classroom instructors working in the public education center were organized into a topic and sub-themes of transportation, location, and equipment concerns, as shown in Figure 14. The number of times (frequency) the participants referred to each sub-theme are written in parentheses on the figure.

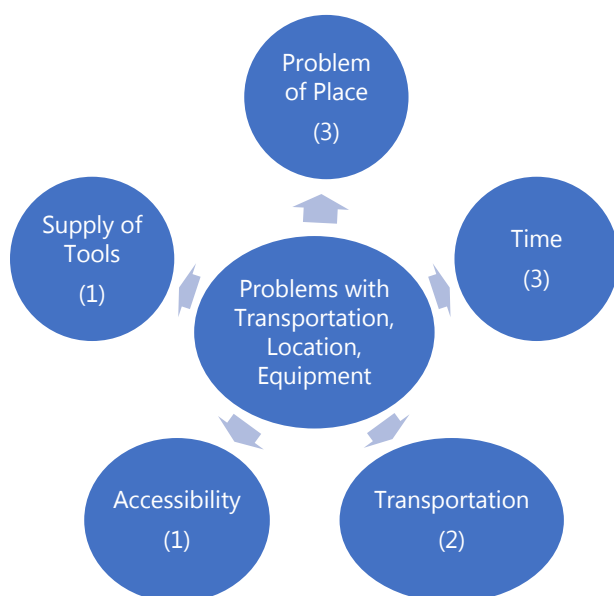


Figure 14. *Theme and Sub-Themes of Transportation, Location, Equipment Related Issues*

These sub-themes are divided into five sub-themes: Problems related to transportation, place, and equipment, and these sub-themes are: the problem of place, time, transportation, accessibility, supply of equipment, and quality of education.

Quotations from the teachers regarding the sub-theme of the problem of transportation, location, equipment, and related issues are as follows:

"In elementary school, I taught education at the public education center. The tables and chairs, unfortunately, were not suitable for adults. Adult education should take place in settings designed specifically for adults. Adult education should be offered in pr schools, and classrooms should be particularly created for adults." (P1)

Discussion, Conclusion, and Implications

Education/learning activities organized by various institutions and organizations for adults and attended by adults toward their wishes have an essential place and role in adult learning (Tezcan, 2012). Adults' orientation to learning is problem-oriented. They are willing to learn as long as what is learned helps adults to solve the problems they face as soon as possible. Therefore, instead of storing the information for later use, they want to use it as soon as possible to achieve life goals that they consider necessary to them (Cross, 1978). In this regard, when determining programs for adult education, priority should be given to activities aimed at priority areas that adults see as a problem.

Adults should get an education according to their interests, desires, expectations, and educational development. The expertise of instructors participating in adult education procedures and their judgments about the process are essential in this regard. It was discovered that 15 of the 20 teachers had received no adult education training in the research. It was underlined that teachers who educate adults should be prepared to use andragogic concepts. In his research, Kizanlikli (2018) found that young trainers working in adult education require more andragogical learning.

Similarly, underlined by Elüstü (2007) stated that public education center personnel should acquire adult education training. According to Gürgeç (2010), most instructors who teach the subject of adult education have not obtained any formal training in the field. There are various reasons why most classroom instructors who engage in adult education do not have any adult education training. Among these factors is the addition of adult education and lifelong learning course as an elective course in the classroom teaching program in 2018, the absence of such a course previously, and the lack of in-service adult education courses for teachers.

Teachers emphasized that adult education, especially literacy, can change an individual's life and shape society and the future. Adult education has been determined to be beneficial to both individuals and society. Studies by Babayiğit and Gökçe (2018), Akay and Ültanır (2010), Yıldız (2010), and Elüstü (2007) supported this conclusion. Adult education is critical for individuals as well as society. Adult education was also noted and stressed by the teachers.

In the research, most teachers working in public education centers emphasized that it is proud and happy to provide adult education. In support of this situation, Temiz (2009) stated in his research that 96.7% of teachers working in public education centers are satisfied with working in these institutions. This result supports the result of our study.

In the research, teachers stated that trainee absenteeism is a problem in adult education. In support of this situation, research by Yıldız (2010) emphasized that dropout rates are high in adult literacy courses. Similarly, Yazar and Lala (2018) stated that teachers experience problems since adults do not attend the courses regularly due to insufficient class hours. Adults are absent for various reasons, which has a detrimental impact on schooling. Not paying enough attention to adult education and working adults can be counted among the reasons for absenteeism.

Based on the teachers' responses, it was determined that one of the primary goals of adult participation in education was to obtain a certificate. Şahoğlu (2010) stated in his study that obtaining a certificate and a profession is one of the goals of adult education participants.

The majority of the teachers agreed that as adults get older, they have a more challenging time learning basic information and abilities. It has been established that postponing the learning of essential information and abilities by people until later in life might make learning difficult.

According to most instructors, adult education is not well-known to adults, and adult education is misinterpreted by adults, according to some teachers. Based on the teachers' responses, it was determined that the adult education target audience lacked sufficient knowledge of the subject. This result is similar to the result obtained from the study by Elüstü (2007).

Another finding is that a successful adult educator is patient, truthful, distant, understanding, has academic competency, understands adult psychology, and can employ a variety of adult-appropriate approaches and strategies.

This result is consistent with the findings of Bumin (2009). In their study, Akay and Ültanır (2010) stated that the trainer-trainee relationship should be sincere and friendly. They should be treated respectfully, the trainer should be empathetic, and the trainer should be treated respectfully by a typical learner with adults.

Among the advantages of adult education are the wide range of working hours of adult education, the possibility of block lessons in adult education, the participation of those who participate in adult education for a specific purpose, the easy availability of literacy materials, and the free distribution of literacy books.

Based on the research results, the following recommendations can be made:

- Adult education activities of teachers working in adult education should be expanded. These teachers should be provided training on adult education within andragogic principles. Teacher applicants with bachelor's degree education should be given training on adult education.
- Basic knowledge and skills, especially literacy, should be learned by adults.
- Visuals such as banners, posters, public service announcements, and promotional films can be used to express the training provided by lifelong learning institutions to adults and the advantages of this training to adults. Furthermore, popular platforms such as social media may promote adult education to the target demographic features.
- Institutions providing adult education should provide training for adults' interests, wishes, and expectations and plan this training at appropriate times for adults.

References

- Akay, C., & Ültanir, E. (2010). Andragojik temellere dayalı kolaylaştırılmış okuma-yazma eğitimi (koye) sürecine yönelik koye eğitimcilerinin görüşleri. *Mersin Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 6(2). 75–88.
- Alınca, S. (2019). *İzmir bornova ve karşıyaka halk eğitimi merkezlerinde çalışan öğretmen ve usta öğreticilerin medya okuryazarlığı düzeyleri*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Ege Üniversitesi, İzmir, Türkiye.
- Altheide, D., L., & Johnson, J.,M. (2011). Reflections on interpretive adequacy in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 581-594). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ata, E. (2016). Başkent Halk Eğitimi Merkezi'ndeki merkezi kurslara yetişkinlerin katılım örüntüleri. (Unpublished master's thesis). Ankara Üniversitesi, Ankara, Türkiye.
- Babanlı, N. (2018). Yetişkin eğitimindeki kursiyerlerin yaşamboyu öğrenme yeterlilikleri. (Unpublished master's thesis). İstanbul Aydın Üniversitesi ve Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi, İstanbul, Türkiye.
- Babayiğit, Ö., & Gökçe, A. (2018). Okuma-yazma bilmeyen yetişkinlerin okuma-yazma öğrenme nedenlerinin incelenmesi. *Ana dili eğitimi dergisi*, 6(March), 813–826.
- Bumin, E., K. (2009). *Yetişkin eğitimi programlarını uygulayan eğitimcilerin mesleki formasyonları, mesleğe dönük algı ve ihtiyaçları*. (Unpublished master's thesis), Marmara Üniversitesi, İstanbul, Türkiye.
- Cross, K., P. (1978). The adult learner. In K. P. Cross, A. Tough ve R. Weathersby (Eds.). *Current issues in higher education* (pp. 6-13). National Conferences Series: American Association for Higher Education.
- Çarkoğlu, A. (2013). *Uluslararası ilişkilerde araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara: Anadolu Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Deveci, T. (2021). *Yetişkin eğitimi teorileri*. Ankara: Sınırsız Eğitim ve Araştırma Derneği Yayınları.
- Duman, A. (2007). *Yetişkinler eğitimi* (Genişletilmiş ikinci baskı). Ankara: Ütopya Yayınevi.
- Elüstü, A. (2007). *Yetişkinlerin eğitim ihtiyaçları ve halk eğitimi ile ilgili farkındalık düzeylerinin belirlenmesi*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Marmara Üniversitesi, İstanbul, Türkiye.
- Geray, C. (1978). *Halk eğitimi*. Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Yayınları
- Göksan, T., S., Uzundurukan, S., & Keskin, S., N. (2009). Yaşam boyu öğrenme ve Avrupa Birliği'nin yaşam boyu öğrenme programları. *İnşaat mühendisliği eğitimi sempozyumu*, Antalya, Türkiye. Bildiriler içinde (ss. 143–151).
- Güler, A., Halıcıoğlu, B. M., & Taşkın, S. (2013). *Nitel araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Güner, A. (2018). *Yaşam boyu öğrenme merkezlerinde çalışan sınıf öğretmenlerinin öğrenen örgüt algısı*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Marmara Üniversitesi, İstanbul, Türkiye.
- Gürgenç, O. (2010). *Halk eğitimi merkezlerince yürütülen yetişkinler okuma-yazma öğrenimi ve*

temel eğitim programının etkililiğinin öğretmen görüşlerine göre değerlendirilmesi. (Unpublished master's thesis). Marmara Üniversitesi, İstanbul, Türkiye.

HBOGM. (2020). *Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Hayat Boyu Öğrenme Genel Müdürü İzleme ve Değerlendirme raporu 2019.* (Monitoring and Evaluation report of the Ministry of National Education, General Directorate of Lifelong Learning). 3 Ocak 2021 tarihinde <http://hbogm.meb.gov.tr/dosyalar/izlemedegerlendirmerapor/2019/mobile/index.html> adresinden erişildi.

HBOGM. (2021). *Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Hayat Boyu Öğrenme Genel Müdürü İzleme ve Değerlendirme raporu 2020.* (Monitoring and Evaluation report of the Ministry of National Education, General Directorate of Lifelong Learning). http://hbogm.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2021_05/08201728_RAPOR05.05.2021.pdf adresinden erişildi.

Karabacak, Aşır, S. (2011). *Mamak halk eğitimi merkezinde açılan kurslara katılan kadınların katılma ve terk nedenleri.* (Unpublished master's thesis). Ankara Üniversitesi, Ankara, Türkiye.

Karabacak, S., & Kaygın, H. (2018). Uluslararası Yetişkin Becerileri Araştırmasına (PIAAC) yönelik halk eğitimi merkezlerinde görev yapan eğitimcilerin görüşleri. *Journal of Turkish Studies*, 13. 745–762.

Kılıç, Ç., & Arslan, S. (2016). Türkiye’de yayınlanan yetişkin eğitime ilişkin makalelerin meta değerlendirmesi. *Erzincan Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 18(2), 865–899. doi:10.17556/jef.35782

Kızanıklı, M. S. (2018). *Türkiye’de genç yetişkinlere yönelik eğitimlerde görev alan öğretmenlerin yeterlilikleri ve eğitici yetiştirme programlarına ilişkin görüşleri.* (Unpublished master's thesis). Ankara Üniversitesi, Ankara, Türkiye.

Knowles, M. S., Holton, E. F., & Swanson, R. A. (2012). Yetişkin eğitimi. (O. Gündüz, Çev.). İstanbul: Kaknüs Yayınları.

Kocabatmaz, H. (2020). Yetişkin eğitimin tanımı ve kapsamı. E. Figen (Ed.), *Yetişkin eğitimi ve hayat boyu öğrenme* içinde (ss. 1–16). Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.

Lala, Ö., Yazar, T., & Çolak, A. (2017). Öğretmenlerin yetişkin eğitimi kavramına ilişkin algılarının metaforlar aracılığıyla analizi. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Kırşehir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 18(3), 80–99.

MEB Hayat Boyu Öğrenme Kurumları Yönetmeliği. (2018). (*MNE Lifelong Learning Institutions Regulation*) 11 Nisan 2018. Resmi Gazete (Sayı:30388). http://hbogm.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2018_04/11093946_MEB_HBO_KURUMLARI_YYNETMELYYY.pdf adresinden erişildi.

Merriam, S. B. (2013). *Nitel Araştırma: Desen ve uygulamalar için bir rehber.* Ankara: Nobel Akademi Yayıncılık.

Miles, M., B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook.* Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Miser, R. (2002). Küreselleşen dünyada yetişkin eğitimi. *Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi*

Dergisi, 35(2), 55-60.

- OECD. (2018). EC-OECD Forum Making adult learning work for the future Issues Paper. 20.05.2021 tarihinde https://ec.europa.eu/social/vocational-skills-week/sites/default/files/ec-oecd_forum_issues_paper_final.pdf adresinden erişildi.
- Özengi, M. (2017). halk eğitim merkezlerinin kursiyer görüşlerine göre değerlendirilmesi: amasra halk eğitim merkezi örneği. (Unpublished master's thesis). Bartın Üniversitesi, Bartın, Türkiye.
- Park, S., J. (2002). The change in South Korean adult education in globalization. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 21(3), 285-294.
- Patton, M., Q. (2014). *Nitel araştırma ve değerlendirme yöntemleri*. (M. Bütün & S. B. Demir, Çev.) Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Sayılan, F., Yıldız, A. ve Baykal, N. S. (2017). Yetişkinlerin temel eğitimi bağlamında yetişkinler ikinci kademe eğitimi programının bütünsel bir değerlendirmesi. *Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi*, 50(2), 1-32. doi:https://dx.doi.org/10.1501/Egifak_00000001395
- Şahoğlu, B. (2010). Halk Eğitim Merkezlerinde düzenlenen kurslara devam eden yetişkinlerin katılım amaçları ve kurslara ilişkin görüşleri. (Unpublished master's thesis). Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Ankara, Türkiye.
- Temiz, M. (2009). *Halk eğitimi merkezlerinde görevli mesleki-teknik ve sosyal - kültürel kursları öğretmenlerinin öz yeterlilik düzeylerinin incelenmesi*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Marmara Üniversitesi, İstanbul, Türkiye.
- Tezcan, F. (2012). *Halk eğitimi merkezi kurslarına katılan yetişkin öğrenenlerin güdüsel yönelimleri (Muğla ili Merkez İlçe Halk Eğitimi Merkezi kursları örneği)*. (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Ankara Üniversitesi, Ankara, Türkiye.
- Turgay, Ç. (2019). *Geçmişten günümüze Türkiye'de yaşam boyu öğrenme*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Ankara, Türkiye.
- Türkoğlu, A., & Uça, S. (2011). Türkiye'de halk eğitimi: tarihsel gelişimi, sorunları ve çözüm önerileri. *Adnan Menderes Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 2(2), 48-62.
- UNESCO. (2019). *Leave no one behind: Participation, equity, and inclusion. 4th global report on adult learning and education*. <http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=ED540497> adresinden erişildi.
- Yazar, T., & Lala, O. (2018). Evaluation of the problems encountered in public education centers. *Eğitim Araştırmaları - Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 2018(76), 125-146. doi:10.14689/ejer.2018.76.7
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2018). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Yıldız, A. (2010). Birinci kademe okuma-yazma kurslarına katılan yetişkinlerin matematik becerileri üzerine bir araştırma. *Eğitim ve bilim*, 35(158), 28-43.



TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Halk Eğitimi Merkezlerinde Görev Alan Sınıf Öğretmenlerinin Yetişkin Eğitime İlişkin Görüşleri

Giriş

Yetişkin eğitimi ülkelerin sürdürülebilir kalkınma hedeflerinin gerçekleşmesinde, çok önemli bir role sahiptir. Bazı ülkelerde, hızlı nüfus artışı, mevcut işgücünde de değişim meydana getirmektedir. Günümüzde yetişkinler yaşamlarının büyük bir kısmını geleceğin işlerinde harcamaktadır. Bu sebeple yetişkinlerin nüfus değişimi ile beraber değişen iş kolları için yeni beceriler öğrenmesi veya mevcut becerilerini güncellemeleri gerekmektedir. Yetişkinlere yaşamları boyunca öğrenme fırsatları sağlayarak, yetişkinlerin nitelikleri geliştirilebilir. Yetişkin eğitime katılımın artması ve bu eğitimin herkes için eşit, kapsayıcı şekilde yaygınlaşması, başta ülkelerin kalkınması olmak üzere sorunlara bütüncül çözümler getirilmesi bakımından çok önemlidir (UNESCO, 2019).

Yetişkin eğitimi, örgün eğitimin dışına çıkmış veya örgün eğitime hiç katılmamış ya da bireylerin mesleki ve kişisel becerilerinin gelişimini destekleyen tamamlayıcı eğitim etkinliklerine vurgu yapar (Karabacak ve Kaygın, 2018).

Ülkemizde yetişkin eğitimi genellikle devlet tarafından verilmekte, sayıca az da olsa yetişkin eğitimi özel kurumlar tarafından da uygulanabilmektedir. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı vatandaşlara mesleki, kültürel, sosyal birçok kursu halk eğitimi merkezlerinde sunmaktadır (Turgay, 2019).

Tüm vatandaşların beklenti, ilgi ve isteklerine yönelik; sosyal, kültürel, sportif, mesleki ve ekonomik alanlarda ücretsiz kurs düzenleyen yetişkin eğitiminde en kolay erişim sağlanabilen hayat boyu öğrenme kurumu halk eğitimi merkezleridir (HBOGM, 2020). Bu bakımdan bu araştırmada halk eğitim merkezlerinde görev alan sınıf öğretmenlerinin yetişkin eğitime ilişkin görüşleri incelenerek, yetişkin eğitiminin durumu, yetişkin eğitiminde karşılaşılan güçlükler ve süreçte görev üstlenen eğitimcilerin rolleri itibarıyla sürece katkılarına dair tespitlerde bulunulmaya çalışılmıştır. Bu araştırmanın amacı; halk eğitimi merkezlerinde görev yapan sınıf öğretmenlerinin yetişkin eğitime ilişkin görüşlerini incelemektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda sınıf öğretmenlerine ilişkin aşağıdaki sorulara yanıt aranmıştır:

1. Yetişkin eğitime ilişkin öğretmen görüşleri nelerdir?
2. İyi bir yetişkin eğitimcisinin özellikleri nelerdir?
3. Yetişkin eğitiminin üstünlükleri ve sınırlılıkları nelerdir?
4. Yetişkin eğitiminde yaşanan sorunlar nelerdir?

Yöntem

Araştırmada nitel araştırma modellerinden temel nitel araştırma deseni kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada halk eğitim merkezlerinde görev yapan sınıf öğretmenlerinin yetişkin eğitime ilişkin deneyimleri, deneyimlerine ilişkin algıları ve oluşturdukları anlamların anlaşılması amaçlanmıştır. Bu nedenle araştırmada temel nitel araştırma deseni benimsenmiştir (Altheide & Johnson, 2011). Temel nitel araştırma deseni; fenomenoloji, örnek olay ya da örtük teori gibi yöntemlere girmeden yapılan temel ve yorumlayıcı bir çalışma türü olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunun belirlenmesinde amaçlı örneklem yöntemlerinden biri olan ölçüt örneklem yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme formu kullanılarak halk eğitimi merkezlerinde görev alan sınıf öğretmenlerinin yetişkin eğitime ilişkin görüşleri hakkında veri toplanması amaçlanmıştır. Verilerin analizinde içerik analizi yöntemi kullanılmıştır. İçerik analiziyle yapılmak istenen; ortaya çıkan verileri belirli kavramlar ve temalar çerçevesinde bir araya getirip okuyucuların yorumlayabileceği hale dönüştürmektir (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). Bu araştırmada veriler; verilerin kodlanması, temaların bulunması, kodların ve temaların düzenlenmesi ve tanımlanması, bulguların yorumlanması olarak 4 aşamada analiz edilmiştir.

Bulgular

Araştırmadan elde edilen bazı önemli bulgular aşağıda sunulmuştur:

- Halk eğitimi merkezinde yetişkin eğitiminde görev yapan öğretmenlerin çoğunun yetişkin eğitime yönelik herhangi bir eğitim almadıkları görülmektedir.
- Öğretmenler yetişkin eğitiminin birey ve toplum için önemini belirterek, yetişkin eğitiminin bireyin hayatını değiştirebileceğini, toplumu ve geleceği şekillendirebileceğini vurgulamışlardır.
- Öğretmenler yetişkin eğitiminde görev yapmanın mutluluk verdiğini ancak bu eğitimlerin fedakârlık gerektirdiğini belirtmişlerdir.
- Öğretmenlerin çoğu yetişkinlerde yaşın artmasının temel bilgi ve becerilerin öğrenmesini olumsuz etkilediğini belirtmişlerdir.
- Yetişkinlerin çalışıyor olması, evli olması gibi farklı sorumluluklarının olmasının yetişkin eğitimi etkilediği belirtilmiştir.
- Öğretmenlerin çoğu yetişkin eğitiminin yetişkinler tarafından yeteri kadar bilinmediğini belirtmişlerdir.
- Yetişkin eğitimi veren öğretmenler iyi bir yetişkin eğitimcisinin özelliklerinde sabırlı, samimi, mesafeli, anlayışlı olmayı vurgulamışlardır.
- Öğretmenler yetişkin eğitimcisinin akademik yeterliliğinin olması, yetişkinlerin psikolojisini bilmesi ve yetişkinlere uygun farklı yöntem ve teknikleri kullanması gerektiğini belirtmişlerdir.
- Yetişkin eğitiminde görev yapan öğretmenler açısından yetişkin eğitiminin, mesai saatlerinin geniş bir yelpazede olması, yetişkin eğitiminde blok derslerin yapılabilmesi, yetişkin eğitime katılanların belirli bir amaç doğrultusunda eğitimlere katılması, okuma yazma materyallerinin teminin kolay olması ve okuma yazma kitaplarının ücretsiz dağıtılmasını avantaj olarak belirtilmiştir.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Yapılan çalışmaya katılan 20 öğretmenden büyük çoğunluğunun (n=15) yetişkin eğitime dair herhangi bir eğitim almadığı saptanmış ve yetişkinlerin eğitim sürecinde görev üstlenen öğretmenlerin yetişkin eğitimi ile ilgili andragojik ilkeler dâhilinde eğitimler almaları gerektiği vurgulanmıştır. Kızanlık (2018), yaptığı çalışmada benzer şekilde yetişkin eğitiminde görev yapan gençlik öğretmenlerinin andragojik açıdan ek öğrenmelere ihtiyaçları olduğunu saptamıştır. Özellikle 2018 yılında sınıf öğretmenliği programına yetişkin eğitimi ve hayat boyu öğrenme dersinin seçmeli ders olarak konması ve öncesinde böyle bir dersin olmaması benzer şekilde öğretmenlere yönelik yetişkin eğitimi hakkında yeteri kadar hizmet içi kurslarının verilmemesi bu sebepler arasında sayılabilir.

Öğretmenler başta okuma yazma olmak üzere yetişkin eğitiminin bireyin hayatını değiştirebileceğini, toplumu ve geleceği şekillendirebileceğini vurgulamışlardır. Bu sonucu destekler biçimde Babayiğit ve Gökçe (2018), Akay ve Ültanır (2010), Yıldız (2010), Elüstü (2007) benzer sonuca ulaşmışlardır. Yetişkin eğitimi birey ve toplum için önemlidir. Öğretmenler de yetişkin eğitimin önemini gözlemlemiş ve vurgulamışlardır. Yapılan çalışmada halk eğitimi merkezlerinde görev yapan öğretmenlerin çoğu yetişkin eğitimi vermenin gurur ve mutluluk verici olduğunu vurgulamıştır.

Çalışmada öğretmenler yetişkin eğitiminde kursiyer devamsızlığını sorun olarak belirtmişlerdir. Bu durumu destekler biçimde Yıldız'ın (2010) yaptığı çalışmada yetişkin okuma-yazma kurslarında terk oranlarının yüksek olduğu vurgulanmıştır. Benzer şekilde Yazar ve Lala (2018), yetişkinlerin kurslara düzenli gelmemeleri ve yetersiz ders saati nedeniyle öğretmenlerin sorun yaşadıklarını belirtilmişlerdir. Yetişkinler çeşitli nedenlerle devamsızlık yapmakta, bu durum eğitimi de olumsuz etkilemektedir. Yetişkinlerin çalışıyor olması ve yetişkin eğitiminin yeteri kadar önemsenmemesi devamsızlığın sebepleri arasında sayılabilir.

Öğretmenlerin çoğu yetişkin eğitiminin yetişkinler tarafından yeteri kadar bilinmediğini belirtmişlerdir. Dolayısıyla yetişkin eğitime dair farkındalığı artıracak çalışmalar yapılmalıdır.

İyi bir yetişkin eğitimcisinin sabırlı, samimi, mesafeli, anlayışlı olması bununla beraber akademik yeterliliğinin olması, yetişkinlerin psikolojisini bilmesi ve yetişkinlere uygun farklı yöntem ve teknikleri kullanabilmesi ön plana çıkan bir diğer sonuçtur.

Araştırma sonuçlarına dayalı olarak şu önerilerde bulunulabilir:

- Yetişkin eğitiminde görev yapan öğretmenlerin yetişkin eğitime yönelik eğitim faaliyetleri yaygınlaştırılmalı, bu öğretmenlere andragojik ilkeler dâhilinde yetişkin eğitimi üzerine eğitimler verilmelidir.
- Başta okuma-yazma olmak üzere temel bilgi ve becerilerin yetişkinler tarafından öğrenilmesi sağlanmalıdır.
- Hayat boyu öğrenme kurumlarının yetişkinlere verdiği eğitimler ve bu eğitimlerin yetişkinlere yararları afiş, poster, kamu spotu, tanıtım filmi gibi araçlardan yararlanarak yetişkinlere duyurulabilir. Ayrıca hedef kitleye sosyal medya gibi yaygın mecralar aracılığıyla yetişkin eğitiminin tanıtımı yapılarak yetişkin eğitime ilişkin farkındalık artırılabilir.
- Yetişkin eğitimi veren kurumlar yetişkinlerin ilgi, istek ve beklentilerine yönelik eğitimler vermeli ve bu eğitimler yetişkinlere uygun zamanlarda planlanmalıdır.