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The True Costs of Social Promotion and Retention

Matthew Lynch*

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Abstract

Policies on social promotion and retention, although formulated to regulate academic success and failure in the field of K-12 education, have become burdensome and are now considered damaging to the public education system. The various stakeholders in education, including students, teachers, education policy makers, parents, and employers are all undermined by the pass or fail mentality of the current system. As failure continues to mean that a student is either retained or promoted without the necessary mastery of skills and knowledge deemed age appropriate, all of these stakeholders pay a price or absorb a cost that can hardly be made up. Because of these costs, a more comprehensive probe on current policies is needed to either throw away ineffective ones or improve on viable ones.

Keywords: Education policy, social promotion, retention, standardized tests

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The True Costs of Social Promotion and Retention

This article attempts to explain the societal costs of social promotion and retention, considering how these policies impact the future academic career of an impacted child (a child who is retained or promoted without having achieved the required graded level of knowledge and skill). Spiraling outward, the article will also consider costs to affected families, to communities in areas with particularly high retention or social promotion numbers; the impact on the national labor force and on higher education institutions, and the impact on the national economy. As far as possible, the aim here is to show the total cost of social promotion and retention policies, why social promotion and retention can be said to be ruining our public education system and, more than that, why these policies are having a damaging effect on our society as a whole.

Costs to Affected Students

Students directly impacted by social promotion or retention – those who are, at one time or another, either promoted per a social promotion policy or retained because of inability to pass standardized tests for their targeted age grade level – have been noted to pay a considerable price in a variety of ways.

Academic Costs

Most obvious costs perhaps, for a socially promoted or retained student, are academic in nature or specifically related to their educational experience. While data on the effects of these two policies upon students' long-term academic performance are not absolutely conclusive, generalizing results, it is fairly clear that the majority of students who are socially promoted find that their long-term academic potential is significantly undermined. For students who are retained, the same is true in terms of results but the explanation or causal factor is different. Retention policies require that students repeat a year, sometimes multiple times. The policy is put into effect based on a student's inability to achieve an acceptable score demonstrating knowledge and skill on graded standardized tests, suggesting, at least as a possibility, that the teaching approach used for the child either in the specific year or throughout their educational career to-date, as been ineffective or otherwise inappropriate for that individual. Whereas children with diagnosed special needs have an Individualized Education Program (IEP) developed to provide elements of specialized instruction to support the child's learning, students who fail standardized tests are not necessarily provided any kind of specialized instruction even in light of their failure.

Numerous studies have demonstrated the ineffectiveness of student retention on academic performance, ranging from generalizations of why retention and promotion policies do not work to specific studies and reviews of why these policies do not work for specific groups of students, often organized by grade. For instance, several studies have considered achievement results in kindergarten and how they are impacted by retention (Burkam, LoGerfo, Ready, & Lee, 2007; Dong, 2009; Penfield, 2010). Several of these studies tracked the test results of retained students beyond the year that they were retained (Hauser & Frederick, 2005; Pomplun, 1988). Others looked at literacy or reading results specifically, recognizing that literacy or rather reading levels are deemed fundamental to education (Burkam et al., 2007).

In terms of academic costs, substantial academic gains are seldom reported for retained students. The National Association of School Psychologists (2003) offered a position statement on retention that indicated the failure of retained students to do better than their promoted peers and even extended the conclusion to suggest that retained students have been shown to perform even less well than promoted students in some instances.

Summarizing studies into the academic development of retained versus promoted students, Holmes and Matthew (1984) considered a total of 63 studies and found that 54 of them reported negative effects for retention with specific reference to academic achievements. In other words, the

academic cost of retention versus social promotion is that students do not benefit academically from the policy of testing with the intention of retaining or promoting based on results. Neither social promotion nor retention specifically helps to enhance an individual's academic standing and potentially, individual students actually are less successful academically after either retention or social promotion. Hattie (2009), Jimerson (2001), and Dong (2009) suggested that there were predominantly negative results for retention. At best, any positive results (and there is a minimal amount reported) tend to be short lived and outweighed by the negative effects of retention versus social promotion.

Students who are retained are also documented to potentially experience a negative bias or the disadvantage of preconceived notions among other teachers they encounter. When a student is retained, "the retention may impact the beliefs of teachers the student will encounter in his future educational career," (Pomplun, 1988), making the cost fairly clear. Neither social promotion nor retention is effective in solving the problem of providing appropriate instruction for low performing students. The retention research "has been phrased for a yes or no answer relative to its implementation, but the main conclusion should be that both policies are failures" (NASP, 2003) for the impacted students, costing the academic potential of the students directly impacted. While students who are permitted to move on to the next grade level are actually noted to learn more than if retained in the same grade, grade retention and social promotion have a negative effect on all areas of student achievement including reading, math, language, and social and emotional adjustment (Jimerson, Pletcher, & Kerr, 2005).

While many students appear to accept that their grades are better after grade retention, there is still an issue that parents and students find with school support. In Fanguy and Mathis (2012), it was determined that parents identified a need for improved school performance and that they further identified such an improvement as having a potentially positive result on retention. All eight students featured in the study also indicated that they attempted grade level material for the second time and were either more familiar with the material or approached the material with a different attitude and more success. Although the actual effect may not have been as clear cut, it was perceived that school performance had improved based on performance with grade material. Jimerson, et al. (2005) also undertook a meta-analysis of 64 studies and suggested some students who were retained in school demonstrated short-term achievement gains following their retention. It is also demonstrated that retained adolescent students in nine of the 63 studies examined demonstrated increased academic achievement the year after they were retained but these gains as proved to be short-lived. As a cost, then, what this suggests is that retention can perpetuate false hopes for students after retention that leads to potentially more devastating failure. Having thought that their academic performance improved, after approaching graded material for a second time, students are then faced with new material at the next grade up and tend to experience struggles similar to those that lead to their initial retention. The long-term effects on academic performance have also been extensively studied but student perceptions of improved academic performance after retention must generally be discounted. Two of the eight adolescent students were retained a second time, and two were retained three times based on Fanguy and Mathis's (2012) findings. Their findings also concurred with studies by Jimerson et al. (2005) and Walters and Borgers (1995) indicating that retention appeared to benefit students the year after they were retained, but later perpetuated a decline and disappearance of positive effects in subsequent years, resulting in a second retention at times. The most striking academic cost is the potential erosion of any enthusiasm or love of learning among retained students based on these findings.

Non-Academic Costs to Directly Affected Students

For want of a better term, the notion of personal costs relates to the self of the student. Thompson and Cunningham (2000) pointed out that retention discourages students whose motivation and confidence are already shaky, adding that promoted students gain an opportunity to advance through next year's curriculum, while retained students go over the same ground and thus fall father behind their advancing peers.

Several studies identify a high correlation between student retention and student drop-out rates. The National Longitudinal Study (NELS) was applied to examine student and school factors associated with students dropping out in different grades. The studies found that, consistent with previous research, the results indicated that being held back is the single strongest factor predictor of dropping out and that its effect is consistent for both early and late dropouts.

Socially and personally, retention and social promotion policies cost students as well. Retention clearly has a deleterious effect on the self-esteem and social and personal adjustment, including discipline, of affected students. Specifically, retained students are even noted to have increased risks in health related areas such as stress, low social confidence, substance abuse, and violent behaviors. Several studies have demonstrated that students also view retention as being more degrading and stressful than losing a parent or going blind, which is clearly indicative of a tremendous cost to self-esteem, social adjustment, and personal adjustment (Jimerson, 2001).

Depending on when a child is retained – and there is some need to draw a distinction between retention in Kindergarten or 1st Grade and later grades, when a student has an established educational career – it can be decidedly difficult to engage with non-retained peers on a par. The social development of children is complex as well and a crucial aspect of their overall development.

Fanguy and Mathis (2012) discussed the psychosocial fall out from grade retention and considered the implication on educators, as well, which surely is yet another cost angle for consideration. Their specific goal, in fact, was to identify counseling needs for grade-retained students through qualitative research focused on the psychosocial responses of retained students and their parents. The study found that universally, retained students did report highly negative development changes. Problems reported included lower than typical self-esteem, higher instances of social isolation from peers, shame about grade retention itself and being older than classmates, resentment of teachers and administrators, and an overall diminished quality of life

In addition to demonstrating the psychological and social costs, of course, this article emphasizes the importance of student integration on the psychosocial level. Without feeling confident about placement in typical education settings and without being able to maintain meaningful, positive relationships with peers, teachers, and even administrators, a student's academic potential can be seriously undermined.

While many studies concentrate on the more obvious features of grade retention, including demographics, Fanguy and Mathis (2012) consider these effects to be “the tip of the psychosocial iceberg” (p. 2). Although it is relevant to note that grade retention has significantly reduced student numbers in school (as noted by a variety of studies also cited by Fanguy and Mathis (2012) and others considering the effects of retention), consideration of the causes of this effect, the sub-causes, is perhaps more relevant and indicative of the true underlying cost. Not only are retained students dropping out of school or being excluded for one reason or another, including due to higher suspension rates, they are actually suffering more acutely in terms of their personal identity and psychology. Dropout and even suspension should perhaps be regarded as the effects of these costs – poor self-esteem, negatively impacted or delayed development in terms of developing a positive identity and sense of self-worth. While there are other paths, potentially, to educational development or job training, the psychosocial delays that actually lead to the dropping out of retained students are actually rather more likely to be permanent or at least long-term.

Erikson (1968) considered identity development and his research, which has ready application to retention and social promotion policies, sheds considerable light on these issues. Indeed, Erikson (1968) specifically noted that having a high level of self-esteem was critical to identity development in adolescents. Adolescents, when they feel good about themselves, develop a positive identity while those who do not feel good about themselves tend to struggle with their identity and can potentially develop maladaptive or dysfunctional behaviors (these could well be the actual causes of student suspension or dropout at critical points).

As Fanguy and Mathis (2012) point out, Erikson's theory about identity development focuses on individual psychological development as it pertains to adolescent life and also isolates social components of development that include family, school and peers. In their study, Fanguy and Mathis (2012) specifically apply this theory to demonstrate the most damaging psychosocial fall out of grade-retained students. Conducting 45-minute, semi-structured interviews with eight students selected for participation in their study and then further interviews with parents, Fanguy and Mathis (2012) noted that there was relative racial and economic diversity, with five of the selected students being white and three being black; with all but one of the students describing their families as middle-income.

In student and parent interviews, Fanguy and Mathis (2012) noted that the most common causes for retention were considered to be environmental stressors, apathy towards school, insufficient preparation for the following grade level, and poor behavior patterns. Fanguy and Mathis (2012) report the student feedback directly and clearly demonstrate the prominence of psychosocial issues that could well be traced to retention itself:

Acting apathetic toward school was a maladaptive behavior developed when Donovan repeated the third grade; Sam repeated the first grade; and Lisa repeated the seventh grade. Donovan, Lisa and Sam, along with Donovan's and Sam's parent, described how they developed poor attitudes toward school following their first retention and disengaged from the educational process. The trio's lack of academic success caused them to doubt their own ability to properly complete schoolwork successfully. As a result, this ultimately led these three students to be retained in eighth grade. On the other hand, Beth's apathy developed as a maladaptive behavior to cope with her watching her mother's health deteriorate to the point where she was unable to manage her personal life. For relief from her pain about her mother's illness, Beth became apathetic about all aspects of her life including her schoolwork. (p. 5-6)

Also cited were issues directly related to retention. Seven of the eight students reported reacting negatively to retention (being upset, crying, and being angry). Only one student reported having a minimal reaction to the news of retention. The majority reaction, though, being negative, suggests that retention had a strong and negative impact on self-esteem. Even in the case of the student who was retained but did not appear to react negatively to the news, parent report indicated that behavior caused retention in the sixth and seventh grades, with peer pressure influencing behaviors as well as disruptive behavior being a factor.

Fanguy and Mathis (2012) also assess the long-term impacts of retention to some degree, in their interviews with students and parents. Several of the students indicated that they had experienced what they considered to be life changing effects and that they had experienced a dramatic increase in stress and, in some instances, an even more pronounced dislike of school. One of the students was also diagnosed with Attention Deficit Disorder, which, correlating with the research conducted by Beebe-Frankenberger, Bocain, MacMillan, & Gresham (2004) pointing to the extent to which student retention is used as an intervention strategy prior to identification of a learning disability. Jimerson, et al (2005) identified that retention was ranked among the most stressful event in life for adolescents as well, which correlates with Fanguy and Mathis's (2012) research as well. Feelings of isolation from friends, abandonment by certain friends, and increased absence of parents were also identified in Fanguy and Mathis's (2012) study.

An assessment was made of low self-esteem signals for participating students, as well, with five of the eight students and five of the eight parents commenting on low self-esteem as an issue affecting the student with regard to retention. One student's father specifically indicated that they felt their child had low self-esteem and another parent indicated that their child clearly "felt bad about herself." Two parents also reported that their children were giving up too easily and not believing in themselves. Another of the parents described how their child had called herself "stupid" while one of the students indicated that they were aware that they did not set goals too high that they knew they could not achieve them. The implication of this was that the student did not have the self-esteem to set challenging goals.

Another of the students reported feeling “stupid” and “dumb” as a result of their lack of success in school. Another said she felt “she would never get it” when she kept experiencing failure on the Louisiana Educational Assessment Program (LEAP) test and reported how she felt she may never pass. Anger at being victimized by teachers as also referenced with regard to being forced to repeat a grade. The student described dropping out of school to escape the experience.

According to Fanguy and Mathis (2012), only two of their studied students demonstrated any signs of positive self-concepts, describing themselves positively and feeling optimistic about their abilities, a description supported by their parents.

Indicative of other studies that have assessed retention among students at various levels, the findings in Fanguy and Mathis (2012) clearly suggest that retention can actually be extremely destructive to a student’s development, allowing that academic development is not the only option. Yet, similar issues can also be seen with socially promoted students. The problems of poor self-esteem, poor sense of self-worth, issues with peers, anger and resentment towards teachers and school administrators, and general apathy towards school are also problems for students who are socially promoted. Indeed, peer isolation or bullying can sometimes be even more extreme.

Applying Erikson’s (1968) psychosocial theory of development, relating to long-term costs, it cannot be overemphasized that high self-esteem is important for adolescents and their long-term developmental success. Without reasonable self-esteem, individuals can prove unable to resolve the crisis of the identity versus role confusion stage of development.

In their study, Fanguy and Mathis (2012) identify six of the eight interviewed students as having reported a low level of self-esteem, described potentially as poor identity development. Only two students, of course, could then be described as having a normal positive identity development following their experiences of retention. Relevant research includes work by Steinberg and Morris (2001), which is supported by the conclusion that academic ability is one of the many factors used by adolescents to evaluate themselves. The finding of Fanguy and Mathis (2012) is clearly that self-esteem may be compromised during identity development if adolescents are not successful in school, if retention policies are implemented. In fact, their research conclusion echoed the belief that retention might be avoided if the students received more help from schools. Two of the students featured in the study also considered that if they had received more help from parents, though, they might have done better in school and potentially have avoided retention. Although such perceptions are inevitably subjective, the perceptions belong to students, whose own identity and conception of schoolwork undoubtedly played some role in the outcome of their academic efforts. There was, at least, a perceived need for further support for students. The students believed that their failing grades were at least in part due to somehow inadequate support in school or at home. Theoretically, the actual need versus perceived need at least is worth further investigation pertaining to students’ lack of accomplishment. Fanguy and Mathis (2012) also conclude that many of the students in the study lacked the skills to advocate for themselves, which potentially identifies another non-academic cost to retention – that affected students may already be reluctant (and potentially become more so) to ask for help from school representatives or family when they need it.

Cost to “Passing” Students

Students directly impacted by retention and social promotion are not the only ones impacted among the students of America’s public schools. Those students who actually pass from one grade to the next, year to year, according to the graded parameters also pay a price for the implementation of these policies. In an abstract way, we should not overlook the anxiety that must inevitably be associated with testing and grading for “passing” students. The potential for a student to be retained or to be socially promoted, not having achieved the required graded level is certainly a cause of anxiety; anxiety which does not always manifest as a motivating factor for students to prioritize their studies.

Beyond this cost, however, the cost on the mindset of the “passing” student, there are several clearly identified and fairly well documented costs for “passing” students that relate to, for instance, the quality of teaching provided when there is a need to also support retained or socially promoted students.

Fanguy and Mathis (2012) mention reports from retained students that their non-retained peers were increasingly distant. Inability to socialize with students in the grade in which retention is undertaken was also identified as a problem for retained students.

Although this is not entirely conclusive or indicative of the underlying causes for social withdrawal from retained students, these findings suggest that having a retained student in a classroom can be a confusing social experience for non-retained students and one that goes largely unaddressed by school support systems (counselors, teachers, and administrators).

Teasing from peers was also identified as a factor undermining the psychosocial development of retained students in Fanguy and Mathis (2012). Specifically, students reported that they had been made fun of and called names like “stupid” or “dumb”. This is particularly notable because adolescence is a phase, outlined by Erikson (1968, 1980), has being of particular importance for the formation of self-concepts and identities. It is during this period that individuals develop a sense of self and of their own identity. When there is disruption at this period, when the social and emotional development of students is hampered, there is potentially long-term, even permanent damage done. Peers play a particularly important role in adolescent development, as well, with experiences such as teasing having the potential to entirely disrupt proper development during this phase. Keltikangas-Jarvinen (2007), for instance, determined that adolescents tend to act with increased aggression during this phase. They tend to be more aggressive during this phase in response to bullying or teasing. A long-term cost of the disruption is inevitably that students who are retained or socially promoted can become generally maladjusted.

Cost to Teachers

McNeil (2000) offers particular insight into to the costs of retention and social promotion policies for teachers, the standardized testing of students as a means of “testing” teachers, pressurizing them to teach in a particular way, to teach to tests, and the like. She explains that when the state school system was 'nuked' or hit by the standardized testing and graded approach, the bombs did not fall on the targeted state education agency or middle-level managers in the state bureaucracy (McNeil, 2000). Standardized testing did not affect the central office administrators in the local school districts or others but rather, they affected the teachers. Education reform that brought about the pass or fail focus included systems of “testing teachers” and evaluating classroom performance but only by also prescribing the curriculum and emphasizing the testing of students. The cost of this is the quality of education overall and the scope that teachers have to manifest that quality. Teachers are essentially forced to undermine their own skills, trivializing and reducing the quality of the content of the curriculum they teach from and encouraging the distancing of children from “the substance of schooling” (McNeil, 2000).

Like their students, teachers must inevitably experience stress because of this emphasis on standardized testing as well, and also with respect to student retention or social promotion instances. Teachers play an important role in the decision process for retention or social promotion, as well, which perhaps is a further cause of increased anxiety or worse, an opportunity for anxiety about student test results to be mitigated by the effective removal of any students whose test results are not on par.

Cost to the Education System and Non-Teaching Agents

Social promotion and retention policies impact the entire education system in the United States. A 2009-2010 study by the United States Department of Education’s Office of Civil Rights

(ORC), indicated that about 2.3 percent of all students in some 7,000 school districts (representing more than 85 percent of students in American public schools) were retained a grade at the close of the school year (West, 2012). Although much of this rate is said to have reflected retention in high school, where the credit system often determines that a significant number of students do not accumulate enough credits to advance their academic standing to the next grade, still approximately 1 percent of the students retained were in grades K to 8, with the largest numbers actually repeating Kindergarten or first grade.

Regardless of the point at which retention occurs, there are direct financial costs associated with the policy, as well. Retaining a student in the same grade is actually a costly intervention (West, 2012). The average cost per student, of a typically developing and progressing child, was approximately \$10,700 in 2009-2010. The direct cost to retain approximately 2.3 percent is therefore an excess of \$12 billion annually for the number of students retained (2.3 percent of the 50 million students enrolled in American schools in a given year). This estimate also excludes costs for any remedial services provided to the students repeating a grade, such as any learning support or specialized services. It also excludes the costs of any earnings foregone by retained students due to their delayed entry into the labor market (West, 2012).

Social promotion costs, of course, are less easily tracked on every count, including in terms of costs to the education system. However, having students of considerably different abilities within a single classroom certainly undermines the potential for teachers to successfully address the needs of all students equally and as needed, without other specific supports in the classroom.

Cost to Families and Communities

Families impacted by retention and social promotion policies are disproportionately among already disadvantaged groups. Cannon and Lipscomb identified that children from low-income families, English learners, and Latinos were significantly more likely to be retained (Jimerson, 2001). Based on socio-economic patterns alone, it is reasonably well documented that these groups – low-income, English learner, and Latino – families are at particularly high risk of being impacted by retention or social promotion policies. The United States Department of Education report from 2006 noted that, among the most common characteristics of retained students were the following factors: male, black or racial minority, low socio-economic status, parents with low educational level, and parents with little school involvement (NASP, 2003).

Translated into costs, the tendency for certain families – low income, English learner, low educational level, and limited school involvement – determines that potentially there is a tendency for even greater anxiety about education when there is retention or promotion. Because retention or social promotion is apparently undertaken in a rather informal and somewhat haphazard fashion, it is worth nothing that parents and families as a whole may feel further disconnected from the education of their child when they are affected.

The ORC survey of 2009-2010, finding that 2.3 percent of students were retained, also indicated that retention rates are highest among traditionally disadvantaged minorities (West, 2012). Also noted as those most likely to suffer from low academic performance, the respective rates of retention for black and Hispanic students were 4.2 percent and 2.8 percent, as compared with just 1.5 percent for whites (West, 2012). One of the obvious community costs of retention, then, and arguably also of promotion, is the perpetuation of race based inequalities or biases in the education system as a whole.

Cost to Society At Large

Public education, by its very nature and purpose, impacts people, the public, in a variety of ways. By design, it impacts the knowledge and skillset of the population it serves – the students and those students as adults or future workers. When the system fails, however, in providing an education

to prepare future workers for success in their careers and in life, that failure costs both the national labor force and, thinking even more broadly, the national economy and system for social services.

National Labor Force

It seems rather ironic that an educational policy so closely connected to the notion of industrialization, puritan or at least protestant work ethic, and even modern production efforts, should allow itself to be so self-defeating. Yet, the failure of the public education system to support students who do not achieve the graded standards by year determines that a substantial population of public school students and future workers are essentially unprepared or underprepared for successful participation in the labor force. Students who drop out of school – and retained or socially promoted students are at significantly higher risk for this – have fewer qualifications as they enter the work force and ultimately less knowledge and skill compared to their peers who have graduated high school and beyond. While there are costs to the individual that translate to economic and social outcomes, for the labor force, the cost of an unprepared or underprepared worker is considerable as well.

Markey (1988) noted that of the 4 million high school dropouts in 1986, 1 in 6 was unemployed and many were not in the labor force at all because of the overwhelming competition from high school graduates and college graduates. The overwhelming correlation between retention and social promotion and high school drop-out rates must also be considered to understand exactly how this particular factor plays out.

In essence, the failure to inspire individual students to success in school tends to determine that they are less productive overall as participants in the workforce. Being less likely to pursue higher education opportunities, they are also therefore more likely to be unemployed and are certainly scaled to earn considerably less over the course of their lifetime. Our education system is failing itself in that it is producing workers who are unable to contribute to the workforce to what is quite likely their potential.

Costs to the Economy and Social Services

Generally speaking, grade repeaters are more likely to be on public assistance programs, unemployed or imprisoned (NASP, 2003). Assessing family income for recent high school drop outs versus high school graduates and recent high school graduates, assessing households where students were still living at home, it was found that the median income for families of dropouts was \$12,100 and the median for families of recent high school graduates was \$22,700. For college-enrolled high school graduates, the median family income was \$34,200 (NASP, 2003). Although these elements are not to be regarded as causal – low income families causing drop outs or the need for retention or social promotion – these factors and statistics that suggest that large numbers of dropouts come from single parent households and households run by women, these risk factors show social fall outs of in the education policy. That is, at risk students, students from families where there are challenges in addition to education are not being effectively supported by the current education system.

With students who are retained or socially promoted tending to end up reliant upon social services, earning less over the course of their lifetime than those who are not retained or socially promoted, potentially dropping out of school all together, it is clear that there are considerable long-term costs for the pass and fail policy, with society having to go on supporting affected students, more often than not, rather than education actually serving its purpose and enabling individuals to be self-sufficient. Indeed, one study in particular, by Klima (2007), examined the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) and discusses a national dropout crisis in the United States. The study determined that, every September, approximately 3.5 million young people in America are seen to enter the eighth grade, with roughly 505,000 of this number dropping out over the next four years—an average of nearly more than 2,805 per day of the school year.

Within the context of this problem of NCLB, the use of high-stakes testing places increased pressure on students and forces teachers and administrators. Stating that the goal of testing is to distinguish between good and bad students, reward successful schools and bad schools, transfer students from failing students to successful ones, and provide students for those with adequate test scores, one of the most notable fallouts of the NCLB has been the prominence with which states have undertaken to use scores for retention and promotion decisions. This application of the NCLB, though, has apparently lead to the increase in dropout rates and traces to higher instances of single parents, declines into poverty, reliance upon welfare, and possibly decline to poverty.

Individuals who drop out of school earn approximately \$270,000 less than a high school graduate over their working life. It is also noted that having a high school diploma rather than having a skills assessment based on a minimum competency test, help to determine whether a person can obtain employment and how much money they will earn.

In 1997, it was indicated that the employment rate of men in the 25-to 34-year-old range who did not graduate high school was more than twice that of men who did graduate. Among women, within that same age-range, the unemployment rate of women without diplomas was three times higher than those with diplomas (Klima, 2007).

Although the link may be somewhat indirect, retention and social promotion policies are contributing to the increased dropout rates among American students. The increase in dropouts or at least the prevalence of dropouts among individuals who are retained or socially promoted is also linked, inevitably, to social problems such as unemployment, reliance upon welfare, poverty, and increased crime rates.

Because both retention and social promotion policies, linking also to high instances of dropout, tend to impact minority students disproportionately (minority students are disproportionately more likely to be retained or socially promoted and to drop out of school), it is apparently that policies of retention and social promotion also potentially contribute to racial disparities. The same can be said with regard to low-income families. Although the correlation between retention and social promotion and low-income families is not perhaps as definitive as the link between minorities and these policies, there is still an apparent correlation and a basis for suggesting that there is also a link to poverty and retention and social promotion policies.

The 21st century, however, is not the age of overt prejudices or even necessarily direct and transparent racial, social, or economic discrimination. The disparities that exist, some of which may be growing more extreme, remain rather well concealed. They are ignored, even, on the surface of things. It is in structured systems, like education, in fact, that they tend to emerge, going unaddressed until the situation, for one individual, is so far gone that affirmative action must be taken. The obvious example with education is that the discrimination against a minority, impoverished, or even learning disabled student goes on from the first day that they enter the education system and carries on, remains in effect, largely unnoticed, largely undetected, until the affected individual is so severely impacted that, for instance, they are unable to demonstrate appropriate understanding of materials that have been the emphasis of their curriculum for a year. This type of cost is potentially even harder to assess or otherwise overcome. It is unseen, largely intangible. There are also secondary costs, related to the lack of academic achievement, which include the individual's lost interest in school and their lost potential to excel in a variety of areas that do require demonstration of academic achievement. Yet, how can such problems, such costs, be undone? The education system itself cannot find its way out of providing some kind of quantitative assessment of performance – the performance of students and the performance of educators, administrators, and schools. Solutions are not easy to come by. The alternative strategies are complex, difficult to balance out. They require subtlety, inevitably, to overcome the subtlety of the prejudices that are in play. The potential of growing costs, though, and the expansion of those costs justify most efforts.

Conclusions

Although there are numerous challenges and limitations impacting the overall process of assessing the costs of retention and social promotion, the general cost of these policies is apparent from the evidence that is available and from a certain logical analysis of the scenario. The various stakeholders in education, including students, teachers, education policy makers, parents, and employers are all undermined by the pass or fail mentality of the current system. As failure continues to mean that a student is either retained or promoted without the necessary mastery of skills and knowledge deemed age appropriate, all of these stakeholders pay a price or absorb a cost that can hardly be made up. Individual students are literally disconnected as a result of this policy – disconnected from themselves, from education, from fellow students, from teachers and other educators, from their families, even, sometimes and from the community at large. Affected students are also disabled by the policy when it comes to their education and their potential in the workplace. While this is to state the causal and effect rather more directly than can be absolutely demonstrated with empirical evidence, in the context of education policy historically and at large, it is a statement that very much needs to be made and truly considered moving forward.

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A Comparative Study of Elementary Teachers' Beliefs and Strategies on Classroom and Behavior Management in the USA and Korean School Systems

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Abstract

The purpose of this cross-cultural study is to investigate elementary teachers' beliefs and inter-cultural perspectives in classroom management (instructional environment and behavior management) for students in public schools of the U.S. and Korea. The results supported that the two groups of teachers showed similar beliefs in instructional management styles, but demonstrated significant differences in student management styles. Overall, the Korean and the U.S. participating teachers tended to have slightly more teacher-directed instructional management style, but more Korean teachers believed in teacher-directed student management styles than the U.S. teachers. U.S. classrooms had higher numbers of students with problem behaviors than Korean teachers estimated in their classrooms. A majority of Korean elementary teachers used negative methods, like punishment, as behavior management strategies while U.S. teachers used more preventative and pre-corrective strategies.

Key Words: Elementary Teachers, Teachers' Beliefs and Strategies, Classroom Behavior Management, US and Korean School Systems

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A Comparative Study of Elementary Teachers' Beliefs and Strategies on Classroom Behavior Management in the USA and Korean School Systems

Issues in Classroom and Behavior Management

Over the years, improving student discipline and classroom management skills has been considered one of the most imperative tasks for educators. According to our educational environment changes and our society becomes more diverse and complex, a conventional discipline approach has its limitations in coping with new types of behavioral problems produced by new generations. The most important fact today is that despite the implementation of research-proven behavior management strategies and school-wide positive behavior support (PBS), many schools have experienced a higher proportion of students' problematic behaviors. Although a large body of research shows that there are reduced discipline referrals in schools and improved academics (Horner, Sugai, Eber, & Lewandowski, 2004; Muscott, Mann, & LeBrun, 2008), classroom teachers still express that student discipline is the most complicated and challenging task for them (Lier, Nuthen, Sar, & Crijnen, 2004; Macciomei & Ruben, 1999). Many teachers have allocated a considerable amount of time to handle inappropriate student behaviors; they, however, frequently become discouraged and frustrated and even leave the profession in the end (Gresham, 2004; Levin & Nolan, 2000).

Behavior Management and Teaching Effectiveness

Even though a student's academic achievement is considered a primary measure of teacher effectiveness, successful classroom management skill is a more crucial factor for a student's success than academic teaching skills (Blanton, Blanton, & Cross, 1994; Miller, 2009). If teachers are unable to obtain a student's attention and motivation in learning during their instructional time, teaching and learning will not take place, no matter how wonderful their lesson plans are. Indeed, when a teacher spends too much time helping students eliminate inappropriate behaviors, it will ultimately decrease instructional time and obviously reduce the learning opportunities of all the students (Fernley, 2011).

In addition, students' behaviors in class greatly impact the classroom climate and the extent to which all students are actively engaged in instruction (Beirne-Smith, Patton, & Shannon, 2006). Active and cooperative interactions between a teacher and students create a positive classroom climate and this positive climate is a critical factor for a successful classroom as well as for student academic achievement. Thus, good behavior management methods will lead to improved student learning and good instructional methods lead to well-behaved students (Beirne-Smith, Patton, & Shannon, 2006; Friend & Bursuck, 2006).

Curiosity in Asian Education

Meanwhile, the high success of Asian students in international competitions has enhanced interest in their educational environments. Specifically, math and science achievement scores of Asian students are much higher than those of U.S. students, especially when it comes to the achievement of middle or high school age students (Haar, Nielsen, Hansen, & Jakobsen, 2005). It has been known that comparatively, Asian classroom enrollment is large, but the compensation for this is a relatively light teaching load (Gollnick & Chinn, 1998; Leestma & Walberg, 1992; Shimahara, 1998; Stevenson, 1991). These Asian countries' success in international academic competitions have caused many educators to wonder about the strategies and methods used by the Asian educational system: Do Asian countries use better instructional methodologies or do they employ better classroom and behavior management strategies?

As educators who have experienced educational settings in both South Korea and the United States, the authors had the same curiosity and initiated research studies, comparing and contrasting high school teachers' beliefs in regard to management of the instructional environment and students' problem behaviors in the USA and Korea (Shin & Koh, 2007, 2008). As one of the Asian countries whose students often placed high in international math competitions (Drehle, 2010), Korea's high

school classrooms had less classroom behavior problems than the U.S. classrooms even though there was no direct evidence that having fewer problem behaviors had a positive effect on students' higher academic results in the international competitions. Given this result with high school comparisons in two countries, the authors wondered whether or not a comparison of classroom management in elementary schools in the same countries would be similar.

The purpose of this cross-cultural study is, therefore, to investigate elementary teachers' beliefs in classroom management strategies for students in public schools of the United States of America and Korea. This study provides a comprehensive description of elementary teachers' classroom management strategies through the inter-cultural perspectives of both countries. The research questions are:

1. Are there cross-cultural differences in the beliefs of the U.S. and Korean elementary teachers with respect to their management of the instructional environment and student behaviors?
2. Are there significant differences in the frequency and types of student problem behaviors observed by elementary teachers in the U.S. and Korean school systems?
3. What cross-cultural differences and similarities are there in behavior management strategies used by the U.S. and Korean elementary classroom teachers?

In this study, classroom management consists of two components: Instructional management and student behavior management. Instructional management is related to any management regarding the instructional environment and methods while student management is related to any classroom behaviors displayed by students' and teachers' responses. This study will also measure if the teachers tend to display a teacher-directed or student-respected style in instructional and classroom management.

Methods

Participants

The participants of this study were 146 U.S. ($N=67$) and Korean ($N=79$) elementary classroom teachers in regular and special education classrooms. These classrooms were located in the mid-west area of the United States and in the city of Seoul, Korea. The grade system for elementary schools of the two countries was slightly different: Korea consisted of first through sixth grade, but the United States did kindergarten through fifth grade.

The student population in Korea was characterized by a single ethnicity, Korean, whereas that in the U.S was ethnically more diverse. According to the teachers' reports, many more Korean teachers denoted their schools as urban schools, but the criteria and characteristics of urban and suburban schools differed between two countries: Korean urban schools were purely based on the economic status of students without including the status of diversity, environments, and other issues we encountered in the U. S. The detailed demographic information is given in Table 1.

Table 1. *Demographic Information*

		American Teachers			Korean Teachers		
Gender	Male	4%(3)			11%(9)		
	Female	95%(64)			88%(70)		
Types of Classrooms	General Ed.	80%(54)			97%(75)		
	Special Ed.	19%(13)			2%(2)		
Types of Schools	Urban/Rural	10%(7)			44%(35)		
	Suburban	89%(60)			55%(44)		
The average # of Students in class		23			30		
The Average Years of Teaching		28 years			18 years		
Three groups by the years of teaching		1-6	6-15	16+	1-6	6-15	16+
The # of teachers in each group		15	30	22	10	30	38

*% data do not add up to 100% due to deleted decimals.

Measures

Participants from both countries were asked to complete three different survey questionnaires to answer the research questions. This included the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory, originally developed by Martin and Yin (1999), the Student Behavior Questionnaire (SBQ), adopted from Ahrens, Barrett, and Holtzman (1997), and Open-Ended Questions developed by authors. Small modifications on ABCC and SBQ were made by the authors to respond to cultural differences relating to the participants of this study. These modifications were shared in the discussion of each instrument used.

The ABCC was designed to examine differences in a teacher's instructional management style and student behavior management style, which was made up of 46 forced-choice ratings. For each item, responses were coded on a 5-point Likert Scale, where 5 represents "strongly agree," 4 for "agree," 3 for "medium (no opinion)," 2 for "disagree," and 1 for "strongly disagree." This inventory had three parts: The first part was comprised of 22 questions to measure classroom teachers' instructional management styles, the second part consisted of 24 questions to gather the information on classroom teachers' student behavior management styles, and the third part was made up of six demographic questions.

The ABCC used a unique series of statements to cross check whether a teacher preferred to be more in control of decisions in the classroom or if the teacher preferred to allow for more student choice as a management style. The first two parts (instructional and student management styles) of forced-choice items were divided into two types of management styles: Teacher-directed and student-respected styles in which questions of student-respected management styles were the same questions as the teacher-directed questions. For example, question two in the first section stated, 'I assign students to specific seats in the classroom,' but question 14 repeated it as 'I allow students to select their own seats.' Questions one through 12 of the instructional management questions were focused on teacher-directed styles and questions 13 through 22 focused on student-respected styles, which was same to the student management questions, question 23 through 35 were on teacher-directed management styles and 36 through 46 were on student-respected management styles. For the instructional management sub-scale, internal consistency alpha was .75; the mean of the inter-item correlations was .18. The reliability coefficient for the student behavior management sub-scale was .74 and the mean of the inter-item correlations was .21. The inter-correlation between the two subscales was .13 ($p < .01$).

The six demographic questions consisted of information related to gender, category of their schools, types of classroom, number of years of teaching experience, grade level of teaching, and number of students currently taught. The question item originally asking the individual teachers' ages was replaced by a question asking to write their years of teaching experience.

The Student Behavior Questionnaire (SBQ) included 11 questions about the aspects of student behavior, which were designed to investigate differences in teacher perceptions of student behavior. At the end of each question, a blank space was provided for the teacher to report the percentage of the students with the types of problem behaviors seen in their classrooms. This inventory was modified by adding question numbers 1, 2, and 3 to the original questionnaire, and the format of the questionnaire was revised by the authors to make the questionnaire more structured.

In addition, five open-ended questions were developed by the authors and reviewed by two other researchers at two different universities for validity purposes. The open-ended questions included questions listing five problem behaviors they dealt with most; discipline procedures, behavior management strategies, classroom rules, and any additional comments they felt were relevant. The Korean version of the questionnaire used in Shin and Koh (2007, 2008) were adopted.

Procedures

The authors of this study visited participating schools in Seoul, Korea and presented questionnaires and the consent forms in an envelope upon receiving permission from the principals of participant schools. The administrators of the schools distributed the envelope to each individual teacher and ninety percent of distributed questionnaires were returned. In the U.S., after attempting to obtain permission from the principals several times, the questionnaires were posted online using Survey Monkey, and a graduate assistant of the second author sent emails to approximately 251 teachers in one county's school districts, encouraging elementary teachers to participate in this study. No teacher's name was associated with any surveys completed except for the demographic information.

Data Analysis

The first two research questions were involved in the cross-cultural differences in teachers' beliefs on management styles regarding the instructional environment and student's behaviors between the U.S. and Korea. To analyze data relating to these questions, two-way ANOVAs were used with independent variables identified as their nationalities (The U.S. and Korean) and participants' years of teaching. The dependent variables in each case were (a) instructional management and (b) student behavior management. As mentioned previously, the ABCC inventory consisted of pairs of questions with similar meanings, representing a response related to a teacher-directed management style and a student-respected management style. Thus, a two-way ANOVA was conducted twice with all of the ABCC Inventory questions and only the first group of questions confirmed the same results from both running. The individual questions were also analyzed by using a one-way ANOVA to see if there were any statistically significant differences on individual questions between two groups of educators.

The second research question was involved in a comparison of the frequency of student problem behaviors in the U.S. and Korean school systems. The quantitative data for this comparison were analyzed by using descriptive analysis, with a final comparison showing percentages converted to an average of each nation. In addition, participants were classified into three different groups by their length of teaching experience (e.g., 1-5 years, 6-10 years, etc.) and analyzed to see if there were any differences.

The open-ended questions (the responses of the second and third research questions) were analyzed using the content analysis developed by Neuendorf (2002), regarding problem behaviors and teachers' behavior management strategies. The content analysis involved justifying, coding, and categorizing patterns in the data. The responses of each open-ended question were sorted by main

themes that were analyzed then by frequencies and percentages. Each author separately grouped all listed behaviors by the similarities and then collaboratively compared and contrasted each one's results. Two other researchers, for reliability and validity purposes, reviewed the coded and categorized data.

Results

There were three interesting findings with the demographic information. Firstly, the gender of the elementary school teachers from both the U.S. and Korea were similar, with less than 10% being males in the U.S. and a little more than 10% being males in Korea. Secondly, the average numbers of teaching years between the two countries showed a 10-year difference (18 for Korean and 28 for American). Thirdly, the average number of students in a classroom was 23 in the U.S. and 30 in Korea.

Cross-cultural Differences between Instructional Management Strategies

There were no statistical differences between the teachers in the two countries in terms of instructional management styles. The mean scores (U.S. mean: 3.42 and Korean mean: 3.46) demonstrated their beliefs leaned more toward the teacher-directed management style than the student-respected style. The teachers with different lengths of teaching experience showed different beliefs on the instructional management; the teachers with more than 16 years of teaching experience in both countries showed stronger beliefs on teacher-directed management than the teachers with one to six years of teaching experience. However, there was no statistical difference in instructional management styles based on the length of teaching experience by nationality. The result of the two-way ANOVA is given in Table 2.

Table 2. *The Comparison of Instructional Management for American and Korean Teachers.*

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Nationality	.020	1	.020	.000	.984
Experience	402.146	2	201.073	4.218	.017
Nationality x Experience	124.377	2	62.189	1.305	.275

* $p < .05$.

Even though overall instructional management did not show statistically significant differences, the results of the one-way ANOVA disclosed that there were statistically significant differences on 12 questions between teachers in the two countries. The biggest discrepancies showed in two questions: more U.S. teachers strongly believed that students needed the structure of a daily routine that was organized and implemented by the teacher than Korean teachers. Meanwhile, more Korean teachers were concerned about the student-respected style, such as a student sitting at their teacher's desks without permission than the U.S. teachers. Questions with significantly different mean scores between two groups are given in Table 3.

Table 3. *The Statistically Significant Differences in Instructional Management Strategies*

Questions	American Teachers	Korean Teacher
• I assign students to specific seats in the classroom	3.59	3.06
• The teacher knows best how to allocate classroom materials and supplies to optimize learning.	3.40	4.01
• I specify a set time for each learning activity and try to stay within my plans.	3.70	3.05
• When a student does not complete an assignment on time, I will deduct points accordingly.	2.24	2.94
• Students need the structure of a daily routine that is organized and implemented by the teacher.	4.36	3.22
• I would be annoyed if a student sat at my desk without permission.	2.70	3.66
• Students should judge the quality of their own work rather than rely on what the teacher tells them.	3.34	2.33
• When moving from one learning activity to another, I will allow students to progress at their own rate.	3.03	3.77

* $p < .05$.

Cross-cultural Differences between Student Management Strategies

There were statistically significant differences between the Korean and the U.S. teachers and teachers with different years of teaching experiences on the student management style. More Korean teachers believed in teacher-directed student management styles than the U.S. teachers. Regardless of nationality, the teachers who had more than 16 years of teaching experience showed stronger beliefs in teacher-directed student management than the teachers with 7-15 years and 1-6 years. Also, there is a statistically significant difference based on the length of teaching experience by nationality. That is, more Korean teachers with a longer teaching experience believed in teacher-directed student management, but the U. S. teachers with shorter teaching experience believed in the teacher-directed style. The result of the two-way ANOVA is given in Table 4.

Table 4. *The Comparison of Student Management for American and Korean Teachers.*

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Nationality	2021.49	1	2021.49	36.79	.00
Experience	398.96	2	199.48	3.63	.02
Nationality x Experience	361.62	2	180.81	3.29	.04

* $p < .05$.

In student behavior management questions, teachers from both countries showed discrepancies on the more individual questions (20 questions) than instructional management (12 questions). Between the questions on teacher-directed and student-respected management, more Korean teachers agreed on teacher-directed management than the U.S. teachers. Four questions showed the most variation in responses from teachers in the two countries. They were: 1) *During the first week of class, I will announce the classroom rules and inform students of the penalties for disregarding the rules,* 2) *When a student bothers other students, I will immediately tell the student to be quiet and stop it,* 3) *Class rules stifle the student's ability to develop a personal moral code,* and 4) *My responsibility as a teacher is to reward those students who do well.*

The U.S. teachers preferred to be more democratic in managing students. A greater number of U.S. teachers agreed on these two questions: 1) *Students will be successful in school if allowed the freedom to pursue their own interests* and 2) *During the first week of class, I will allow the students to come up with a set of classroom rules.*

Cross-cultural Differences in Frequency of Student Problem Behaviors

The results in the percentages of students with problem behaviors revealed that U.S. teachers responded that their classrooms had higher numbers of students with problem behaviors than Korean teachers estimated in their classrooms. More discrepancies between the two countries were shown in the number of: 1) mainstreamed students with disabilities, 2) academically difficult to teach students, 3) behaviorally difficult to teach students, and 4) students who do not think before acting. The U.S. teachers had estimated higher numbers of these students in their classrooms than Korean teachers estimated in their classrooms. Both countries had comparatively less students with physical aggression than any other problem behavior. The detailed results are given in Table 5.

Table 5. *The Percentages of Inclusion of Students with Problem Behaviors.*

Questions	American Teachers (n=55)	Korean Teachers (n=62)
1. The mainstreamed students (Students with Disabilities)	20.78%	.63%
2. The academically difficult-to-teach students in class	26.42%	2.51%
3. The behaviorally difficult-to-teach students in class	21.82%	1.62%
4. The students do not have respect for themselves	12.48%	1.63%
5. The students have difficulty working in groups	19.18%	2.35%
6. The students are verbally abusive to others	10.80%	2.33%
7. The students are physically aggressive toward others	9.1%	1.80%
8. The students show little or no respect for other students	10.18%	2.79%
9. The students show little or no respect for adults	9.68%	1.41%
10. The students show little or no respect for property of others	9.93%	.34%
11. The students do not think before they act	24.34%	2.31%

To back up the quantitative data, the participants were asked to list five behavior problems that they dealt with on a daily basis in their classroom. Forty-one U.S. teachers listed 197 behaviors and 64 Korean teachers listed 225 behaviors in this open-ended question. Since the question did not ask them to rank the five listed behaviors, some participants listed less than five. The frequencies and percentages of total listed behaviors (197 for the U.S. and 225 for Koreans) on the extracted theme behaviors were calculated.

The results disclosed that similar classroom problem behaviors were displayed in both countries' classrooms even though the frequency ranks on each listed problem behavior were different in both countries. U.S. teachers highlighted disruptive, noncompliant, and disrespectful behaviors while Korean teachers noted self-centered and violent behaviors. The violence was the second behavior the U.S. teachers were most concerned with and the third ranked most worrisome behaviors by Korean teachers. More Korean teachers expressed their difficulties with unmotivated students in learning and stealing problems than U.S. teachers did. Table 6 shows the extracted themes of most frequently mentioned behaviors and the number of responses.

Table 6. *Classroom Problem Behaviors Displayed in Each Country.*

American (N=46, 197 behaviors)		Korean (N=64, 225 behaviors):	
Disruption during the class & Inappropriate Talking behaviors:	41(20%)	Not considering peer's mind, self-centered, self-control, lack of social skills	39(17%)
Incompliance and disrespect	27(13%)	Violent behavior	35(15%)
Violent behavior	24(12%)	Lack of motivation and work ethics	25(11%)
Off-Task and incompleteness of class work	21(10%)	Disrespect, no authority, & talking back	24(10%)
Oral or physical bullying	19(9%)	Disruption during the class, playful	20(8%)

Cross-cultural Differences and Similarities of Behavior Management Strategies

A majority of Korean elementary teachers used negative methods, like punishment, as behavior management strategies, whereas, U.S. teachers used more preventative and pre-corrective strategies. One hundred and one strategies out of 115 listed strategies by Korean teachers were negative methods, but only eight U.S. teachers used negative methods such as the time-out. The physical punishments that most Korean teachers used were *making students stand up in the back or the front of the classroom while facing the class or the wall or kneel down on the floor while raising their arms*. The next method used by most Korean teachers was *making students write a reflection (remorse) essay about what they did wrong*. And yet another unique method used in Korean classrooms was that students were requested to *clean the classroom after school or pick up the trash from the classroom floor* as punishment.

For the U.S. teachers, the implementation of behavior management techniques and positive behavior support (PBS) were the most popular strategies, none of which were mentioned by the Korean teachers. Many U.S. teachers listed *behavior management techniques* as their strategies and cited brand name disciplines developed by individual researchers, such as Dr. Becky Bailey's *Conscious Discipline*, Chick Morman's *Natural Consequences*, Dr. Ross Green's *Areas of Weakness, Love and Logic*, and *Life Space Crisis intervention*, etc. Table 7 lists the strategies used by both countries' teachers.

Table 7. *Behavior Management Strategies and Techniques Being Used by Teachers in Both Country*

American Elementary Teachers	Korean Elementary Teachers
<i>Positive Behavior Management</i>	<i>Positive Behavior Management</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive Behavior Support <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Token Economy ○ Praise ○ Establishing Positive Relationship with Students ○ Cooling down Time ○ Verbal Question ○ Peer Intervention ○ Classroom Meetings ○ Conference with Students ○ Collaborate with Family • Proactive and Preventative Techniques <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Consistency ○ Brand Name Discipline ○ I-Messages ○ Planned Ignoring 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conference with a Student • Cooling down Time • Peer Problem Solving • Token Economy
	<i>Negative Behavior Management</i>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing Reflection (Remorse) Essay about What I did Wrong (19 teachers) • Standing up in his/her Seat, front or back of the Classroom facing Teachers or the Wall, on a A4 Size Paper, • Holding two Arms to the Front or Up • Kneel-down Sitting on the Floor • Standing up/down while Touching Ears • Cleaning the Classroom after School • Response Cost: Reduction of Points

-
- Stop/Look/Listen/Zip your Lips
 - Heavy Lifting and Sensory Activities
 - Proximity Control
 - Nonverbal Cues

Negative Behavior Management

- Time out
- Think Paper
- Using Administrator Action

- Take Advantages Away
 - More Homework
 - Scolding
 - Closing Eyes for a While
 - Stay Behind and Finish the Incomplete work
 - Notice to Parents
-

Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this cross-cultural study was to investigate elementary teachers' beliefs in instructional and classroom management strategies for students in public schools between the United States of America and Korea. This study provides a comprehensive description of educators' classroom management strategies as reported by participant teachers with their cultural perspectives.

The demographic information was one of the comparative factors of this study. The extremely skewed ratio of gender discrepancies were similar in both countries: The US had approximately 95% female teachers and only 5% male teachers and Korean elementary schools had 88% female and 12% male teachers. This is opposite finding from Korean high schools' gender ratio. According to Shin & Koh 2007, the majority (72%) of Korean high school teachers were male while the majority of U.S. high school teachers were female (78%). This study implies that more female teachers dominated elementary schools in both countries. This result supports that the elementary teaching profession is a popular field among females not only in the U.S., but in Korea as well.

In addition, the number of years of teaching experience was different in both groups of educators. The U.S. teachers had an average of 28 years of teaching experience, with 10 more years of teaching experience than Korean teachers. As mentioned in Shin and Koh (2007), the Korean school system limited teacher careers with a designated retirement age of 62 years. The overall average years of teaching experience for the U.S. and Korean elementary educators who participated in this study were longer than high school teachers (18 years in the U.S. and 12 years in Korea) in Shin and Koh (2007, 2008). With same retirement policies for elementary and high school teachers in both countries, it might imply that more elementary teachers stayed in their job close to their retirement age than high school teachers.

Cross-cultural Differences between Instructional and Student Management Beliefs

The two groups of teachers showed similar beliefs in instructional management styles, but demonstrated significant differences in student behavior management styles. Overall, the Korean and the U.S. teachers tended to have slightly more teacher-directed instructional management styles. The mean score for Korean teachers demonstrated that they had a bit more teacher-directed student management style than the U.S. teachers ($M=3.86$). However, the length of a teacher's teaching experiences was significant in their choice of instructional management. The teachers who had longer teaching experiences tended to prefer a teacher-directed management style to a student-respected style.

As seen in Levin and Nolan (2000), this study also supported that contemporary educators used two types of strategies that focused more on teachers' power and control than students' self-control and self-discipline. Even though the two groups of teachers had similar beliefs in instructional management, it is surprising to see that more U.S. teachers believed that classroom instructions needed to be more teacher-directed while more Korean teachers believed student-respected instruction was needed as seen in individual questions. This was particularly true regarding instructional management of seating assignment, feedback on students' work, controlling learning activities, and daily routines. These elementary teachers' beliefs that student input should be involved in these types of activities are similar to high school teachers' beliefs (Shin & Koh, 2007) in both countries.

However, teachers from the two countries held opposite beliefs regarding student management. Although Korean teachers housed strong feelings about involving students in instructional management decisions, more Korean teachers held greater belief in the teacher-directed student management than did the American educators. In order to understand the teachers' very different perspectives in viewing problem behaviors, the teachers' own k-12 background should be considered. The educational system in Korea is very academic-oriented, and the teaching position is highly competitive because of the high value society places on teachers and the restricted number of teacher's colleges (Shin & Koh, 2005). As a result, the entrance into a teacher's college is very competitive. The teacher candidates were academically very strong students who had few negative experiences in academics and rarely got in trouble while they were in grade school. This means that they may not understand students who struggle academically and behaviorally. Thus, the teachers are not likely to understand students' behaviors that stray from the social standard. They find it difficult to manage successfully any sort of problem behaviors. In the U.S., many states have teacher shortages, and there are different levels of teacher's colleges that accept most students regardless of their academic strength. This implies that there is a larger portion of teachers who are more empathetic towards students who display problematic behaviors and thus, can find successful strategies to address these issues.

The Frequency of Problem Behaviors

The participant teachers' school types (urban and suburban) and class sizes showed a great difference between the two countries. Eighty-nine percent of U.S. teachers were in suburban schools, whereas fifty-five percent of Korean teachers were in suburban schools. The Korean elementary schools included in this study have more students per classroom (30 students) than the average of the U.S. schools in this study (23 students). A body of literature illustrated (Blatchford, P., Bassett, P., Goldstein, H., & Martine, C., 2003; Gollnick & Chinn, 1998; Leestma & Walberg, 1992; Shimahara, 1998) that types of schools and the class sizes are two critical factors related to the severity and the frequencies of problem behaviors in the classrooms. This study showed that students can obtain more benefits from a smaller class size, thus, students who attended small classes demonstrated higher achievement and maintained good communication with their teachers. The teachers also had higher expectations towards their students and covered more materials effectively in the smaller classes. This previous research revealed significant correlations between the average class enrollment and student achievement and suggested a positive effect of small classes. Therefore, as class enrollment increased, it was more likely to be difficult for teachers to provide more individualized lessons as well as to monitor student behaviors and learning progress. Thus, these teachers tended to become more controlling and intervening in their classroom management that supports the results of this study. Korean teachers had a greater number of students and preferred to have more teacher-directed classrooms.

The results disclosed that the U.S. classrooms had higher numbers of students with disabilities. However, it is difficult to say that the U.S. practices more inclusion than Korea without considering each country's status of special education services. Currently, Korea has not yet completely recognized high incident disabilities. Only 85% of students labeled with disabilities are provided reasonable special education services in public schools or private institutes (Korea Beat, 2007). Approximately 2.4% of school age children in Korea are in need of special education, but only about half of these children are enrolled in special schools, and less than half of those with special needs are enrolled in special classes in the general education schools. The remainder receives education in the general education classrooms (International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Framework, 2005).

Regarding student physical aggression, American teachers reported 9.1% and Korea teachers reported 1.8% among other behaviors of concern. According to the qualitative data and the listings of problem behaviors reported by the teachers, American teachers listed more violent behaviors as the second most concerned behavior, and Korean teachers listed it as third among the problem behaviors.

It can be interpreted that violent behavior receives more of the teachers' attention and concerns, on behalf of its nature of severity.

The academically difficult-to-teach students were identified as those who had the most concerning behaviors by the U.S. teachers. Meanwhile, the students with little- or no-respect for other students were identified as those with the most worrisome behaviors by Korean teachers. Disruption was the number one behavior of concern reported by U.S. teachers, but it was listed 6th by Korean teachers. This difference may be attributed to the different student management styles, with Korean teachers being more teacher-directed than the U.S. teachers. Interestingly, none of the U.S. teachers mentioned a lack of self-motivation as a problem behavior they had to deal with, but this lack of motivation and work ethic were the third behavioral concern for Korean teachers. This may be attributed to the different focus on school education in both countries. Korean schools were more academic-oriented, but the U.S. schools were focused more on the 'whole human beings' education (Koh & Shin, 2006). Only one U.S. teacher and eight Korean teachers mentioned this behavior in their listing.

In Korea, elementary students have block schedules, like high schools in the U.S. The students' subject schedule is set up for 40-minute instructional time (45 minutes for middle schools and 50 minutes for high schools) and a 10 to 20 minute break (Park, 2003). According to the Korean Ministry of Education, these instructional times are set based on the natural attention span of children. Furthermore, each elementary grade level has different instructional block-hours and these instructional hours increase as the grade levels go up (lower grades have a shorter school day than upper grades). During the break, students use the restrooms and prepare for their next class while chatting and physically moving around the school. In addition, Korean elementary students had about an hour-lunch break without teacher supervision. After eating, they usually go out to play, engaging in physical activity. Thus, Korean elementary students have enough time to move around throughout the day. This can result in better attention spans during their 40-minute instructional time. However, in the U.S. schools, elementary students usually do not have divided schedules or official breaks between subject instructions. Many classrooms have their own restrooms inside the classroom, so there is no need for teachers to give students restroom breaks. Even if the restroom is outside of their classroom, the children are expected to be quiet and walk through the hallway in line, and required not to disrupt other classes. U.S. students usually have an adult monitor in the hallway during the transition period and lunchtime. American classes have lunch at different times of the day and these are much shorter than the lunch periods in Korea. Even though many teachers give recess time to students right after their lunch, it is short and this break is not enough for young elementary students to recover during the school day and to be able to focus on their subsequent academic work.

Even though Korean school's instructional time is limited to 40 to 50 minutes for each subject, South Korea has the longest instructional hours (545 hours, U.S.: 180 days) in the world and their math score in international competitions (for 5th graders) placed 1st (Drehle, 2010). This Korean elementary school's distribution of instructional periods, instruction hours, and breaks may positively influence their behavior and result in higher instructional success.

One interesting finding is that stealing is a prominent problem behavior in Korean elementary schools. However, Korea's geographical system should be considered in the interpretation of this phenomenon. Geographically, Korea's streets and buildings are very close to each other, crowded, and narrow. This country has a long history where roads and street systems were built before automobiles were developed. All elementary students walk to school by themselves without adult supervision (Koh, Shin, & Lewis, 2008), and there are many small snack and stationery stores that sell items appealing to elementary age children. Children usually carry cash for their little after-school snacks and appealing items. Consequently, stealing money from peers takes place frequently and has become one of the Korean teachers' concerns. Only one U.S. teacher shared this concern.

Behavior Management Aspects

The adopted behavior management strategies showed the most contrasting features in both countries. Korean teachers are most likely to use post-correction, negative management methods like physical and punitive punishment after misbehavior has occurred while the U.S. teachers are in more favor of pre-correction, pro-active, and positive management methods. *Standing up while facing the wall* and *kneeling down on the floor while holding their arms up* were behavior management methods used by most Korean teachers. It is surprising to see most Korean teachers use negative behavior management methods. The teachers' notification to parents was also a part of the punishment because there is no teacher and parent collaboration or conferences to find alternative methods to encourage the children to behave. This negative methods included the different forms of punitive methods.

These behavior management strategies reported by the Korean teachers in this study were designed not to prevent the possible problem behaviors in the future, but to punish students for what already happened. Whether the management is positive or negative, the behavior management methods should be focused on preventing the inappropriate behavior. If one particular method used is not focused on shaping appropriate behaviors, and the problem behaviors are still being repeated as the teachers continuously spend their instructional time to deal with students' misbehaviors, that management strategy should be altered and the new method should be created and applied. Even though the efficacy of this negative management method in Korean classrooms was not measured in this study, the study results disclosed that Korean classrooms had fewer behavior problems than the U.S. classrooms.

According to the authors' observations in Korean classrooms, classroom management is a new field in the Korean teacher preparation program, and the strategies used in the U.S. are not common in Korea. Traditionally Korean classrooms had a larger number of students (50-60 students) than those of current classrooms (40-45), and corporal punishment was the number one behavior management method. While society has more nuclear family, gradually, younger parents tend to less number of children and their child rearing practice becomes more lenient and protective. Therefore, instead of allowing teachers to use corporal punishment for their children's maximum academic achievement, the parents have become more protective of their children and do not accept the idea of the corporal punishment. In this transition period between young parents and senior teachers who are accustomed to corporal punishment, Korean education is being met with a crisis in parents' confidence in teachers and education (Koh, Shin, & Reeves, 2008). The Korean teacher preparation program is not ready to train teachers on how to use effective and preventive classroom and behavior management strategies even though the frequency and severity of students' problem behaviors have been growing. Thus, the teachers do not know how to manage them by using positive and pro-active behavior support after ceasing to employ negative methods.

The U.S. teachers are more focused on positive behavior management and pre-corrective procedures. Most teachers said they used *positive behavior support* (PBS) and *behavior management techniques* without disclosing specifically how and what they did. The time-out is the only negative method mentioned by U.S. teachers. Interestingly, with positive methods, the U.S. teachers in this study reported having a much higher number of problem behaviors displayed than Korean classrooms.

Limitation of the Study

Although this study contributed different perspectives to the field of education in both countries, there are several limitations to this study. First, this study relied on self-reported data from a small pool of teachers from both countries. With limited numbers and areas of participating teachers, this study might have limitations in generalizing the results of this study as representation of all the teachers' beliefs. Future studies should use various measures to investigate comparative beliefs of both countries' teachers. Secondly, the validity of this study may be suspect due to using a translated version of instruments. Even though four bilingual researchers were involved in the translation process, there might be a potential threat to internal validity from the translation effect.

Conclusion

As foreign-born educators with different educational backgrounds between Eastern Asian culture and Western culture, the authors have observed some differences as well as common grounds in both educational systems. As every culture has developed its own unique tradition and values based upon its cultural inheritance, the educational field has also been developing its own values, morals, and norms to educate young students for a better future community. The outcomes of this study should be beneficial for both educational systems in order to compare and contrast educators' beliefs and practices regarding classroom management strategies between the U.S. and Korean public schools. In addition, this comparative study contributed an opportunity for both educational environments to reflect and improve student discipline strategies, speculating on the merits of each side, as well as the areas of concern. As educators, the biggest challenge we have is to step outside our own boundaries of orientation so that we can learn and develop more productive and successful ways of managing students' classroom behaviors from different perspectives.

As a developing country, Korea puts a high value on academic education. As shared by Korean elementary classroom teachers in this study, they believe teacher-directed student management was more effective and productive. They reported that their classrooms had fewer problem behaviors, recognizing their use of punishment as the major strategy for student behavior management. As a one of leading countries, the U.S. puts a high value on a more wholesome education. As shared by American elementary classroom teachers in this study, they believe that student-respected management was more effective, but still reported considerable behavioral problems even with positive behavior management strategies being implemented. However, as mentioned above, we cannot produce black and white conclusions on which country's educational system is better than the other. With these comparative results, we should consider each country's cultural aspects and educational systems. The U.S. may consider adopting Korea's elementary schools' blocked schedule (40 minute instruction time and 10 to 20 minute break time) and giving young students many short break periods throughout the day. Korean education may consider training teachers to implement more positive behavior support systems.

Future research could be useful in comparing the academic and social differences of Korea's elementary schools' blocked schedule and giving young students plenty of break time versus the elementary school schedules found in the U.S. Research comparing the perceptions of student management issues in schools that are using positive behavior support in the U.S. might shed some light on why elementary teachers, such as those in this study, feel that behavior problems are still so prevalent. Finally, research to follow the cultural changes occurring in Korean education and the decisions made by parents and teachers on the best type of discipline would be enlightening.

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How the attachment styles associated with Student Alienation: The Mediation Role of Emotional Well-being

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Abstract

The present study examined emotional well-being as a mediator between parental attachment (mother and father) and student alienation. A total of 227 high school students from the city of Ankara completed the self-report measures of parental attachment, positive and negative affect, and alienation. Using structural equation modeling, a model was examined in which emotional well-being mediated the link between parental attachment and alienation feeling of students. Results from structural equation modeling analyses indicated that emotional well-being fully mediated the relationship between attachment to parents (both mother and father) and student alienation. These findings suggested that parental attachment has an effect to reduce feeling of alienation by promoting high level of emotional well-being.

Keywords: Attachment, parents, emotional well-being, adolescents, student alienation

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Introduction

Attachment Theory points out the importance of the relation between parents and children, and emphasises the importance of attachment relationship which starts and develops from pre-attachment stage the physical and emotional development of children (Bowlby, 1969). The basic needs of children such as being loved, feeling safe against dangers, and being fed are met with this relationship.

During the first years of the child's basic need is to establish a trustworthy relationship with the caregivers, mostly mother. In this stage the child tends to form and run a close attachment relationship with his or her mother to survive biologically. Bowlby (1973) states that keeping the mother emotionally close with certain behaviors such as crying, smiling, and following the child forms the attachment. Considering the healthy development of the child, the tenderness of the mother towards the child provides a great deal of contribution to the child's perception of himself and his environment. According to Bowlby (1988), it depends mainly on the quality of the relationship between the mother and the child whether the child develops a secure or insecure attachment. Child's perceiving himself as a precious being and his environment as an appreciating secure environment is directly related to whether or not his needs are met properly. This child starts to form the basic security or secure attachment feeling and reflects this security feeling he has developed towards his environment as well. Insecure attachment, on the other hand, develops in early years of childhood as a result of stretched or coercive relations between the child and the parents. In insecure attachments, there are cases in which physical and/or emotional needs of the child are not met properly and timely. The children who have developed insecure attachment towards their parents cannot discover their environment and have difficulty in developing the feelings of being independent and competent (Bowlby, 1988; Lopez & Brennan, 2000).

Though traditional attachment theory emphasises the importance of the attachment pattern between the mother and the child in early childhood, contemporary attachment theorists and researchers state that attachment is a process that continues throughout the lifespan. In other words, the attachment relationship that maintains its effect on the individual's mental health in transition to the adolescence and adulthood is considered to be a life script that prolongs lifelong (Bartholomew, 1993). Today many researchers studying the role of attachment assert that the models developed by the child for himself and others according to the mother's responses to him or her in early childhood constitute a model for the relations with close contacts in his or her adolescence and adulthood (Allen et al. 2002; Ducharme, Doyle and Markiewicz, 2002).

During adolescence, two important and different dimensions are important for the adolescents in their lives, but it's hard to separate from each other, the relationship between family and school life that appear in the evaluation, can be associated with adolescent mental health and well-being. It can be thought that secure attachment can smooth the way the adolescents adapt the school life and environment, and that insecure attachment can cause adolescents bump into a number of difficulties in their education and school lives. In this study, considering the perceived positive or negative affects as a mediator variable, direct or indirect effect of attachment to mother and father on high school students' alienation feelings to school environment was examined. In other words, the main aim of this study was to find out the relation between adolescents' attachment to their parents and subjective well-being and the interaction of this relation with school alienation.

Subjective Well-Being and Attachment

It is clear that today many positive personality traits, beside psychopathology based concepts (depression, anxiety, personality disorders, etc.), such as self-respect, self-realization, self-acceptance are described and studied widely (Laible, Carlo, and Roesch, 2004; Shogren et al. 2006). However, it is clearly seen that, as a new approach, positive psychology needs high-level conceptual structure to describe existing positive personality traits. Recently, subjective well-being is one of the most

emphasised conceptual structures in the literature. Diener, Lucas and Oishi (2002) stated that this variable, which can also be described as happiness, can be dealt with the help of two basic structures. The first one is emotional well-being which comprises of positive affect and negative affect, and the second one is life satisfaction which contains the individual's thoughts about his life and represents the cognitive side of the well-being. The researches showed that subjective well-being has close relation with coping (Matheny et al., 2002), stress (Cotton, Dollard, and Jonge, 2002), self-acceptance (Chamberlain and Haaga, 2001), personality (Hills and Argyle, 2001), adaptive behavior in school (Kaplan and Maehr, 1999), and self-esteem (Cheng and Furnam, 2003).

The main indicators of positive mental health and the positive personality traits are determined in early childhood has led some researchers to examine the relation between attachment and healthy development and well-being. Along with this view, the number of studies on the relation between attachment and well-being in adolescents has increased notably. In close examination of these studies, it strikes that attachment style of adolescents (secure-insecure) has close relation with some variables, such as identity development, competence, self-esteem, adjustment, depression and loneliness levels. For instance, in his study with early adolescents, Coleman (2003) examined the relation between social competence expectations of students and their attachment levels to their parents and peer relations. His study showed that, besides that the participating early adolescents had high scores of attachment levels to their parents and best friends, attachment to father was influential on attachment to peers with respect to competence expectations. In his study on the effects of attachment to parents in adolescents on the social and emotional loneliness, Löker (1999) examined a group of 383 individuals aged 12 to 28. It was found out that, there was a positive and high level of relation between attachment levels to parents and peers and their perceived physical attractiveness degree. In addition, the study also showed that there was a negative correlation between physical symptoms, social loneliness and emotional loneliness levels variables and attachment levels of individuals to their parents and peers. In examination of the style of attachments and results of the study, it was seen that the adolescents with secure attachment could express their feelings more easily, and they experienced less conflicts in their relations with their parents and peers (Ducharme, Doyle and Markiewicz, 2002). Furthermore, adolescent who perceived the support from parents in adolescence achieved the identity development positively (Allen, et al, 1994). On the other hand, adolescents with insecure attachment were reported to be reluctant for self-disclosure and establishing intimacy (Allen et al. 2002), with low self-esteem (Laible, Carlo and Roesch, 2004).

As a result, it is striking that the relation between attachment and subjective emotional well-being is studied quite frequently in recent researches. In this study, the subjective emotional well-being in the relationship between attachment and alienation is taken as a mediating variable.

Attachment and Student Alienation

The adolescents in a rapid growth may feel indifferent, remote, and sometimes a "stranger" against their families, environment, school activities, and peer groups. The unfavorable cases that adolescents may experience may be listed as not being attached to school and schooling environment (Shochet, Symth& Homel, 2007), being uninterested towards teaching and teaching activities (Case, 2008), terminating education process (Marcus & Sanders-Reio, 2001), and leaving school (Finn, 1989). Another remarkable unfavorable case is about the difficulties students experience in expressing themselves, problems in adapting schooling environment, and being unable to focus on educational activities (Oerlemans and Jenkins, 1998). As a result of this, besides being unable to feel belonging to school, diverging from school activities, and feeling weak, they may feel indifferent to, far away from, and angry with people and their environment (Staples, 2000). Bronfenbrenner (1974) calls this state of disconnection from other students and educational activities "alienation".

With a close examination of the literature on student alienation from education, it can be seen that various factors may cause this alienation. Describing four dimensions of "schooling alienation" Mau (1992) underlines the cases in which students experience alienation about these four dimensions. The first dimension, powerlessness, is about student's overvaluing some targets and not expecting to

reach them. Mau (1992) states that the students may experience powerless when they want to pass with merit but have low grades. The second dimension is meaningless. Students experience meaninglessness, when they cannot relate the school activities to their future aspirations. In other words, it is the feeling students experience when school curriculum and subject syllabuses do not prepare them for the future jobs (Mau 1992; Oerlemans and Jenkins, 1998). The third dimension is normlessness. Brickman and Bulman describe the state that students reject the school rules and regulations established for them (from Mau,1992). The students who cannot cope with academic activities, and feel fringy and out of educational process are usually unable to behave and participate in the school rules and regulations. The fourth and the last dimension is social estrangement. Seaman describes this state as lack of integration with friends network or minimum participation to an organization (from Mau, 1992).

Considered with attachment theory, these unfavorable cases in education students may experience are described as not a fear from school but a fear for being deprived of the people they love or a fear for being away from or losing the environment they put faith in (Bowlby, 1973; 261). In a close examination of the literature on the relation between student behaviors and attachment to education environments, many studies can be encountered on the relation between the fear of being away from the people and environment where basic reliance is experienced, and school alienation. For instance, Avazier, Sagi, Resnick and Gini (2002) studied the relation between attachment pattern in early childhood and children's latter school and educational activities. The research findings showed that while attachment to father didn't have any effect, attachment to mother was an important factor on the child's academic skills and emotional awareness. Another study (Granot & Maysel 2001) examined 113 4th and 5th grade students for the relation between secure attachment and schooling process. The findings showed a meaningful correlation between attachment to mother and school activities, emotional development and adaptation to school. The researchers pointed out the importance of attachment on the school activities and adaptation process. Besides, in their research on attachment in adolescence and attachment of adolescents to school and its environment, Shochet, Symthand Homel (2007) found out that the relation between adolescents' attachment and their perception of school environment is not in one direction. However, it is commented that adolescents' type of attachment determines how they perceive school environment, and this has an important influence on their attachment to school.

Some researches in recent years (Wilkinson, 2004) criticized the holistic perception of attachment to parents instead of taking them into consideration separately as attachment to mother and attachment to father. Researches claimed that one dimensional view of the matter made it impossible to compare the different effects of the sources, because mothers and fathers had different roles in the lives of adolescents, and though fathers spent less time with children in infancy and childhood than mothers, they provided a great deal of contribution in the development of adolescents (Lieberman, Doyle and Markiewicz, 1999; Kocayörük and Sümer, 2009). Thus this study, taking emotional well-being perceptions of adolescents as mediating variable searched the direct and indirect effects of adolescent's attachment to parents on their subjective well-being and alienation to school and suggested a model for this research (Fig. 1). In other words, the main target in this study was to find out the relation between adolescents' attachment to their parents and their subjective well-being, and the interaction of this relation with alienation to school.

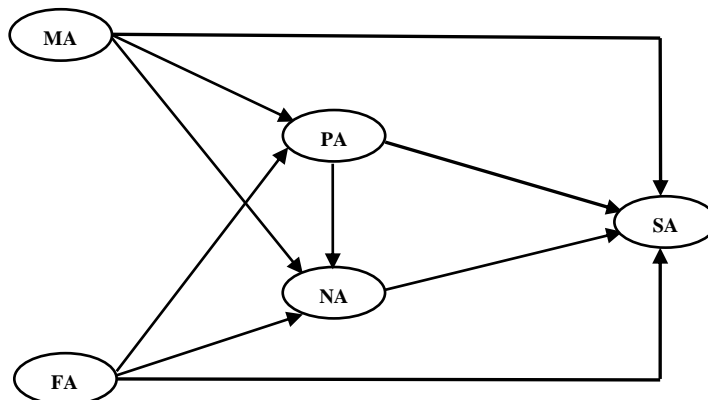


Figure 1. Theoretical Model for Attachment Emotional well-being and student alienation
Note: MA=Mother Attachment, FA= Father Attachment, PA=Positive Affect, NA= Negative Affect, SA= Student Alienation

Method

Participants

Three hundred and fifteen 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th graders (M age=16.02; SD =1.07) studying in two different kind of schools (Anatolian High School and Classical High School) in two different counties of Ankara (Cankaya and Mamak) participated in the survey. Eighty-eight of them were excluded from the assessment because they did not answer any or most of the sub-items in the survey, and consequently, this study was completed with 227 participant students. Participants were approximately equally split by gender (126 females, 101 males).

Instrument

The Student Alienation Scale (SAS): The SAS was developed by Mau (1992) and was a 24-item self-report scale (e.g., “I feel that I am wasting my time in school”) designed to assess adolescent feelings of alienation in the school context with the following subscales: powerlessness, meaningfulness, normlessness, and social estrangement. Items of SAS were answered on a five-point scale from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. The measure has been used in many studies including one with children ($N = 2,056$) from three intermediate grades (7-9) and three high school grades (10-12). The SAS was adapted for the Turkish context by Sanberk (2003) with 17 items. After validity and reliability studies, Sanberk reported that the short form of SAS with four subscales (meaningfulness, powerlessness, normlessness, social estrangement) had adequate reliability for both total score ($\alpha = .79$) and subscales ($\alpha = .72$, $\alpha = .45$, $\alpha = .73$, $\alpha = .77$, respectively). The test re-test correlation was reported as .77 and reliability coefficients (α) for the scale were .78 and .51, .74, .76 and .68, respectively, for the subscales. In the present study, Cronbach alpha internal consistency was founded to be .71 for the total scale and .56 for meaningfulness, .67 for powerlessness, .64 for normlessness, and .69 for social estrangement. High scores pointed out the existence of school alienation. Thus it could be possible to determine whether or not students had any accumulation of school alienation considering the scores students get.

Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA) was developed by Armsden & Greenberg, (1987) to measure the adolescents’ attachment to their parents and peers. IPPA is suitable to measure the experiences on attachment with 24 items and 3 subdimensions as well as getting the total score of attachment by merging these dimensions. With a brief examination of the literature in the world on attachment, it can be easily found out that IPPA is used very often for measures in researches on adolescent attachment. The results of Kocayoruk’s (2010) adapted study on middle-aged adolescents (aged 14-18) showed that, by skipping some items, this measuring tool is suitable to be used for Turkish culture in a concise form with 18 items.

Positive and Negative Affect Scales (PANAS): Developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen, (1988), PANAS consists of 10 positive and 10 negative affect statements which are to be rated between 0 (never) and 5 (always), and was translated into Turkish by Gencoz (2000). The points got from each item between 10 and 50 will eventually show how dense the person feels the affection.

Analysis

The measurement model used in this study and whether the structural model had a reasonable goodness of fit were assessed by Goodness of Fit Statistics. According to Hu and Bentler (1999) goodness of fit statistics allowed to determine whether a model was supported acceptably by the data as a whole. Widely used fit statistics is χ^2 and for a model to be accepted reasonable, the χ^2 should not prove to be meaningful. However, since the χ^2 value was sensitive to the sample size, many alternative goodness of fit statistics had been developed, and most common ones were Goodness Of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness Of Fit Index (AGFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Aproximation (RMSEA) and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) (Simsek, 2006). Among them, GFI, AGFI, and CFI are acceptable when over 0.9, and were considered to have high value of goodness of fit when over 0.95. It was acceptable for RMSEA to be below 0.06 and for SRMR to be below 0.08, however, it was a sign of having high value of goodness of fit for both to be below 0.05. In this study, as well, the assessment for the model was carried out considering GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA and SRMR values obtained using LISREL 8.45 program.

Procedure

The necessary permissions and arrangements to apply the measurement tools were completed beforehand, and the measurement tools (RSES, IPPA ve PANAS) were applied in classrooms by the researchers. The application took 20 minutes and the students were assured for confidentiality of the replies.

Results

Measurement Model

Anderson and Gerbing, (1988) suggested the measurement model to be investigated for whether it produced reasonable fit values by “confirmatory factor analysis” before the structural model was tested. The view suggested by Anderson and Gerbing on the investigation of the measurement model for reasonable fit values before testing the structural model was quite common, and this study, as well, was analysed with measurement model LISREL 8.51 (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1993) program and Maximum Likelihood (ML) method.

The formation of the measurement model was carried out by identifying parcels for each implicit variable parallel to number of items. Parcelling method anticipates each item to be grouped according to item total correlation, and the total points gathered from these groups to be used as observed variable in the model (Kishton & Widaman, 1994; MacCallum & Austin, 2000). In doing so, all the observed variables would be able to represent the implicit variable in maximum level. According to this view, considering each of the implicit variables in the model, 13 observed variables were identified as 3 for each father attachment, mother attachment and student alienation, and 2 for each positive affect and negative affect (Table 1).

Table 1. Average Standart Variation and Correlation Values of Observed Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
<i>Mother Affective</i>																
1 Communication	4.2	.62	-													
2 Trust	4.1	.67	.77	-												
3 Alienation	4.3	.63	.79	.80	-											
<i>Father Affective</i>																
4 Communication	3.9	.73	.52	.41	.43	-										
5 Trust	3.8	.77	.47	.44	.47	.82	-									
6 Alienation	3.7	.84	.53	.42	.44	.86	.78	-								
<i>Affective Well-Being</i>																
7 PA1	4.2	.78	.27	.25	.27	.31	.34	.31	-							
8 PA2	4	.79	.36	.37	.38	.32	.35	.33	.56	-						
9 NA1	3.6	.95	-.38	-.34	-.29	-.34	-.27	-.33	-.36	.28	-					
10 NA2	2.6	.98	-.36	-.32	-.27	-.32	-.28	-.30	-.34	-.32	.75	-				
<i>Alienation</i>																
11 Meaninglessness	2.5	.79	-.13	-.21	-.15	-.19	-.15	-.18	-.20	-.23	.18	.21	-			
12 Normlessness	2.7	.98	-.23	-.28	-.21	-.24	-.20	-.22	-.23	-.28	.25	.28	.74	-		
13 Powerlessness	2.5	.87	-.27	-.28	-.26	-.34	-.32	-.36	-.30	-.25	.30	.33	.63	.69	-	
14 Social Estrangement	3.7	.86	-.04	-.07	-.07	-.06	-.01	-.04	-.10	-.11	.19	.17	.31	.43	.30	-

Note: N=227. High scores in Mother Attachment (MA 1, 2, 3) and Father Attachment (FA 1, 2, 3) show the high scores in attachment. High scores in Positive Affection (PA 1, 2, 3) show the assessment of life with positive affection, and high scores in Negative Affection (NA 1, 2, 3) show the assessment of life with negative affection. High scores in Student Alienation (SA 1, 2, 3) show the high level of alienation students experience. Mother Attachment 1, 2, 3 and Father attachment 1, 2, 3 represent the each three parcels in Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA) under the subdivisions of mother and father. Positive Affection 1, 2, 3 and Negative Affection 1, 2, 3 represent the each two parcels provided from Positive and Negative Affection Scale (PANAS). Student Alienation 1, 2, 3 represent the three parcels provided from Student Alienation Scale (SAS). Among the correlation values in the diagram, the ones equal to and higher than .15 are reasonable between the confidence interval of $p < .05$, the ones equal to and higher than .17 are reasonable between the confidence interval of $p < .01$, and the ones equal to and higher than .21 are reasonable between the confidence interval of $p < .001$.

Through the analysis, it was found out that the goodness of fit values were a kind of proof for measurement model to accord well with this case. $\chi^2(55, N=227) = 103.02, p < .001$; CFI: .98; RMSEA: .062 and SRMR: .026, GFI: .93 and AGFI: .89 (Fig 2).

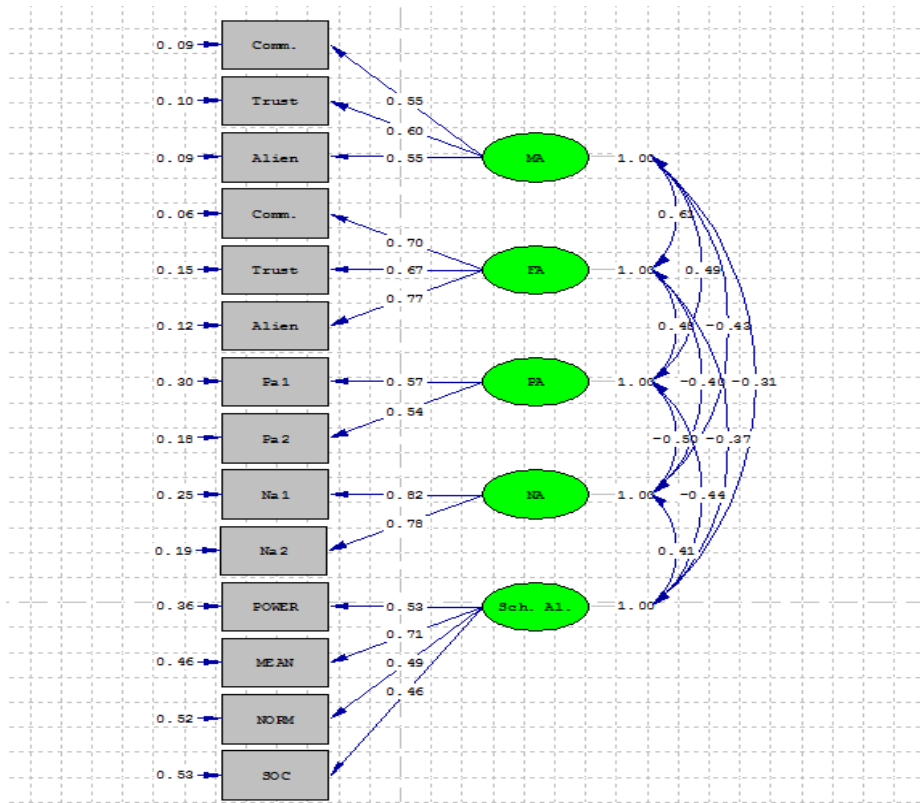


Figure 2. Standardised analysis values for measurement model.

Structural Model

After the measurement model produced high scores in goodness of fit, structural model was tested with ML method using LISREL 8.51 program (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 2003). The result of the analysis asserted high level of goodness of fit for the structural model; $[\chi^2 (56, N=227)= 113.12, p<.001, GFI=.93, AGFI= .88, CFI= .97, RMSEA= .067, SRMR= .037]$. Through examination of the results, it could be seen that the influence of attachment to mother and attachment to father on student alienation is carried out by completely positive and negative affect. In other words, checking the effects of the variable in this model where subjective well-being (positive and negative affect) was determined as mediator variable, it could be understood that the path from attachment to father and mother to student alienation variable was not reasonable (Figure 3). It was clearly found out that the influence of attachment variable on alienation is completely mediated by positive and negative affect variable, in other words, positive and negative affect acts as a full mediation between attachment and alieanation variables.

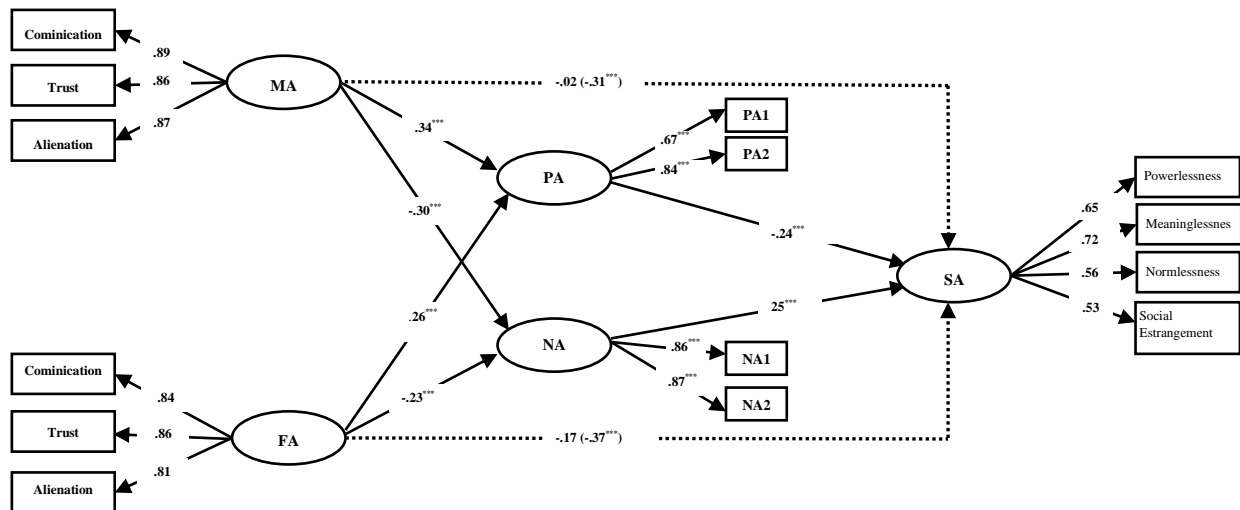


Figure 3. Standardized parameter values on Structural Model

Note: The values in parantheses show the basic correlation values without the influence of mediating positive and negative affect on the variables. (see Fig 2)

On the results of the structural model, though all the paths identified in the model were reasonable, the paths from mother and father attachment to school alienation were not. Thus the model was retested excluding these paths. Developed by Satorra and Bentler (2001), the “chi-square test” was a way of analysis to test the differences between the initial model and latter modified models. Thus, the paths from attachment to alienation, which were proposed in the first model but which did not come up with statistically sound values, were fixed to zero and the model was modified. Then, the paths from mother attachment to alienation and from father attachment to alienation were fixed to zero respectively, and the results were analysed by chi-square test. Examining the results, it was clearly seen that after excluding the path from mother attachment to alienation from the model, the goodness-of-fit values were still in high levels [χ^2 (57, N=227)= 113.57, $p < .001$, GFI=.93, AGFI= .89, CFI= .97, RMSEA= .066, SRMR= .037] and there was no sound difference between the initial model and the modified model by exclusion of this path [$\Delta\chi^2(1, N=227)= .41, p= .52$]. Similarly, when the path from father attachment to alienation was excluded from the model, it was seen that the goodness-of-fit values of the new and modified model were still high levels [χ^2 (58, N=227)= 114.09, $p < .001$, GFI=.93, AGFI= .89, CFI= .97, RMSEA= .065, SRMR= .039] and there was no sound difference between the two models according to chi-square test [$\Delta\chi^2(1, N=227)= .55, p= .46$]. As a result, it was now clear that both of the paths did not provide any contribution to the model, because exclusion of the paths from mother attachment and father attachment to alienation from the model did not make any sound difference in the structural model.

Discussion

The results of the analysis proved that emotional well-being perception (positive affect and negative affect) of the adolescents in the research functioned as a full mediator between mother and father attachment and alienation feelings in schooling. It was clear that positive and negative affect contributed as a full mediator to the relation between mother and father affect and alienation. It was found out that instead of the model with the direct influence of mother and father attachment on alienation, the one with the influence on alienation through positive and negative affect produced high levels of goodness-of-fit values.

Given the association between attachment and positive-negative affect in adolescents, the relation between mother attachment and positive affect was found .34, and between mother attachment and negative affect was found -.30. The relation between father attachment and positive affect was observed to be .27, and between father attachment and negative affect to be -.23. Though there was no

significant difference between mother attachment and father attachment, it was clear that mother attachment had more influence on positive and negative affect than father attachment. Considering the model as a whole and father attachment as an influencing factor, it was defined that mother and father attachment helped adolescents to reduce the school alienation through subjective well-being. This result was considered to be an important dimension of internal working model on adolescents' attachment pattern. This finding of the study shows consistency not only with the findings on the relation between attachment types and positive sense of self and adolescents' well-being (Wilkinson, 2004), but also the findings on the relation between attachment and school alienation (Shochet, Symthand Homel, 2007).

Conclusion and Recommendations

The results of this study may bring into question some suggestions on the parent education and guidance process applied by school psychological counseling services. Psychological counselors at schools usually make their parent meetings, interviews and education activities with mothers. Many research findings showed that though mother and father's joint involvement in child's life contributed to his mental development and psychological well-being (Ducharme, Doyle, and Markiewicz, 2002), father himself, as well, provided positive contributions to child's development (Kocayörük, and Sümer, 2009). Considering the results of this study, psychological counseling at schools may arrange the meetings and activities at school so that fathers, as well, can join them. By doing this, they may organize activities that fathers, as well, can join and contribute to adolescents' developing positive peer relations and social development.

Considering the results of the study in more general sense, school psychological counselors may organize some events, such as seminar, informative meetings to find out what help and support parents can provide to prevent alienation towards schooling environment and process. They may develop education and programs aiming to inform and teach some skills to parents to help them communicate effectively with adolescents in a fast growing and changing process, and provide them necessary and enough support in their development. Effective school counseling activities developed or determined by school counselors may help the effective communication and relations between parents and adolescents to develop. With the help of these activities, parents' knowledge on adolescents' development can be improved, they may develop better communication skills, thus a positive contribution could be provided for children's well-being and, consequently, their mental health.

Considering the psychological counseling process, results of this study may help the counselor to carry out his works more effectively. In order to handle the emotion of students' alienation at schools, their well-being levels could be strengthened with psychological counseling process. In the counseling settings, it is important for the counselor to develop skills to improve the positive affect and to reduce the negative affect, and results of this study assert that well-being was an influential mediating factor between attachment and alienation. Improving the positive affect and developing skills to cope with negative affect of adolescent students may ease their adaptation level to schooling environment and process. These kind of activities may help adolescents with insecure attachment not only to develop secure attachment towards their teachers and peers (Kennedy and Kennedy, 2004), but also to join the academic works and school activities (participation-identification model) (Finn, 1989). According to Bowlby (1988), attachment was a quite stable and difficult variable to handle, and for the counselor assessing attachment types, it can be very important to handle the perception of subjective well-being to carry out an effective psychological counseling process. Thus, findings of this research showed that, as well as parent training, psychological counseling process that strengthened adolescents' perception of well-being could also be contributive.

Apart from parental involvement and psychological counseling process, teachers' in-class applications and school guidance programs, as well, may be taken into account to develop adolescents' subjective well-being. As mentioned above, attachment to teachers and peer groups may be helpful to support the active participation to educational and school process. Especially the effective

communication of teachers with students and arranging practices and activities to improve classroom interaction result in students' developing attachment to teachers and peer groups (Kennedy and Kennedy, 2004) and get more satisfaction from schooling process (Edwards and Ray, 2008).

Considering the findings of the study, some suggestions could be made for the following researches. The recent studies on attachment to mother and father indicated that attachment was a ongoing process from childhood to adolescent (Bartholomew, 1993). Studying the contribution of types of attachment to mental health in a developmental perspective, further studies may contribute to prove the influence of adolescent attachment more clearly beside of the one in childhood.

The gender of the participants in the research is not considered. Taking gender into account in further studies may help to reveal male and female adolescents' attachment level to their mother and father and contribute a lot to the literature on attachment.

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Scholar-Practitioner Leadership: A Conceptual Foundation

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Abstract

The scholar-practitioner leader operates reflexively in the boundaries between theory and practice, striving to create exemplars of democracy and social justice within schools while simultaneously meeting modern accountability demands. This article outlines a theoretical underpinning for scholar-practitioner leadership and provides means of operationalizing it in context.

Keywords: Scholar-practitioner leadership, accountability, democracy and social justice

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Scholar-Practitioner Leadership: A Conceptual Foundation

“What we call the beginning is often the end
And to make an end is to make a beginning.
The end is where we start from. . . .

A people without history
Is not redeemed from time, for history is a pattern
Of timeless moments. . . .

We shall not cease from exploration
And the end of all our exploring
Will be to arrive where we started
And know the place for the first time.”

T. S. Eliot
“Little Gidding”
from *The Four Quartets*

These words ring especially true for the many educational leaders who daily confront the myriad challenges encumbering America’s public schools. These challenges are not limited to local problems; rather, many of them are mandated challenges, difficulties handed down from controlling governmental agencies. Further, most of these challenges are presented as “reforms,” usually in the form of higher-stakes testing. School leaders, including principals and teachers, face growing pressure to ensure that these reforms are realized. Burdened by the growing pressure, many schools have begun to focus exclusively on maintaining and raising test scores in order to preserve school ratings. Too often, the effort to raise test scores translates into rote learning, teaching to the test and, sadly, a gradual decline in the overall diversity and quality of education that the schools provide (Anderson & Saavedra, 2002).

Overcoming the temptation to submit to the pressures of accountability to these new mandates requires a special kind of leadership, a kind of leadership that sees beginnings in ends, that both confronts and embraces the historicity of the circumstances, and that uses learned and discovered knowledge to bring continually fresh perspectives to seemingly tired and familiar situations. In a few schools and places, though, a different pattern is emerging: these schools are raising test scores *and* improving the overall quality of their students’ educations. The key to success for these schools lies in their ability to engage in school-wide inquiry and formulate beneficial derivatives from and within the mandates placed before them. Their success, then, is the product of research conducted and designed by practitioners, by doers generating theory (Anderson & Saavedra, 2002). These schools are guided by scholar-practitioner leaders, leaders who successfully blur the lines between theory and practice, synergistically combining the two to create a powerful precept for action. The purpose of this paper is to outline and operationalize a conceptual framework for scholar-practitioner leadership.

The Need for Scholar-Practitioner Leadership

For the purposes of this discussion, scholar-practitioner leadership, rather than being abstracted from educational leadership, will be treated as a particular form of educational leadership. Like any educational leader, the primary goal of the scholar-practitioner leader is to effectively transition the school to ever greater levels of student achievement and stakeholder satisfaction. The primary difference between the scholar-practitioner leader and other leaders, however, is the *way* the scholar-practitioner accomplishes that task.

Many modern educational leaders, guided by their training in positivistic administrative science, attempt to facilitate change in schools by treating the school as an organization, which,

undoubtedly, it is. Consequently, their method has led to reform efforts that center around changing schools' organizational structures. However, as Johnston (1994) postulates, "simply tinkering with the structural dynamics of schools" (p. 127) will probably not result in any significant change in the organization. Greenfield (1986) concurs, claiming that "administrative science does not work as a science; it has not brought us increased understanding and control of organizations" (p. 71). In fact, Bates (1989) goes so far as to label the results of the past several decades of research in administrative science as "either trivial or equivocal or both" (p. 133). He explains that in the natural sciences, the "abstractions used to define relationships between variables are defined reciprocally in terms of those variables and their interaction" (p. 132). Because of this relationship, any desired outcome can be achieved by precise manipulation of the affecting variables. He further relates that researchers have attempted to develop similar relationships for the social sciences, including the science of leadership, but, rather than producing a guiding set of principles, the researchers have merely created a simulation of control, "a theory built upon histrionics rather than substance" (p. 132). The result is a collection of confusing and non-replicable results which offer "no possibility of an axiomatic theory which specifies the reciprocal and systematic variations produced in one phenomenon through alteration in another. There is no calculus of leadership in the offing" (p. 132).

Where positivistic management science fails, scholar-practitioner leadership offers the potential for success because the scholar practitioner does not look for a "calculus of leadership." This type of leader recognizes that schools are merely products of human creation and are not things in their own right. As Greenfield (1986) notes, "organizations have reality only through human action, and it is that action (and the human will driving it) that we must come to understand" (p.71). Furthermore, he argues that administrative science has devalued the study of human choice and rationality. It has insisted that decision making be dealt with as though it were fully explainable in rational and logical terms. This has allowed administrative science to deal with values surreptitiously, behind a mask of objectivity and impartiality, while denying that it is doing so (p. 71).

The Goal of Scholar-Practitioner Leadership

The goal of the scholar-practitioner is to remove that mask and treat schools as places of human interaction, realizing that humans are ultimately unpredictable and no amount of scientific endeavor can quantify them (Foster, 1994). The leader can understand the school as an organization only if he/she understands the people in the school. As Johnston (1994) notes, the school leader must "address the cultural meanings and purposes that organizational participants bring with them to school and that develop as a consequence of participation in the daily routines of the institution" (p. 127). He further notes that this type of understanding will lead to research that combines the "story" of an event with its analysis, making it "more legitimate and useful" than the forms of quantitative research that "maintain separation between knowledge and the social occasion of knowledge use" (p. 127). Greenfield (1984) wraps up this notion most cogently when he observes that "the gist of this argument is that schools, and also organizations in general, are best understood in context, from a sense of the concrete events and personalities within them rather than from a set of abstractions or general laws" (p. 143). After all, "organizations are not things They are an invented social reality of human creation. It is people who are responsible for organizations and people who change them" (Greenfield, 1986, p. 71). Understanding organizations in such a way—by taking into account their socio-historical context—is central to effective scholar-practitioner leadership. The perspective presented in this paper will align closely with that of Greenfield's (1984) argument that more consideration should be given to leaders rather than leadership and to "the character of leaders rather than their characteristics" (p. 143).

The Moral Arena of Scholar-Practitioner Leadership

Fazzaro, Walter, and McKerrow (1994) describe educational leadership, particularly in terms of educational administration, as a practice which is influenced by many factors, "including the study of and speculation about the practice itself" (p. 91). They describe it as an intricate mix of decisions and actions occurring on various levels and with varying time constraints. For instance, they concede

that no matter what is occurring in the outside world, the educational leader has the responsibility to make sure that teachers have adequate supplies, time, and facilities to fulfill their obligations to students. That task represents the technical aspect of school administration, and it is a given. However, the actual practice of school administration must necessarily address the “problematic” of education which includes issues of epistemology and transmission. Bates (as cited in Fazzaro, Walter, & McKerrow, 1994) delineates the problematic of education as encompassing the following six issues:

- (1) What counts as knowledge?
- (2) How is what counts as knowledge organized?
- (3) How is what counts as knowledge transmitted?
- (4) How is access to what counts as knowledge determined?
- (5) What are the processes of control?
- and (6) What ideological appeal justifies the system? (p. 91-92)

Though examining each of these questions in detail is beyond the scope of this paper, they are presented to exemplify the types of issues that engage scholar-practitioner leaders. These are questions that transcend the technical realm of educational administration and enter the realm of educational leadership. These questions escape attempts at answers promoted through formal policy or particular procedure. These questions are about values, and it is precisely these questions which force scholar-practitioner leaders into the value-debate arena.

As questions about values arise, Greenfield (1986) predicts that contention will result from groups or individuals who hold opposing values. An inevitable pattern of conflict emerges, with the responsibility of mediating the conflict falling on the leader. The consequence is that leaders “can be defined as those who articulate particular values within organizations and who negotiate those values into the organization;” as “representatives of values,” leaders are charged with “a moral task” (p. 73). Because participants will never agree on the absolute rightness or wrongness of values, leaders must assume the role of cultural arbitrators charged with developing a guiding value for the school. This responsibility lies far outside the technical managerial leadership qualities described above and requires a completely different orientation. All too often, however, as Fazzaro, Walter, and McKerrow (1994) note, educational leaders have gotten by with “disguising moral judgments as ‘management’ decisions (for example, Canter’s approach to discipline)” (p. 92). Further, because public education in America is a necessarily public function, any moral judgments must be based on available public knowledge. Thus, public education can provide a forum for a society to generate and legitimate public knowledge. Finally, because school administration (or preferably leadership) is located at the center of this practice of making moral decisions based on public knowledge, school leadership “must be a moral practice” (p. 92). Following Greenfield’s (1984) argument that a discussion of the leader overshadows any talk of generalized leadership is crucial to developing a model of a scholar-practitioner leader, for, in short, the scholar-practitioner is a moral leader.

The Means of Scholar-Practitioner Leadership

Facilitating school dialogue and improvement in the face of conflicting values is the “moral practice” that directs the “practitioner” half of a scholar-practitioner. The “scholar” half of the same individual is consumed by a desire to understand and uncover the very best way(s) to accomplish the task. Importantly, what the scholar-practitioner actually does is found at the hyphen that joins the two words, where the two aspects of the same individual conjoin, where actions are guided by theory and theory is tempered by actions. Scholar-practitioners make meaning, create practice, and generate understanding at that hyphen, the place which Kincheloe and Steinberg (1999) call the “the frontier where the information of the disciplines intersects with the understandings and experiences that individuals carry with them” (p. 61). How they do this—their means, their actions—should be of great interest to aspiring scholar-practitioners.

Educational leaders, whatever their personal philosophical stance, must ultimately act—that is, after all, their job—and they must be aware that their actions have real consequences for real people. These leaders may derive the stimuli for their actions from one of three ways: they may select from a menu of theories developed by the scholars of educational administration (a choice which may prove

insensitive to those upon whom they act) ; they may act on impulse, guided by intuition, experience, and common sense (which minimizes the “information of the disciplines”); or, they may develop a “philosophical critique of practice in which deliberative action is derived from a combination of empirical and interpretive modes of inquiry that have been brought to bear upon both the public domain of extant theory and the private domain of common sense” (Codd, 1989, p. 168). It is this last alternative that allows the leader to meet the demands of Kincheloe and Steinberg (1999) by blurring the lines between theory and practice, bringing to bear their “information of the disciplines,” their personal experience, and their sensitivity towards others.

The type of leader that Codd (1989, p. 6) describes is now commonly referred to as a scholar-practitioner leader, and for the moment, Horn’s (2002) definition of scholar-practitioners as those who “engage in the interplay between theory and practice,” allowing them to “recognize the ubiquity of their interaction with others and that this is mediated and informed by conversation” (p. 83) will suffice. Additionally, Jenlink (2003) states that the work of a scholar-practitioner leader is “that of the public intellectual, work which is situated in cultural and political contexts of difference” (p. 3). The definitions of both scholar-practitioners and their work reaffirm Kincheloe and Steinberg’s (1999) notions of decentralization of self and understanding in the socio-historical context.

However, for this discussion, it is important to understand how scholar-practitioners go about their work, the means of scholar-practitioner leadership. One primary means that faces every educational leader is through problem-solving and subsequently acting on the proposed solutions (Glasman & Glasman, 1997). In the context of solving problems, Jenlink (2002) describes the scholar-practitioner as a bricoleur, “an individual who must work with what she/he has at hand, most importantly the methods and types of knowledge necessary to working within a complex array of social and cultural dynamics.” Moreover, the “bricoleur’s means for accomplishing her/his work is determined in part on the basis of professional preparation (in our case as a scholarly practitioner) and past experiences” (p. 3). Thus, the scholar-practitioner is a sort of intellectual handyman, able to bring a variety of viewpoints, reflections, understandings, and ways of knowing to each problem. These tools enable the scholar-practitioner to accomplish all jobs successfully, combining theory with practice to direct purposive action.

The scholar-practitioner is much more interested in solving problems than creating new ones. To avoid creating new problems, the scholar-practitioner is careful not to separate thinking from doing, theory from practice. Dewey (as cited in Menand, 1997) viewed knowing (thinking) and doing as indivisible aspects of the same, essentially constructivist, process. By taking a piece of acquired knowledge into a new situation, the individual allows that knowledge to be reformed and made ready to carry over into the next encounter. Knowledge is not some mental copy of an external reality, but rather, a means or instrument of successful action. Enfolded Dewey’s idea with the definitions already provided by Horn (2002) and Jenlink (2003) results in a scholar-practitioner with a pragmatic flair, an individual motivated to achieve the best possible solutions, but cognizant of all mitigating circumstances and the personal, social, and historical factors which limit those solutions.

If Dewey’s notion that knowing and doing are inseparable, then it follows that learning and doing are also indivisible aspects of the same thing, for knowledge is procured only through learning. For scholar-practitioners, learning is a continuous, life-long, transformative process through which the meaning of everyday life is made. As Anderson and Saavedra (2002) relate, when scholar-practitioners encounter “obstacles or dissonance within their current understandings, they find ways to alter those meanings and construct new interpretations” (p. 33). The scholar-practitioner takes this unknown and begins a process of exploration, formulating hypotheses based on current knowledge about the situation. All sorts of data are gathered, including formal knowledge gained from study, observations, interviews, past experiences, and social encounters: nothing is off-limits. This data becomes the point of a spear with which the scholar-practitioner probes into the unknown. As the scholar-practitioner reaches further into the unknown, the data continues to be interpreted, analyzed, and compared to previous understandings which begin to alter or expand. At the same time, new meanings and new understandings begin to form, and these lead to more questions. New questions

require more data and more probing, and soon, the cycle begins again. “Transformative learning occurs as a result of consistent engagement in inquiry” (Anderson & Saavedra, 2002). This engagement represents the truest form of constructivist action- or practitioner-research and is at the heart of scholar-practitioner leadership: it is the constant expansion of Kincheloe and Steinberg’s (1999) “frontier.”

As Jenlink (2001) states, leadership based on the scholar-practitioner model focuses primarily on a “‘new scholarship’ wherein the practitioner as a scholar of practice, seeks to mediate professional practice and formal knowledge and theory through disciplined inquiry, and uses scholarly inquiry and practice to guide decisions on all levels of educational activity” (p. 7). Further, scholar-practitioners are uniquely situated in relation to their field because the subject of their research is always intimately connected with their actual practice. Such a reflexive relationship permits a “sustained interactivity” between theory, place, person, and practice. Due to this interactivity, scholar-practitioners have distinctive methods of inquiry because the methods, “in effect, become practice and vice versa; inquiry and practice stand in a reciprocal, recursive, and mutually informing relationship” (p. 8). Anderson and Saavedra (2002) extend the argument, pointing out that whatever the means, “knowledge production is never neutral, but rather is always pursued with some vested interest in mind” (p. 32). Because of this, they argue, “there is nothing in current approaches to action research that might interrupt the mere reproduction of best practices”; consequently, unless scholar-practitioners consciously and explicitly build a “reflexive component” into their research, “pressures to maintain and defend the status quo may discourage the problematization of current policies and practices” (p. 32).

The Theoretical Basis of Scholar-Practitioner Leadership

With the warning of Anderson and Saavedra (2002) in mind, the scholar-practitioner must discover a way to resist tendencies that encourage the preservation of the status quo. This resistance can be readily maintained if the scholar-practitioner develops a critical world-view, “becoming, as Jenlink (2003) would say, a “critical-bricoleur.” The critical-bricoleur would rely on his or her “scholarly practice to engage as a criticalist leader concerned with social justice, equity, power, ‘Truth,’ difference, and caring” (p. 3). The critical-bricoleur would also utilize practice to “overcome the marginalization and oppression experienced in schools and academic settings, challenging cultural reproduction that advantages one population while disadvantaging others” (p. 3-4). In short, as Ryan (1998) notes, critical scholar-practitioners “‘are concerned less with matters of efficiency and positional authority’ and more with ‘finding ways to help schools improve the life situations of disadvantaged groups”” (p. 257). The scholar-practitioner views overcoming these obstacles and meeting these challenges as a moral responsibility.

In this respect, Ryan (1998) delineates two important functions of leadership: these responsibilities “include helping people to *understand* theirs and other’s situations and providing them with the capacity to *resist* situations that penalize certain individuals and groups” (p. 275). Thus, scholar-practitioner leaders, while constructing their own knowledge, must guide others to new knowledge as well. The purpose of this new knowledge is to help them formulate new ways to resist both overt and covert forms of oppression. In this process, however, Foster (1994) reminds leaders that all organizations “have a history which serves to inform how individuals can construct their realities; the possibilities are not limitless and are constrained by particular social and economic factors”; mitigating these factors within a system results in the role of the leaders being “less one of regulation and more one of transformation” (p. 38).

As noted above, the scholar-practitioner is commonly viewed as one who blends theory and practice, but as the subsequent discussion made evident, such blending is not always possible. The scholar-practitioner is in a position of acting in ways that immediately and powerfully affect the lives of people. Taking such actions must be informed by knowledge of the system and those within it. Even though leaders can amass a wealth of theoretical knowledge, they must rely on the input of others to guide them through the socio-historical context of a given situation and to mitigate the

effectiveness, the fairness, the equity, and the justice of the decisions they make.

Scholar-practitioner leadership, rather than being abstracted from educational leadership, is a particular form of educational leadership. Furthermore, the term will be used in a way that reflects and assumes the leader's awareness of the socio-historical context of a situation. Like any educational leader, the primary goal of the scholar-practitioner leader is to effectively transition the school to ever greater levels of student achievement and stakeholder satisfaction. The primary difference between the scholar-practitioner leader—particularly one who is sensitive to the nature and importance of his position—and other leaders, however, is the *way* the scholar-practitioner accomplishes that task. Examining how a scholar-practitioner moves a school forward is essential to understanding the value of scholar-practitioner leadership.

The Means of Scholar-Practitioner Leadership

Scholar-practitioners should have a sufficient theoretical knowledge base to give them a commanding view of the field in which they operate. Additionally, they should be cognizant of and responsive to the social milieu of the organization in which they operate. In brief, they must know something about organizations, about the role of individuals within those organizations, and about how the organization impinges upon the lives of those individuals. To that end, the scholar-practitioner must surround him/herself with individuals who can contribute that knowledge, which, in itself, connotes a democratic ideal. These demands require the scholar-practitioner to be familiar with principles affecting organizations and the people who operate within them. An examination of these factors will contribute to that understanding.

The nature of organizations. Greenfield (1984) argues that organizations, particularly schools, are not a result of some natural order; rather, they are product of human invention. As a result, they are also prone to human capriciousness and are best understood in that context, “from a sense of the concrete events and personalities within them rather than from a set of abstractions or general laws” (p. 143). Furthermore, viewing organizations as “non-natural entities” grounds them “in meanings, in human intentions, actions, and experience” instead of some “ultimate reality” or unifying, controlling theory (p. 150). Essentially, then, organizations are no more than the collective experiences, personalities, and consciousnesses of the people who comprise them; they are the sum of the collective participant-knowledge within the system.

Wheatley (1999), however, contends that organizations are more than just the sum of their parts, however endemic those parts are to the organization. In fact, summing the parts yields an entity, whether natural or not, that far transcends the parts. This concept is evident in every aspect of school, as the learning community, acting in common, regularly achieves much more than could be achieved through individual efforts. Importantly, though, valuing the individual's contribution to the whole remains important, for without those efforts, the whole would cease to exist. Ideally, Wheatley (1999) adds, “Each organism maintains a clear sense of individual identity within the larger network of relationships that helps shape its identity. Each being is noticeable as a separate entity, yet is simultaneously a part of the whole system” (p. 80). The organizational leader's responsibility becomes “one of providing the opportunity for the organization to grow naturally, not coercively. As the leader *allows* nature to take its course, creativity will emerge” (p. 83). Removing barriers and debris from the leader's and followers' surroundings allows for the natural transcendence of each individual to occur; consequently, the organization becomes stronger.

Based on the argument thus far, if organizations are to move forward, then the individuals within them must also move forward. To that end, Donaldson (2001) contends that there must be sufficient unity and cohesion within the organization so that once individuals start moving forward they are able to all move in the same general direction. Similarly, Senge (1990) discusses the importance of shared vision among the members of the organization: “When there is a shared vision (as opposed to the all-too-familiar “vision statement”), people excel and learn, not because they are told to, but because they want to” (p. 9). Carrying forward the spirit of learning organizations, he adds that “organizations learn only through individuals who learn. Individual learning does not guarantee

organizational learning. But without it, no organizational learning occurs” (p. 9). The school leader accepts that schools are learning organizations and strives to cultivate learning throughout.

Unfortunately, many times in organizations learning is stifled and human needs are sacrificed upon the altar of managerial accountability. The result is a loss of ownership by members of the group. Members become, at best, dissatisfied or, at worst, completely disenfranchised. As a result, the potential to achieve greatness is minimized and the organization as a whole as well as the individuals who comprise it suffer. The organization’s collective success must derive from and be a product of the individual member’s successes (Senge, 1990). In that regard, celebrating even the smallest achievements of members fosters natural desires within the individual, pushing them and the entire organization forward.

The role of the individual within the school. Fazzaro, Walter, and McKerrow (1994) argue that “American public education is not an island unto itself in a dynamic social sea” (p. 92). Rather, the public schools are an integral part of the fabric of society. At one time or another, practically every individual in this society will play some role in a public school. As a result, schools have the responsibility to simultaneously meet the needs of individual students, such as preparing them for valuable, productive futures, and also to promote the “sociopolitical good.” To that end, the “original theoretical purpose of universal public education in America included the perpetuation of the democratic ideals upon which the republic was founded” (p. 85). Ideally, then, the perpetuation of democratic ideals will include some practice with the basic process of democracy. The inclusion of democratic practices facilitates the inclusion of diverse individuals and groups which increases the store of participant-knowledge from which the scholar-practitioner can draw.

Democracy. Based in part on the above arguments, there is a call for democracy within today’s schools. As society becomes more diverse, so do the needs of its members, and a primary need is practice and training in the art of democracy. Starrat (2001) points out that in the United States democracy takes two forms: first, there is the representative form of the government, in which citizens elect leaders to represent their views at various levels in the government; second, there is “the traditional usage of the word that refers to social forms of living together as equals under the law, citizens with moral bonds to one another, yet each free to pursue their own interests” (p. 334). However, conflict often arises from competing interests within the society, leading Taylor (1998) to ask how “people can associate and be bonded together in difference, without abstracting from these differences” (p. 214). As a partial answer, consider Starrat’s (2001) suggestion “that a qualified form of democratic leadership of schools is not only possible, but also necessary” (p. 335) in order to model successful democratic behavior and ameliorate the potentially divisive effects of diversity.

In order to model democracy in action effectively, Apple and Beane (1995) purport that “in a democratic school it is true that all of those directly involved in the school, including the young people, have the right to participate in the process of decision making.” Ideally, this sort of arrangement provides everyone with a chance to promote individual interests and to share their personal participant-knowledge with others. The successful democratic leader values and utilizes the authentic input offered by both school and community members. Thus, a sense of ownership materializes and stakeholders feel validated through the process.

Schools should be designed to educate all students and, in the process, teach and model true participatory democracy. Codd (1989) agrees, noting that “if schools are to educate for a democracy, they must embody within their own structures such central moral principles as justice, freedom, and respect for persons, combined with an overriding concern for truth” (p. 177). This authentic modeling of the desired results is essential. Every group and individual is important to the organizational makeup. “In the ideal democratic state, education should promote social criticism, not reinforce, for example, any elitist, racist, or sexist practices that might exist” (Fazzaro, Walter, & McKerrow, 1994, p. 89). A collaborative effort can only be achieved if all stakeholders feel valued.

Democratic participation, as argued by Anderson (1998), “is justifiable on the grounds that it

is educative and provides a development process in which social actors become more knowledgeable about their choices and aware of their own beliefs” (pp. 584-585). As members come to participate democratically in the organization, educational leaders facilitate multiple layers of authentic learning for everyone. The participant knowledge gained through the participation process is shared by individuals and will ultimately spread to affect the entire group.

In theory, many leaders express a desire for democracy within their schools; moreover, many even claim to operate within a democratic organization, but hidden below the verbiage lies a different truth. Many schools continue to function through authoritarian leadership with a top-down hierarchal structure. Anderson (1996) shares that many administrators do not want a vocal majority; they actually prefer to silence any “disruptive” voices so that elite power is not questioned. The inability or lack of desire to practice democracy creates disconnect among the members of the organization. It is important to note, however, that such an experience could prove to be negative and harmful when the democracy is discovered to be inauthentic (Anderson, 1998). Participants may become disillusioned with, disinterested in, and disconnected from the process. Participation and connection are two key components of democracy. Wheatley (1999) stresses the importance of keeping every member interconnected throughout the organization. Other authors (Donaldson, 2001; Duffy, 2003; Fullan, 2001) reinforce the point, stressing the importance of maintaining strong, healthy connections and relationships as a way to facilitate success and cultivate authentic democratic participation.

Social Justice. All of the discourse on democracy ultimately leads to the question: Who participates, in what areas and under what conditions, and to ask: Participation toward what end? To answer, Anderson (1998) insists that to be authentic, participation must “include relevant stakeholders and create relatively safe, structured spaces for voices to be heard” (p. 575). He further argues that even though these measures address the nature of participation, they fail to address the ultimate ends of participation. For Anderson (1998), the ultimate ends of democracy should be “the constitution of a democratic citizenry and redistributive justice for disenfranchised groups.” In educational terms, this equates to “more equal levels of student achievement and improved social and academic outcomes for all students” (p. 575). Thus, authentic participation should result in “the strengthening of habits of direct democratic participation and the achievement of greater learning outcomes and social justice for all participants” (p. 576).

The first step toward increasing participation and re-enfranchising those who have been pushed to the sides of the system is to determine exactly who those people are. Friere (2004) maintains that, regardless of the reasons, the poor and people of color are most likely to be silenced within organizations. Often historical and structural forces work to reinforce this isolation; in fact, the origin of much of it can be traced back to the schools. Oakes (1986) points out that, as schools struggled to educate diverse groups of learners, they turned to tracking as an answer. Standardized testing became the primary tool of sorting, providing a seemingly scientific and equitable solution to the problem; at the time, “this solution defined student differences and appropriate educational treatments in social as well as educational terms” (p. 150). Importantly, however, Oakes (1986) argues that tracking was more than a solution to an instructional problem—it provided a means of social control. Ultimately, tracking “helped to institutionalize beliefs about race and class differences in intellectual abilities and to erect structural obstacles to the future social, political, and economic opportunities of those who were not white and native-born” (p. 150).

Successful scholar-practitioners believe in and are capable of breaking down the class structures and diversity issues that provide obstacles to social justice. They do this by looking through a lens which allows them to view all as equals. Leaders who believe in this ideology also believe the walls of class structure and diversity should be dismantled to allow for more growth and knowledge. To illustrate the difference social class can make, Bates (1984) notices that the children of the working class are often seen as inferior, as an enemy, and that when conflicts arise in schools, they predominately involve this group of children. The needs of these children are often not met. He further argues that the middle class children are often viewed as cogs in a machine, and these students meet stifling, bureaucratized relationships in school. Though their needs are met, most of the children

in this group are awash in a sea of anonymity. Meanwhile, children of the upper class are treated as negotiators, as rational adults. They are treated as individuals, with special attention aimed at meeting their needs; they represent a powerful manipulative force within the same organization (Bates, 1984). Ultimately, the responsibility of valuing all members equally and treating all members fairly falls in hands of the educational leader.

The oppression of the poor and working class is not limited to children, but is a problem that runs rampant throughout the lives of poor and minority adults as well. Anderson (1998) states that “many advocates of poor and disenfranchised groups claim that participation of any form holds out the possibility of greater accountability from educational institutions that have tended to at best ignore them and at worst to pathologize them” (p. 582). People should not be labeled as good or bad based on the environment they come from or what color of skin they have. Giroux (1994) argues that, unfortunately, “many educators view different languages and backgrounds in students as deficits to be corrected rather than as strengths to build upon” (p. 41.) Every individual possesses the capability to learn and contribute as a productive member of the organization or school and should be afforded the opportunity to do so. Individuals from the working class can think creatively just like those from the upper class. Each person offers a unique perspective on and knowledge of various issues and should be validated as important.

Voice. If each individual offers a unique perspective, then, according to Greenfield (1984) it is because each individual experiences a unique, perspectival reality, a reality that is “woven by human will from stuff created from our imagination and colored by our personal interests” (p. 142). Because there is no objective means of determining the legitimacy of anyone’s “reality,” in a democratic system each person should be free to express his or her own perspective, unhindered by issues or race, class, or gender. In fact, “the crux of this argument is that we can do nothing to validate our perceptions of reality other than to describe it as we see it and argue for the truth of our description” (p. 142). This the participant-knowledge that can be shared, but cannot be experienced by another.

Making this critical argument, however, requires that each individual has free and legitimate access to the political process. As noted in the discussion above, this is not always the case. Often, certain individuals and/or groups have lost their “voice.” McElroy-Johnson (1993) does a remarkable job of explaining the concept of voice and all that it entails. Just as each individual has a unique fingerprint, each individual has a unique and distinguishing voice. Moreover, each person actually possesses two voices: an outer voice heard by others and an inner voice heard only by the self. Due to personal and cultural factors, many people—particularly those who are members of oppressed groups—find that even contacting the inner voice becomes difficult (if not uncomfortable), much less expressing and heeding it. Consequently, these people become so accustomed to hearing the voices of others that they lose touch with their personal voices, sometimes even displacing someone else’s voice for their own. When this displacement occurs, social justice is denied.

When an individual allows someone else to speak for him or her, that individual retreats from and loses a place in the political process. Voices become silenced; identity fades; injustices emerge; and, oppression begins. McElroy-Johnson (1993) uses the term voice when she references the “strong sense of identity within an individual, an ability to express a personal point of view, and a sense of personal well-being.” Moreover, “voice is identity, a sense of self, a sense of relationship to others, and a sense of purpose. Voice is power—power to express ideas and convictions, power to direct and shape an individual life towards a productive and positive fulfillment for self, family, community, nation, and the world” (pp. 85-86). Working from such an articulate, cogent, and powerful definition of voice, it naturally follows that establishing and maintaining legitimate, genuine voice is fundamental to ensuring social justice and democracy.

Conclusions Regarding Scholar-Practitioner Leadership

Much has been said about what scholar-practitioners are, what they do, how they do it, and why society needs them. Scholar-practitioners have been shown to be intimately connected to the

world around them, striving, by any means, to make it a better place. They are pragmatists, concerned about consequences, and bricoleurs, able to utilize a multitude of methods to achieve the best consequences. They constantly rely on theory to guide their practice and use their experiences gained through practice to develop new theories. Additionally, coupled with a thorough understanding of organizational realities, an awareness of the socio-historical context enables leaders to empower individuals within the schools, simultaneously fostering democratic principles, ensuring social justice, and giving voice to all. Moreover, Mills (1959) describes scholar-practitioners best when he identifies them as “the most admirable thinkers” because they “do not split their work from their lives. They seem to take both much too seriously to allow such dissociation, and they want to use each for the enrichment of the other” (p.195). From that statement springs the essence of scholar-practitioner leadership.

Greenfield (1984) wraps up the notion most cogently when he observes that “the gist of this argument is that schools, and also organizations in general, are best understood in context, from a sense of the concrete events and personalities [and particular participant-knowledge] within them rather than from a set of abstractions or general laws [provided by theoretical knowledge]” (p. 143).). Understanding organizations and the individuals who comprise them in such a way—by taking into account their socio-historical context and unique realities—is central to our new model of effective scholar-practitioner leadership. Doing this, completing the understanding, brings us back around, positioning the leader to see and understand that place from which he departed for the very first time.

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The Third Way: A Call for Breaking the Dependency on the Mainstream English Language Teaching

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Abstract

The worldwide spread of English, especially through the tenets and assumptions of the mainstream English language teaching (ELT) has had ideological, socio-cultural and political implications in the field of education. Reviewing these tenets and assumptions, this paper attempts to reveal this growing industry through publicizing the spread of Center-created methods, materials, curriculum and expertise as well as legitimizing only the Center's linguistic and cultural norms, introduces itself not only as a merely educational and value-free trend, but hides its biased exclusive and hegemonic nature. Then, to reveal its hidden nature and functions, it attempts to introduce and problematize some important assumptions of ELT taken for granted. Finally, through some practical and defensible suggestions, the rationale for applying critical pedagogy or in Canagarajah's (1999) words, "the third way" as a panacea to breaking the dependency on the mainstream Center-based pedagogy as an exclusive tradition in Periphery countries is introduced and discussed.

Keywords: critical pedagogy, mainstream ELT, culture, Center, Periphery

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Introduction

Today English has traveled to many parts of the world and has been used to serve various purposes. Such a recent growth in its use and presence in many aspects, its unprecedented expansion, and especially its consequences and implications in some fields of study including applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, etc. have led to calling this language with terms such as 'global language' (Crystal, 1997; Nunan, 2003), as 'world language' (Bailey and Görlach, 1982; Mair, 2004), as 'international language' (Hassal, 2002; Holliday, 2005; Jenkins, 2000; Le Ha, 2008; McKay, 2002; Pennycook, 1994; Seidlhofer, 2002; Sharifian, 2008), as 'lingua franca' (Gnutzmann, 2000; Jenkins, 2007), as a 'medium of intercultural communication' (Meierkord, 1996) or with some new concepts like 'World English' (Brutt-Griffler, 2002) and 'global Englishes' (Pennycook, 2007), which each one, by and large, reveals its spread, rise, globalization as well as its role and dominance. Such a situation, as Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008) note, has led to viewing and studying this phenomenon from a number of perspectives including:

- as a Macro-Sociolinguistic topic –'language spread'– detailing the ways in which English and other languages associated with colonization which have changed the linguistic ecology of the world;
- as a topic in the field of Language Contact, examining the structural similarities and differences amongst the new varieties of English that are stabilizing or have stabilized;
- as a topic in Political and Ideological Studies – 'linguistic imperialism' – that focuses on how relations of dominance are entrenched by, and in, language and how such dominance often comes to be viewed as part of the natural order;
- as a topic in Applied Linguistics concerned with the role of English in modernization, government and – above all – education; and
- as a topic in Cultural and Literary Studies concerned with the impact of English upon different cultures and literatures, and the constructions of new identities via bilingualism.

The appearance of such studies and perspectives especially in the field of applied linguistics with its special reference to the issue of education has resulted in forming a new situation. In this regard, while especially in the second half of the 20th century the spread of this language specifically through ELT, as the most systematic way of English spread, was considered as a favorable development or as a purely pedagogical advantage from the Center to the Periphery, the appearance of an increasing wave of books, inspired mostly by some newly-emerged leftist critical views, has been effective in stimulating a considerable degree of soul searching within applied linguistics in general and ELT profession in specific. In a more precise word, in the midst of showing enthusiasm toward teaching and learning English, the advent of some outstanding critical views and theories about the spread of English especially through ELT aroused some awareness among the educationalists, language planners and applied linguists.

Certainly such a situation has led to some controversy and discussion surrounding the ELT, as a field that without it, in Brutt-Griffler's (2002) words, English would not be a world language. Not surprisingly, in this era, there is no doubt that ELT has undergone some radical changes and cannot be confined to the traditional or mainstream features and liberalist attitudes which have been mostly current in this field. In this regard, Kumaravadivelu (2012) notes this fact that the worldview that characterizes most part of the studies in second language acquisition has for long been premised upon notions such as interlanguage, fossilization, acculturation, communicative competence- all of which are hardly tilted towards the episteme of the native speaker, has been encountered with some challenging critical attitudes instrumental in strengthening a newly growing critical camp of thought in the field of applied linguistics. As a result of such a situation, it is found that the current status of English teaching and learning has led to a number of challenging questions which are not directly limited to purely pedagogical ideas and theories (Zacharias, 2003). In other words, the unique position

of English in the world has some repercussions on the way it is seen, defined, presented, learned and taught and has led to a position which has been discussed from ideological, cultural, social and political standpoints (see Block and Cameron, 2002; Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Canagarajah, 1999; Edge, 2006; Holliday 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Pennycook, 1994, 1998 and 2001; Phillipson, 1992 and 2009). Thus, it is nothing to be surprised when McKay (2002) writes that the teaching and learning of English in present day must be based on an entirely different set of assumptions than the teaching of any other second or foreign language. Inspired by the appearance of some significant critical works especially the publication of Phillipson's book "Linguistic Imperialism" in 1992, the 1990s turned into a milestone in critical studies in applied linguistics in general and ELT in particular. According to Johnston (2003), possibly the most significant development in ELT in the 1990s was the acceptance of this idea that ELT is and always has been a profoundly and unavoidably political activity. Anderson (2003) writes that since the 1990s the concepts of ELT and ELT profession have undergone radical changes and this field has experienced an intellectual shift. In this regard, introducing ELT as an educational activity, Akbari (2008) also strongly maintains that ELT is an activity filled with politics. In Baladi's (2007) terms, the teachings of English and English language itself have, for a long time, been seen as clean and safe exports, as a practical means of communication carrying few ethical implications. According to Matsuda (2006), the spread of English and its function as an international language significantly complicate ELT practice because it requires that most basic assumptions in the field be re-evaluated and re-negotiated vis-à-vis the current sociolinguistic landscape of the English teaching. In her words, the complexity resulting in the spread of English is not limited to its linguistic forms and functions but has also found its political and ideological dilemmas, and poses a new set of questions about an aspect of ELT that has received only peripheral attention until recently. Canagarajah (2005) also asserts that after the decolonization and around the Cold War, ELT shifted to an important activity and English was remarked as a more effectual channel of hegemony. In this case, Gray (2002) writes that contrary to the mainstream ELT pedagogy known especially in the critical literature as the liberalist ELT, its beliefs, practices and tenets, the appearance of some notable critical attitudes which have been raised in recent years mostly through an increasing wave of books by some researchers of great renown such as Pennycook (1994, 1998, 2001), Canagarajah (1999) and so forth has changed the scene. In his opinion, what these works have had in common is a belief that the global spread of English is inherently problematic, inextricably linked to wider political issues and that ELT practices are neither value free, nor always culturally appropriate.

The main gist of this controversy can be introduced in this way that currently the mainstream or liberalist ELT presents itself as a mere educational activity, publicizes native-based or the Center varieties of English especially the American and British ones, ignores or rejects World Englishes, introduces itself as the only legitimate reference of planning, developing and producing methods, materials and programs, advertises the homogenization of cultural and educational goods influenced by global standardization carrying from the center to the periphery, and shrewdly equates learning English in its Center variety with global understanding (see Kubota, 2002; Ghaffar Samar and Davari, 2011). In contrast, the outstanding appearance of the critical or alarmist ELT has significantly challenged and complicated the mainstream ELT. Proposing that ELT functions as a vehicle for imposing western capitalist values and beliefs, questioning the cultural and social relevance and appropriateness of center-produced methods and materials, focusing on the political, cultural, social, economic and ideological aspects of ELT, challenging the established and globally known tenets and bases of ELT and promoting critical pedagogy as an alternative approach to the mainstream pedagogy, this new critical camp of thought has tried to manifest itself mightily.

Here, the following table with an especial reference to the educational aspects has been provided to review the growing rich literature on the topic and to present the gist of their main ideas and debates on the role, position and function of English and ELT. Needless to say, the opposing views on the topic are not confined to these fifteen categories:

Table 1. Two main opposing camps of thought in ELT

Category	Mainstream	Critical
	or Liberalist Position	or Alarmist Position
- ELT Methods: Nature, Function & Essence	- Methods as value-free and neutral instruments of teaching - Center-produced methods as the best and most efficient ones	- Methods as non- neutral cultural constructs - Rejecting the validity and appropriateness of Center-produced methods
-Material & Curriculum Development	- Center-produced materials and Curriculums as the best and most appropriate - Developing materials as their exclusive rights	- Rejecting the appropriateness of Center-produced materials -Insisting on the necessity of developing materials and curriculum in the Periphery
-Native vs. Nonnative (Teachers, Standards, Varieties)	- Native-speaker tenet - Standard English	- Native-speaker fallacy - World Englishes
- English, ELT & Culture	- No threat to other cultures - No mutual dependency between English language & western culture	- Threat to other cultures - Tools of cultural expansion of the West
- English, ELT & other Languages	- No danger to other languages or minority languages	- Dangers to other languages and minority languages
- English Spread & Policy	- Accidental or lucky expansion - English & ELT as neutral activity without any political or cultural dominance	- Purpose-built expansion through the Center language planning and policies - English as a tool for political and cultural dominance

- English & the Western Political & Economic Systems	- No political view to English & ELT	- The necessity to view English & ELT politically
	- No tie between English and western political and economic systems	- Strong& strategic tie between English and western political and economic systems
- English: equality vs. Inequality	- Bringing equal opportunities for all	- Source of inequality
- Resistance & Criticism	- The need to welcome English & ELT	- The need to resist against the global spread of English & the mainstream ELT through critical approaches
- International English Exams	- No cultural & social biases	- filled with cultural & social biases
	- The best criteria for measuring the English proficiency applicable globally	- Serving the US and British interests
- Early Start Education	- Early start tenet	- Early start fallacy
- Monolingual Education	- Monolingual tenet	- Monolingual fallacy
- English: the Language of Science	- The sole language of higher education	- Higher education in mother tongue
- Inherent Qualities	- Enjoying inherent qualities	- All languages are inherently the same
- English as a Second Language	- An ideal situation for the Periphery	- A threat to national and minority languages as well as the cultures of the Periphery

Simply put, the appearance of these notable critical studies has resulted in questioning and challenging the assumptions, tenets and principles of the mainstream ELT including its neutral essence, no threat to other cultures and languages, native-speakerism, monolingual tenet, no tie between English and western political, cultural and economic systems, etc. In fact, the advent of this critical shift in ELT has not only challenged and complicated the mainstream or liberalist ELT or in a

more precise word, its hegemonic nature, but has mostly introduced critical pedagogy (CP) as an alternative approach to the mainstream ELT.

Why critical pedagogy?

Phillipson (1992, 2009) writes that the global expansion of English especially in two interrelated sectors of government and education perpetuates the dependency of the Periphery countries on the powerful Center countries. Canagarajah (1999) also notes that turning the Periphery countries into the mere consumers of the ELT expertise, methodology and materials, dispensed by the West, promotes the Western ideologies and contributes to its domination more subtly. So, on the one hand, accepting this political side of ELT, especially as Akbari (2008) reminds us, and on the other hand, the importance of English language as an undeniable fact, with an especial reference to Canagarajah (1999, p. 147), "what is demand is a "third way" or Critical Pedagogy that avoids the traditional extremes of rejecting English outright for its linguistic imperialism or accepting its wholesale for its benefits". Avoiding some conceptual dimensions common in its literature, now it is attempted to highlight, introduce and incorporate some of the practical aspects of CP in ELT especially in Periphery countries.

a) Incorporating Source Culture as well as other Cultures

According to Akbari (2008), culture has always been treated as an indispensable part of any language teaching/learning situation. While Crystal (1997) clearly asserts that different cultures throughout the world can exist along with the global spread of English, the scholars belonging to CP tradition including Phillipson (1992), Pennycook (1994, 2001 and 2007), and Canagarajah (1999) maintain that the spread of English not only threatens different cultures in the world, but strengthens the cultural hegemony of the Center. In this case, Pennycook (2007) introduces the impact of English culture so great that he clearly asserts we must rethink the relationship between English, pedagogy and culture within the contemporary world.

As criticized by Kumaravadivelu (2012), for a long time developing L2 linguistic competence has also meant developing L2 cultural competence and consequently cultural assimilation has been the desired destination with integrative motivation as the preferred path to get there. Regarding this situation, the main justification of the mainstream ELT has been that those who want to learn English want to communicate with the users of this language, and successful communication would not be possible without the learners' familiarity with the cultural norms of English speakers (Akbari, 2008). In this case, insisting on the fact that this assumption is only true for those who want to migrate to countries such as the US or UK for work or study, he reminds us that due to the scope of English application both geographically and communicatively, most of the communication carried out in English is between people who are themselves the so-called non-native speakers of English with a distinct cultural identity of their own. Thus, there is little need in this context for the Anglo-American culture, since neither party is a native with whom the other interlocutor is going to identify. In his words, incorporating source culture, i.e. learners' own culture, is valuable since focusing on local cultures contributes to learners to reflect on the positive and negative features of their own culture and consequently explore ways to make changes in the society if change is required. McKay (2003) also in response to why anyone would learn about their own culture in English, notes the important point that students need to talk about their own culture when they talk to people from other cultures. In addition, reliance on learners' culture as the point of departure for language teaching will make them critically aware and respectful of their own culture and prevent the development of a sense of inferiority which might result from a total reliance on the target language culture where only the praiseworthy features of the culture are presented. Matsuda (2012) also points to this fact that a possible source of cultural content can be learners' own culture. In her views, when English was considered the language of the UK and US, the knowledge of a narrowly defined "English-speaking culture" may have been adequate. Due to the undeniable fact that this language today is not limited to exchange between native and non-native speakers to English, a critical reflection on local culture of any society can be legitimately incorporated into classrooms.

In addition, integrating the possible culture(s) of learners' future interlocutors might be noteworthy. Another suggestive but challenging point to note might be encouraging students to learn about and reflect on other cultures as a way of reflecting on their own values and customs. Through this pass, as McKay (2012) writes, reflecting on own cultural values as well as learning about differing cultural values might lead to increasing the learners' sensitivity to cross-cultural awareness.

b) Integrating Local and Global Issues in ELT Materials

According to Bardovi-Harling (1996), teaching materials, especially textbooks, are perceived as a prestige source of input and play an important part in curriculum design of a foreign language class, because learners especially in EFL contexts do not receive much input outside the classroom. In this regard, reviewing the current ELT textbooks shows that their topics are mostly Center-oriented or in sharp contrast with the Periphery countries' atmosphere. Gray (2002) maintains that one effect of globalization is the imposition of Center materials on the Periphery in the increasing spread of global ELT coursesbooks which are thematically and culturally "inclusive" and "inappropriate". According to Banegas (2010), such coursesbooks are criticized not only for avoiding provoking topics, but also for presenting a romantic view of countries such as Britain or the USA. In his words, in an attempt to avoid some controversial and real issues, material writers opt for selecting themes that are rooted in the British or American culture. Gray (2000) writes that topics are chosen in such a way that the target culture seems to uphold values and living standards that are better than those of the student's culture, leading to the perception that the target culture is superior to the student's. Even if textbooks do contemplate topics such as poverty, hunger, or even discrimination, they are contextualized in Africa or the Muslim world, creating the idea that poverty or discrimination is nowhere to be found in Europe or the USA. Hillyard (2005) points out that when we study the topics of such textbooks, there is little controversial material. On the contrary, we find themes such as the family, sport, hobbies, travel, pop culture, festivals from remote countries which bear no impact on students' lives, fashion and food, among others. Also according to Banegas (2010) recently for reasons generally attributed to the production and matching of mainstream coursesbooks produced for the general EFL class regardless of where they are used, publishers avoid the inclusion of provocative topics in developing the units of work coursesbooks may be divided into.

In CP, what is more essential for both teachers and students are being critically aware of issues surrounding them both locally and globally (Byean, 2011). Regarding the local issues, Akbari (2008) believes that a problem of commercially produced coursesbooks is their disregard for the local issues or in a more precise word, their real-life concerns. In addition to local topics, CP insists that global issues should be incorporated in ELT. In Sampedro and Hillyard's (2004) terms, global issues can no longer be dismissed as the "out there", but they are very much "in here" too and can no longer be safely ignored. Matsuda (2006) points out since at present learners want to become effective users of English in the international context, some awareness of global cultures and issues needs to be fostered. In her words, such topics as world peace, environmental conservation and other relevant topics in the field of global education provide appropriate content for readings, class discussions and course assignments.

Since CP, insisting on improving critical thinking, aims to empower language learners and provides an opportunity for the learners to transform their lives, on the one hand, it is strongly suggested that the topics and content of textbooks, class discussions and course assignments be contextually and locally situated and on the other hand to be effective users of English in the global context, integrating global issues needs to be fostered. Needless to say, incorporating global topics which in Matsuda's (2012) words includes topics that cut across national boundaries and are relevant to the global society as a whole, can not only foster the learners' awareness of the global culture, but develop the sense of global citizenship among them.

c) A Joint Goal: Social Development along with Language Development

Reviewing the current commercially ELT textbooks indicates that, as Rashidi and Safari (2011) note, most of them are a compilation of information and activities with the purpose of

improving English communicative abilities regardless of the social issues or in a more precise word, they have been designed for traditional banking education. Having a set of prespecified objectives settled down prior to the actual occurrence of the learning situations, supporting practices indicating a superficial understanding of the discussed topics, developing activities and exercises which incorporate language skills without involving students in contextualized activities and so on are the main features of the mainstream ELT textbooks.

In Crookes and Lehner's (1998) words, in a critical L2 pedagogy, materials pursue a "joint goal" which its general aim is to help students to read with and also to read against. In fact, contrary to the mainstream ELT, critical pedagogy attempts to make the learners experience a sense of empowerment through engaging in the emancipatory praxis, i.e. the cycle of reflection and action. In such a situation the learners can discover new ways of challenging the status quo and engaging in transformative actions to improve their lives (i.e. social development) while they improve their mastery of the target language (i.e. language development). Thus, the materials must be developed in such a way that besides providing valuable language input, they construct and reinforce critical attitudes to learners' surroundings. According to Pishghadam and Najji (2011), through this trend, ELT policies can shift towards language for life purposes, especially in EFL contexts in which learners may need not much to use the language for real-life purposes. In their words, this trend gives English courses a new flavor; learners do not go to English classes to become familiar with Anglo-American culture, or to learn a language for its own sake, but to boost their social competencies, become more prepared to deal with unprepared situations, and internalize life skills.

Undoubtedly, noticing this joint goal can pave the way to prepare learners to "read the world" while "read the word". Certainly, centering English lessons on social life skills and development not only can transcend discussions over language, but also can turn language classes into language-and-life classes.

d) First Language as a Source

The common practice in L2 professional literature has been the rejection of learner's L1 (Akbari, 2008). Contrary to this tenet of the mainstream ELT, critical pedagogy tradition regards L1 as an asset facilitating communication in L2. Introducing this tenet as the "monolingual fallacy", Phillipson (1992) argues this belief is rooted in the maintenance of colonial power and in misguided and negative beliefs about bilingualism.

In Akbari's (2008) words, the rationale for the total exclusion of L1 from classes must be sought mostly in the political, economic dimensions of L2 teaching and the inability of native English teachers to utilize the mother tongue potential of their learners. Ford (2009) also maintains that, in terms of classroom practices, the imposition of an English-only approach can be considered as authoritarian and reflecting a supposition of linguistic and cultural superiority. From a critical perspective, Akbari (2008) notes that denying the significance and learners' first language is part of his or her identity and a force which has played a crucial role in the formation of that identity.

There is no doubt that the prevalence of native-speakerism that according to McKay (2003) privileges Inner-Circle curriculum and teaching methodologies, in a world in which about 80% of English language teaching professionals are bilingual users of English, does not have any reason except the hegemonic practices of ELT industry that according to Phillipson (1992) purposefully perpetuate the concept of the native speaker. In fact, one way to break the Center-based tenet can be moving away from the current "modernization" model (Tollefson, 1991) of curriculum development, where Western models are applied by Western experts (Inner-Circle countries) to non-Western (Outer- and Expanding-Circle countries). In this model, it is advertised that the use of first language lowers the learners' proficiency and the standards of teaching. On the contrary, through the critical paradigm, the learners' knowledge of their mother tongue is the greatest asset that they generally bring to the English classroom (Khati, 2011). Regarding the psychological reality of the first language, Dawson (2010) notes that teachers try to prevent their students from using first language, but they cannot prevent them

from using first language in their brains. In this regard, Nation (1990) also argues that the exclusion of the mother tongue is the criticism of the mother tongue itself and has harmful psychological effects on learners. Introducing first language as an important tool for language learning, Macaro (1997) reminds that it is impractical to exclude the first language from the classroom. According to Aurbuch (1998), using first language can be applied in cases including classroom management, language analysis, presenting rules governing grammar, discussing cross-cultural issues, giving instructions or prompts, explaining errors and checking for comprehension. Brown (2000) also maintains that first language can be a facilitating factor and not just an interfering factor. Supporting the role of mother tongue in the classroom procedures in various methods, Larsen-Freeman (2000) notes the issue that the use of first language can enhance initially the students' security through providing a bridge from the familiar to the unfamiliar.

In CP, as Ford (2009) writes, learners' freedom to use their L1 in the second language classroom, not as a medium of instruction, but as a means of facilitating communication and comprehension, is nothing less than an expression of "linguistic human rights".

Concluding remarks

This paper was firstly an attempt to introduce the hidden nature and function of the mainstream ELT and to challenge some of the most notable beliefs and assumptions of ELT taken for granted, then to insist on seeing English and ELT through a broader sociopolitical and cultural perspective. Also, considering this fact that we cannot deny the importance of English in the modern world, the authors strongly believe that it is essential for the Periphery countries, as mostly the mere consumers of the Center, to adopt a more dynamic, critical and conscious position. To achieve this goal, critical pedagogy as an alternative and efficient approach to the liberalist ELT pedagogy was introduced and discussed. There is no doubt that not paying attention to the nature and function of ELT could lead to further marginalization and cultural derichment of the Periphery's applied linguists and ELT professionals as well as its learners. Thus, to avoid the ballyhoos of the mainstream ELT which are dominant and prevalent in the realm of ELT worldwide, especially in EFL Periphery countries, it is strongly recommended that ELT professionals in such contexts place a high premium on hearing such critical voices helping them, as Kumaravadivelu (2012) holds, become acutely aware of some thought-provoking issues as linguistic imperialism, discourse of colonialism, native speakerism, the political economy of ELT, reclamation of local knowledge, etc. In his words, what is surely and sorely needed is a meaningful break from this dependency, if we are serious about sanitizing our discipline from its corrosive effect and sensitizing the field to the demands of globalism.

Attending to such critical notions and especially resorting to some practical applications of critical pedagogy can wisely make the Periphery free of entangling in theoretical and terminological knots of mainstream ELT that have contributed not only to the dominance of the Center's mainstream ELT tenets, but also the preservation of the Periphery dependency and marginalization. Therefore, this is no surprise when Kumaravadivelu (*ibid.*, p. 17) notes that " entrapped within such a biased mode of knowledge production and unable to break from their dependency on them, scholars in periphery countries have been doing mostly reactive, not proactive research."

Beyond all doubt, what is needed for the Periphery to break the dependency on the mainstream ELT is firstly the necessity to question the Center-produced tenets, to identify their potentials as well as needs, and to apply practically their findings in ELT profession and practice.

In all, taking this critical approach, which itself entails a critical understanding on the part of policy makers, materials developers and English language teachers of the nature of English and ELT function, as Canagarajah (1999) argued for, can provide a situation in which the Periphery students become insiders and use this language in their own terms, according to their own aspirations, needs and values, not as slaves, but as agents, creatively and critically. This trend certainly will be in line with the call by Pennycook (1995, p. 55) to all applied linguists and English teachers around the world

to “become political actors engaged in a critical pedagogical project to use English to oppose the dominant discourses of the West, and to help the articulation of counter-discourses in English”.

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Progressive Education in Turkey: Reports of John Dewey and his Successors

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Abstract

John Dewey, the well-known figure in progressive education, visited Turkey in 1924. Through his visit, Turkey was introduced to progressive education. Although his visit was short, the reports he prepared influenced the shape of the Turkish education system. After Dewey's visit, many foreign educators were invited to Turkey, particularly through the end of the 1950s. Among these, a large number came from the U.S. The aim of this study is to analyze the reports of American specialists who came to Turkey and conducted research on the Turkish education system from the perspective of progressive education principles. In this study, reports prepared by Dewey (1924), Beryl Parker (1934), the committee under the presidency of E. Walter Kemmerer (1933–1934), W. Dickerman (1951) John Ruffi (1951), R. J. Maaske (1953), and M. Costat (1955) have been analyzed. Since the reports of American educators are primary information sources, published as a book by the Ministry of National Education, this study is a qualitative, historical research/historical case study. The technique of document review was used in the analysis of the reports. The research found that American educators included the principles of progressive education in their reports, and principles of progressive education cited in Dewey's report were mentioned repeatedly in subsequent reports. We conclude that these reports were highly effective for introducing and establishing progressive education in Turkey.

Keywords: Progressive education, progressivism, American specialists, reports of the foreign specialists, Turkish education system.

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Introduction

Progressive education is one of the mostly widely discussed educational movements. An analysis of the relevant literature shows that discussions about this movement center on three topics: the first of these is when and where progressive education appeared, the second is whether its influence still continues, and the third and the last is its definition.

It does not seem possible to give a clear answer to this question of when and where progressive education first appeared. Sources largely converge around the idea that progressive education first appeared in the U.S. (Norris, 2004; Puckett & Diffily, 2004). However, other researchers argue that this movement has its roots in Europe and in educators (such as Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel) from this region (Berube & Berube, 2007; Reese, 2001). When progressive education first emerged is another matter of debate. According to those who claim that progressivism is rooted in Europe, this movement is quite old. However, those who argue for its American origins cite two different timeframes: some researchers argue that progressivism emerged as a natural consequence of social and political problems of the end of 19th century. In that period, a number of pedagogical restrictions and inequality came to be debated from universities to villages (Cremin, 1959; Norris, 2004). According to other opinions, progressivism originated with Dewey at the beginning of the 20th century. Some researchers who share this belief hold that the progressive movement emerged at the end of 19th century, and the development of the movement culminated with Dewey (Berube & Berube, 2007; Cremin, 1959; Mala, 2011). Conversely, another group argues that Dewey was directly responsible for the emergence of the progressive movement (Chakrabarti, 2002; Martin, 2002).

Another debated issue about progressive education is whether it has lost its influence. This argument started in 1950s (Til, 1962) and continues today. Those who feel the movement has lost its influence state that it became fatherless after Dewey's death and weakened thereafter (Berube & Berube, 2007; Bowers, 1967; Norris, 2004). However, those who hold the movement retains its influence still consider Dewey as its main influence and cite him routinely (Chakrabarti, 2002; Martin, 2002; Puckett & Diffily, 2004; Til, 1962). In addition, they also regard reconstructionist and constructivist movements as a continuation of the progressivist movement and argue that these two movements are grounded in Dewey's principles (Bakir, 2011; Bal, 1991; Ergün, 2009; Keskin, 2011; Martin, 2002; Puckett & Diffily, 2004).

The final argument about progressive education is its definition. Many different definitions of progressive education are found in the literature. Norris (2004) states that progressive education can probably be defined 100 different ways, and none of these definitions can be considered fully correct or incorrect. Conversely, Davies (2002) states that the progressive education model maintains a paradoxical existence in today's education system and thus has differing definitions.

It seems possible that the debates on progressive education will continue. However, whatever the matter of debate, it is possible to say that progressive education emerged as a consequence of a number of factors and has affected and still affects the educational system of many countries, especially the U.S. Dewey is the most widely known and popular name in progressive education, and therefore this movement is almost identified with his name. For this reason, it is appropriate to briefly review his studies on education.

Dewey (1859–1952) was a pre-eminent American philosopher. He presented opinions on a wide range of fields (ethics, social psychology, education, politics, logic, religion, and nature). Thus, he was a versatile philosopher. He was also an education reformer with a transcontinental reputation (Bakir, 2011; Chakrabarti, 2002; Cremin, 1959). He is considered to be the first to adapt pragmatic philosophy to education and according to some, he is the founder and most important representative of progressive education (Berube & Berube, 2007; Chakrabarti, 2002; Cremin, 1959; Mala, 2011; Martin, 2002). In 1896, he achieved a significant breakthrough in education by founding the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago with his wife, and in the years that followed, carried out his progressive education practices in this school (Bal, 1991; Cremin, 1959; Martin, 2002; Puckett

& Diffily, 2004). Dewey's first essential work was *School of Tomorrow*, which was published in 1915 (Berube & Berube, 2007; Bowers, 1967; Cremin, 1959; Mala, 2011). *Democracy and Education*, which was published in 1916, became famous as the most significant educational book at that time. Dewey continued publishing studies promoting progressive education until the time of his death.

What are the fundamental principles and guidelines of progressive education according to Dewey? Most of these principles and guidelines can be found in his books and articles. Furthermore, the Progressive Education Association was established in 1919 by supporters of progressive education; it published seven basic principles guiding progressive education (Berube & Berube, 2007; Puckett & Diffily, 2004; Schugurensky & Aguirre, 2002). This association continued its studies through the 1950s. Progressive education has continued to this day with the help of varied associations and institutions (the Progressive Education Network, Whole School Consortium, etc.), and from time to time, these associations publish principles about progressive education (O'Grady, 2011). When either Dewey's studies or the standards published by the associations founded after his death are carefully examined, the principles both have in common, and that have been used as the base of qualitative analysis in this research, can be summarized as follows (Atuf, 1929; Bakır, 2011; Bal, 1991; Dewey, 2007; Dewey, 2010; Gutek, 2006; Kısakürek, 1982; Little, 2013; Martin, 2002; McNichols, 1935; Norris, 2004; O'Grady, 2011; Sönmez, 2008):

1. *Student-centered education*: Students should be the center of education, and curricula should be prepared in accordance with their interests, abilities, and requirements. Multidirectional and multifunctional programs should be applied instead of monotype programs.
2. *Democratic education*: While discipline was a priority in the traditional education system, freedom is emphasized in the progressive education system. Thus, the school and classroom environment should be democratic, and students' freedom should be increased as much as possible to facilitate this.
3. *Problem-solving methods and practical education*: Education dependent on books and based on memorization and knowledge acquired from books is forgotten in a short span of time. However, practical education (learning by doing and living) is both permanent and entertaining. Problem-solving methods should be used in the lessons. Thanks to this method, students can both use their knowledge in daily life and experience permanent learning.
4. *Counseling/Guidance duty for teachers*: The teacher's mission is to guide students, not to just transmit information. Learning activities should be performed according to a plan prepared jointly by the teacher and students, and the teacher should not be in a position to impose knowledge on students. The teacher should present different choices to students and emphasize that they can choose which choice they want.
5. *Participation in society and the integration of school and life*: The function of school should not be to prepare students for life; rather, school should be life itself. All the facts and events of daily life should be integrated into the educational environment, or students should be exposed to these. One of the basic functions of education is providing students with opportunities to participate in society.
6. *School and family collaboration*: It is not possible to leave families out of the education process. Thus, school and family collaboration is needed at every phase of the process. Teachers play the most important and critical role in providing and developing school-family collaboration.
7. *Cooperative learning*: In the school environment, there should be cooperation instead of competition. Social purposes are as important as intellectual purposes in the school environment. Cooperative learning is the best way to achieve social goals.

Turkey was first introduced to the progressive education movement in 1924, the year Dewey came to Turkey, as mentioned previously (Akkutay, 1996; Ata, 2000; Bal, 1991; Kirby, 2010; Özsoy, 2009). Dewey first visited China before coming to Turkey, and visited locales including Mexico (1926), Russia (1928), and North Africa (1934) after visiting Turkey (Ching & Wang, 2007; Dalton, 2002; Martin, 2002). Dewey stayed in Turkey for two months, and during that time, he visited schools

and examined the Turkish education system. Dewey presented his impressions and suggestions in two reports to the ministry. The first was a preliminary report that he prepared while he was in Turkey, and the second was the basic report that he prepared after returning to the U.S. (Akkutay, 1996; Bal, 1991; Başgöz & Wilson, 1968).

Dewey's visit to Turkey can be considered a milestone of the Turkish education system. After his visit, numerous specialists from either Europe or the U.S. were invited to Turkey. American specialists who were invited to Turkey between 1924 and 1950 greatly outnumbered those from other countries (Akyüz, 1999; Şahin, 1996). The Ministry of National Education published the reports of some of the foreign specialists who visited Turkey between 1924 and 1950; Akyüz (1999) estimates that the number of such published reports is 15. Most of these (12 reports) came from American specialists. It is known that the progressive education movement was adopted and practiced in the U.S. in the period between 1924 and 1960, when these specialists had visited Turkey (Berube & Berube, 2007; Norris, 2004; Puckett & Diffily, 2004). Therefore, it is important to analyze the reports by Dewey and other American educators who visited Turkey in terms of progressive education principles. This analysis is considered important for answering many questions about how progressive education became established in Turkey.

Method

Research Model

This research takes the form of a historical research/historical case study because its aim is to analyze Dewey's reports and those of other American educators who had visited Turkey. In historical research, as is well known, documents from the period examined are analyzed carefully in order to answer this question of what happened in the past (Büyüköztürk, Kılıç Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz & Demirel, 2010; Merriam, 2013). Therefore, the technique of document analysis (documentary scanning) has been applied. Because the document analysis technique is frequently used in historical research, old and current documents can be used as the focus of research on their own (Punch, 2005; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011).

Sample

In this study, *criterion sampling* is the chosen method of sampling. In this sampling method, the units that provide the determined criterion of the sample are applied to the sample (Büyüköztürk and others, 2010). To determine the sample of this study, the reports that were prepared by American specialists and published by the Ministry of National Education were used as the criteria. Since all of these reports were published as books by the ministry, they qualify as original and primary sources.

The reports that have been examined and analyzed within the context of this study are as follows:

- J. Dewey (1924), "*Türkiye Maarifi Hakkında Rapor*"
- B. Parker (1934), "*Türkiye'de İlk Tahsil Hakkında Rapor*"
- The committee under the presidency of E. Walter Kemmerer (1933–1934), "*Amerikan Heyeti Raporundan: Maarif İşleri*"
- W. Dickerman (1951), "*Türkiye'de Halk Eğitimi Hakkında Rapor*"
- J. Rufi (1951), "*Türkiye'de Orta Öğretim Müşahedeler, Problemler ve Tavsiyeler*"
- R. J. Maaske (1953), "*Türkiye'de Öğretmen Yetiştirme Hakkında Rapor*"
- M. Costat (1955), "*Türkiye'de Meslek Okulları Hakkında Rapor*"

Two periods were considered in this study. The first period includes the years between 1923 and 1938. This period can be called the *Atatürk Period*. The second period includes the years between

1950 and 1960, when the Democratic Party was in power. The main reason for distinguishing these periods is to describe their differences by comparing them with each other.

Data Analysis

Yıldırım & Şimşek (2011) state that data analysis has four phases: choosing a sample, developing categories, choosing the unit of analysis, and digitizing. The analysis process carried out according to these phases is as follows:

- a. *Choosing sample from data that is the subject of analysis:* The reports were examined as previously described, and seven of them were chosen according to the criterion sampling method.
- b. *Determining the categories/themes:* In this research, the fundamental principles of progressive education were selected as the category/theme. These were based on the common principles noted by all researchers in their studies. To determine these, a deep literature search was conducted.
- c. *Determining the units of analysis:* The sentences and the paragraphs in the reports were chosen as the units of analysis. When needed, even the words and phrases were chosen. The selected paragraphs, sentences, and words were analyzed under the relevant category/theme.
- d. *Digitizing:* Yıldırım and Şimşek (2011) state that it is not absolutely necessary to digitize the data acquired from the documents, and they point out that it is researcher's choice. In this research, tally keeping was preferred over digitizing and the common themes related to principles of progressive education were shown by keeping a tally.

Validity and Reliability

Measures taken to increase the validity and reliability of the research are as follows:

- a. To increase the internal validity (credibility) of the research, expert review was used: an evaluating meeting was held with an academic who is an expert in the history of education. In this meeting, the seven reports to be used in the research were roughly reviewed, and the decision was made to conduct the analysis in accordance with the basic principles of progressive education.
- b. Detailed description was used to increase the external validity (transmissibility) of the research: the reports were analyzed in detail from the perspective of fundamental principles of progressive education. This analysis aimed to be loyal to the original data as much as possible.
- c. To increase the internal reliability (consistency) of the research, consistency analysis was used. This involved a second analysis conducted approximately three months later than the first one and a check of the consistency between these two analyses. A 90% consistency was found between the two analyses.
- d. To increase the external reliability (confirmability) of the research, confirmation analysis was used. This involved confirmation from an academic with an expertise in the history of education. The expert checked if the codification based on the reports matched the results found in the research process. The expert found a 95% match. Efforts were made to correct the mistakes found by this analysis.

Findings and Discussion

This section sets forth the findings resulting from this analysis, presented according to the seven basic principles of progressive education.

Student-Centered Education

Table 1. Foreign Specialists’ Opinions and Suggestions for Student-Centered Education

Opinion/Suggestion	Foreign Specialist						
	1923–1938			1950–1960			
	Dewey	Parker	A. Hey.	Dicker.	Rufi	Maaske	Costat
Individual differences should be considered	*	*	*		*	*	*
School building and the equipments should be appropriate for students	*	*	*		*	*	*
Similar lessons should be united and relations within/between the lessons should be increased	*	*			*	*	*
Extracurricular activities should be included and their numbers should be increased	*	*			*	*	*
Curriculums should be flexible and they should be adjusted for students	*	*			*	*	*
Different schools/curriculums should be established according to students’ talents	*		*		*		*
Measures should be taken to keep students’ physical and psychological health	*	*			*	*	
Teacher-centered education should be abandoned		*			*	*	
Students should be active, not passive in the class		*			*	*	
Total	7	8	3	-	9	8	6

Table 1 shows that all the specialists except Dickerman touched on *student-centered education*, one of the basic principles of progressive education. Since Dickerman’s report was public-education-oriented, he did not express an opinion about students. Opinions and suggestions about this principle are similar in the periods from 1923–1938 to 1950–1960. The most important suggestions about this principle were considering individual differences and organizing school buildings and equipment in a suitable way for students. Rufi (1956: p. 19) referred to the importance of individual differences in his report as follows: “...a well managed school should consider each student as an individual... with a character and personality unique to him/herself.” The specialists also gave important advice such as developing flexible curricula, grouping similar lessons, increasing relationships within/between lessons, and striving for a learner-centered approach.

Democratic Education

Table 2. Foreign Specialists’ Opinions and Suggestions for Democratic Education

Opinion/Suggestion	Foreign Specialist						
	1923–1938			1950–1960			
	Dewey	Parker	A. Hey.	Dicker.	Rufi	Maaske	Costat
Education should be organized in a democratic way		*		*	*	*	
Independent thinking and participation should be encouraged	*			*	*	*	
Students should be given a chance to choose (school and lesson)		*			*	*	*
Students should be given tasks	*	*				*	
Students should take part in school management	*				*	*	
School and class climate should not be formal		*			*		
Total	3	4	-	2	5	5	1

Table 2 shows that Rufi and Maaske made the most suggestions for democratic education. However, the report of American Committee had no suggestions relating to this principle. When the table is analyzed by period, the emphasis on democratic education from 1950–1960 turns out to be far greater than it was in 1923–1938. The most important suggestions were organizing education in a democratic way, encouraging independent thinking, and giving students the opportunity to choose their schools and lessons. In addition, they also suggested providing students with opportunities to participate in school management and giving them tasks that they are able to do. Parker (1939:35) noted with disapproval, “The climate that the classrooms have is very formal.” He also criticized the learning environment: “Because the teacher dominates the class completely, the student becomes a passive echo of the teacher’s words and wishes.”

Problem-Solving Methods and Practical Education (Learning by Doing and Living)

Table 3. Foreign Specialists’ Opinions and Suggestions for Problem-Solving Methods and Practical Education

Opinion/Suggestion	Foreign Specialist						
	1923–1938			1950–1960			
	Dewey	Parker	A. Hey.	Dicker.	Rufi	Maaske	Costat
Importance should be given to practice in teaching activities	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Academic education in Turkish schools should be ceased	*	*	*		*	*	*
Disharmony between theory and practice should be cleared	*	*	*		*	*	*
Students should learn by doing and living	*	*	*		*	*	*
Problem-solving skill should be gained to students	*	*					
Total	5	5	4	1	4	4	4

Table 3 shows that the specialists shared common suggestions for practical education. Dickerman proposed the fewest suggestions. The specialists repeatedly observed that education in Turkish schools is academic and highly theoretical. In addition, they also noted a disharmony between theory and practice and recommended that more emphasis be given to practice. In his report, Ruffi (1959: 16) stated that education in Turkey “had become completely bookish and formal, which did not allow students to learn by doing and living.” Dewey and Parker suggested that students should thus acquire problem-solving skills.

Teacher Responsibility for Counseling and Guidance

Table 4. Foreign Specialists’ Opinions and Suggestions on Teacher Responsibility for Counseling and Guidance

Opinion/Suggestion	Foreign Specialist						
	1923–1938			1950–1960			
	Dewey	Parker	A. Hey.	Dicker.	Ruffi	Maaske	Costat
Teacher should be the one who does not merely transforms information, but guides students	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Teacher should bring out and develop the talents and interests	*	*			*	*	*
Teacher should guide not only the students but also the community	*		*	*			
Guidance service should be increased in the schools					*	*	
Principals and education supervisors should guide the teachers						*	
Total	3	2	2	2	3	4	1

Table 4 shows that Maaske made the most suggestions about teachers’ counseling duties. The most important suggestion was that the teacher should not just transmit information but guide students. The specialists also stated that a teacher in a counseling position should know students well. Ruffi (1956: 19) argued “...a well managed school should consider each student as an individual with a character and personality unique to him/herself and as a person who has a right of development under counseling that protects the well being of the student and society.” Other suggestions were predominantly aimed at counseling services carried out in the schools.

Participation in Society and the Integration of School and Life

Table 5. Foreign Specialists' Opinions and Suggestions on Participation in Society and the Integration of School and Life

Opinion/Suggestion	Foreign Specialist						
	1923–1938			1950–1960			
	Dewey	Parker	A. Hey.	Dicker.	Rufi	Maaske	Costat
School-environment relationships should be established and course subjects should be chosen from immediate surrounding	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Curriculums should be flexible and should be adjusted to the conditions of immediate surrounding	*	*	*		*	*	*
A relation between the lessons and life should be established and the school should be the life itself	*	*	*		*	*	
Students should be provided with out-of-class experiences	*	*			*	*	*
Schools and curriculums that are suitable for requirements of society should be established	*		*		*	*	*
Schools should be accessible to public	*		*	*	*		
Total	6	4	5	2	6	5	4

Table 5 shows that the specialists' suggestions on student participation in society and integrating school and life were largely similar. All specialists agreed on the importance of establishing a relationship between the school and its surrounding community and choosing course subjects relevant to the local environment. The specialists also suggested developing flexible curricula that can be adjusted to the conditions of the local environment. Other suggestions included cultivating connections between lessons and life, establishing schools and curricula aimed at the requirements of society, and providing students with experiences outside the classroom. Parker (1939: 10) argued for the necessity of out-of-classroom experiences: "It is useful for true training to shorten the time spent in the classroom, to lengthen the time spent for life experiences acquired at outdoors."

School–Family Collaboration

Table 6. Foreign Specialists’ Opinions and Suggestions on School–Family Collaboration

Opinion/Suggestion	Foreign Specialist						
	1923–1938			1950–1960			
	Dewey	Parker	A. Hey.	Dicker.	Rufi	Maaske	Costat
Studies about school–family collaboration should be done	*	*			*	*	*
Students’ guardians should be invited to the schools			*		*		
Family/home life of the students should be known					*		*
Total	1	1	1	-	3	1	2

Table 6 shows that the specialists’ opinions and suggestions about school–family collaboration were limited. Rufi and Costat made the most suggestions about this issue. The most pivotal of these suggestions was increasing the number of studies on school–family collaboration. Costat (1956: 20) noted, “A teacher has responsibility for establishing relationships with families in each class.” Inviting students’ guardians to visit the school and becoming familiar with students’ family lives were among the other suggestions.

Cooperative Learning

Table 7. Foreign Specialists’ Opinions and Suggestions on Cooperative Learning

Opinion/Suggestion	Foreign Specialist						
	1923–1938			1950–1960			
	Dewey	Parker	A. Hey.	Dicker.	Rufi	Maaske	Costat
Students should be divided into small groups		*			*		*
Students should be given small group activities		*			*		*
School and classrooms should be organized appropriately for group work					*		
Total	-	2	-	-	3	-	2

Table 7 shows that the specialists made the fewest suggestions about cooperative learning. Only Parker, Rufi, and Costat made suggestions. No suggestions about this principle appeared in other specialists’ reports. The most important suggestions were forming small groups within classes and giving these groups common activities. Parker (1939: 19) noted “...it is required to begin examining certain scientific methods, such as dividing students into groups, within a system and adjusting them to school matters.” Rufi first made the suggestion to orient schools and classrooms around group work.

Discussion

When Dewey came to Turkey in 1924, many discussions appeared both in the press and in academia (Ata, 2010). These discussions still continue today. When Dewey's essays are analyzed, the discussion appears to focus only on Dewey. A majority of researchers agree that progressive education in Turkey began with Dewey's visit (Keskin, 2011; Laçın Şimşek & Şimşek, 2010). There has not been any satisfactory information about the introduction and establishment of progressive education in Turkey. Since Dewey could not have achieved this change single-handedly, it is necessary to view this phenomena as a process.

After Dewey's visit, many foreign educators were invited to Turkey, and some of them prepared detailed reports on the Turkish education system. Most of these were from U.S. (Akkutay, 1996; Akyüz, 1999; Başgöz & Wilson, 1968). The American specialists' reports clearly influenced the establishment of progressive education in Turkey. Until now, there have been no studies that have explicitly examined this influence. This research analyzed seven reports, including Dewey's. The analysis was made in accordance with the seven principles of the progressive education movement. These principles are student-centered education, democratic education, problem solving methods and practical education, teacher responsibility for counseling, participation in society and the integration of school and life, school and family collaboration, and cooperative learning.

The specialists made numerous suggestions for student-centered education, which is one of the most significant principles of progressive education. These suggestions remained unchanged in both periods analyzed in this study (1923–1938 and 1950–1960). Therefore, it can be said that change was limited in student-centered education. The specialists' emphasis on student-centered education, especially between 1950 and 1960, is explicit evidence of this consistency in views. Analysis of research on Turkish curricula from past to present found that they conformed to this principle to a large extent (Akyüz, 1999; Binbaşıoğlu, 1999; Güngördü & Güngördü, 1966; Keskin, 2002). However, teacher-centered and subject-centered models remained in practice for many years. In present-day Turkey, both curricula and learning environments have become relatively more student-centered.

Democratic education is one of the most important principles of progressive education, and the specialists suggested organizing educational environments in a democratic way. The number of suggestions about democratic education was greater between 1950 and 1960 than in the earlier period. The 1950s covered a time when Turkey had a multiparty system, and the Democratic Party government had developed a close relationship with the U.S. that included numerous bilateral agreements made in secret (Sakaoğlu, 1992). An explicit example of Turkish–American ties of that era is the fact that most of the specialists who visited Turkey after 1950 were American (Keskin, 2012). The increase in the number of specialists' suggestions about democratic education can be considered consistent with the conditions of that period.

The specialists made similar suggestions about learning by doing living and practical education. These suggestions were quite similar in both time periods. The most significant finding was that education in Turkish schools was academic and highly theoretical. The specialists suggested that attention be focused on applied courses instead. Unfortunately, the traditional practices were deeply entrenched in the Turkish education system (Doğan, 1983; Keskin, 2012) and have not yet been completely updated.

The specialists' suggestions on the counseling responsibilities of teachers, school and family collaboration, and cooperative learning were limited in comparison to their other suggestions. They emphasized that teachers should guide students rather than simply transmit information. Teacher-centered education, which had been practiced in Turkish schools for many years, prevented implementation of this principle. The specialists also suggested increasing the number of studies on school–family collaboration and cooperative learning. The progressive principles in the specialists' reports are largely similar, and suggest that they performed a planned study. The most explicit

evidence for this is the specialists' references to each another. References to Dewey were also made in all the reports analyzed. The similarity of the specialists' opinions also point to a common effort.

Some of the suggestions on progressive education in the reports were put into practice immediately, while implementation of some was delayed, and yet others have only recently been put into practice. Until quite recently, some of the specialists' critiques remained valid; these have been addressed in recent years, showing that the specialists' findings remain relevant.

Progressive education is one of the most widely discussed of educational movements, and continues to be a subject of discussion even today. The aim of this research was not to reiterate these discussions again. While this discussion was at its peak, American specialists were trying to establish a progressive education movement in Turkey and theoretical changes (curricula, laws, and legislations) were made in those years. Obstacles to the implementation of this movement were removed over time and the Turkish education system has currently achieved a progressive orientation. Thus, the American educators' reports have had a significant influence on introduction and establishment of progressive education in Turkey.

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The Role of Policy in the Development of Special Education

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Abstract

In terms of the number of students served and the overall quality of special education services provided, it is clear that special education has, from its early beginnings in the late seventeenth century, advanced at various rates in the different countries of the world. Data from the United States Department of Education (2007) indicates that 12% of the school age population (6-17 year olds) in the nation are children with disabilities in special education. Kenya's population of students with disabilities in the schools now stands a little over 221,995 (Ministry of Education, 2008) in a country where 25% of the estimated 3.2 million people with disabilities are school age children. This paper provides a comparative overview of the role of government policy in the progress of special education in both the United States of America and in Kenya with the aim of emphasizing the role of comprehensive policy, follow-through, oversight, and accountability to achieve targeted results in the field of special education in Kenya.

Key Words: Special education, educational policy, comprehensive policy development

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Introduction

Literature indicates that the first schools and programs for individuals with disabilities were not as a result of any established goals of the country in this regard but rather a result of the combined and independent efforts of religious and secular organizations (Ministry of Education, 1981). Some of these schools were established to provide custodial care for older individuals with disabilities while others were meant to rehabilitate injured second-world-war soldiers (Cherono, 2003& Kiarie, 2004; Ndurumo, 1993). By 1963, these early efforts had yielded three schools for individuals with hearing loss, a school for individuals with visual impairments and another for those with intellectual disabilities, a special needs school and the Aga Khan Special School, both of which served individuals with different types of disabilities.

The Kenya National Special Needs Policy Framework of 2009

The various policy guidelines from task forces, commissions and other forms of inquiry into special education, along with the accompanying follow through activities propelled the country forward in this field. However, these various policy guidelines and effort on special education in Kenya culminated in a comprehensive policy on special education in the country. Kenya's Ministry of Education, after taking stock of the status of special education in the country, passed the National Special Needs Education Policy Framework in 2009, a measure that portends possible unprecedented progress in the field of special education in the country. This policy identifies a number of areas of concern that the government of Kenya through the country's Ministry of Education and other stakeholders target for growth, articulates objectives in each of these areas and delineates planned strategies for use in meeting these objectives.

However, this Policy Framework has only been in effect since 2009 and is due for review to determine its effectiveness along with any quarks. The development of special needs education in Kenya has been guided by policy guidelines and goals and objectives which have resulted from various education commissions, needs analysis groups, committees and taskforces. These guidelines have been articulated in government circulars and other documents. It is therefore imperative to review these various sources of policy guidelines on special education in Kenya to appreciate their contribution to the development of the field.

Special education guidelines, goals, and objectives from Education Commissions, Committees, and Taskforces

As mentioned earlier, until recently, Kenya's early guidelines on education of students with disabilities could be derived from various documents and circulars resulting from parliamentary sitting sessions, education commissions and task forces. Kenya attained independence from the British in 1963 and since then the government has made education of its children and youth a priority. A year after independence, the government formed an Education Commission to look into the national educational policies with the aim of ensuring the building of a national identity and cohesion through these policies. This group, the Ominde Education Commission, also investigated the state of individuals with disabilities in Kenya and summarized its report on this area in a document titled *Care and Rehabilitation of the Disabled* (Republic of Kenya, 1964) thus bringing education of this population to the forefront as another national concern. In this regard, the Education Commission made several observations and recommendations. First, the commission articulated its recognition of the psychological and emotional problems that children with disabilities face as a result of their condition and underscored the need for special education and training for all students with disabilities despite the level of severity. The commission went on to recommend that teacher colleges acquaint teacher candidates with the effects of disability on both the intellectual and academic development of children. With regard to educational environment, the commission indicated that students with mild disabilities, as long as they were provided with the necessary supports, they were capable of receiving education and training in regular schools alongside typically developing students (Republic of Kenya, 1964).

Further direction in special education in Kenya resulted from Sessional Paper number 5 of the Kenya Parliament of 1968 (cited in Ndurumo, 1993). Both the "Inspectorate" and the "Directorate" sections of the Ministry of Education, a Special Education Curriculum Development Unit at the Kenya Institute of Education (K.I.E), and the Kenya Institute of Special Education (K.I.S.E) were established around this period. The Inspectorate and Directorate branches of the K.I.E were each responsible for certain areas although they were to work closely and alongside other ministries and governmental and nongovernmental organizations in providing services to individuals with disabilities. Responsibility for the management of special education programs in the country along with matters of financing, supervision and policy was placed in the hands of the Inspectorate. The Directorate maintained responsibility for the in-servicing of teachers for students with disabilities, curriculum implementation, and maintenance of special education standards (Cherono, 2003). A long with the Special Education Curriculum Development Unit at the Kenya Institute of Education (K.I.E), a milestone was reached in the development of special education in Kenya with the establishment of the Kenya Institute of Special Education (K.I.S.E) in the 1980's.

Apart from the results of Sessional Paper Number 5 of the Kenya Parliament, the government also formulated specific goals regarding the education of students with disabilities which were articulated in the Ministry of Education report of 1976, the Gachathi report (Republic of Kenya, 1976). According to this report, in implementing special education, the government aimed to provide educational and other services to students with disabilities, to foster inclusion of students with disabilities in regular schools as much as possible, to create awareness of disability issues in order to garner national and international support for special education programs and projects, to meet the needs of students with more severe disabilities by establishing residential programs, and to add specialized services to existing local schools in order to meet the needs of students with disabilities in those schools. Through provision of specialized education and social, cultural, and vocational training, education of students with disabilities aimed at overcoming the effect of disability by enabling these individuals to take their place in society as full and useful members able to become self-sufficient individuals contributing to the development of the nation. These goals are very similar to the goals that the United States Congress articulated when it passed IDEA in 1975. To foster the possibility of the attainment of these goals in Kenya, the education commission highlighted the need to create awareness and concern among the public for the urgent need to establish and expand special education programs.

Special education encountered growth in terms of more schools, units, and programs for children with disabilities in addition to higher enrollments in the programs. By 1986, there was a total of 16 programs for students with visual impairments with a total enrollment of 1568 students with visual impairments (Ministry of Education, 1987) and 52 programs for individuals with intellectual disabilities consisting of 17 schools, 30 units, three prevocational schools, and a sheltered workshop. The total number of programs for students with hearing impairments in 1986 was 26 with a total enrollment of 2,156 (Kenya Society for Deaf Children, 1987). By the same year, there were 10 programs for students with physical handicaps with a total enrollment of 1400. Alongside this, training for teachers of students with hearing, visual and intellectual disabilities became centralized at the Kenya Institute of Special Education (K.I.S.E) and a training program for teachers of students with physical disabilities was also established at the Institute, which, apart from serving as a centralized location for the training of teachers of students with various types of disabilities, organized a model assessment center and a nursery school for students with disabilities. The institute also operated as a center for the production and repair of teaching materials and aids for individuals with disabilities. K.I.S.E became a resource center for production and dissemination of information about disabilities to the general public and periodically organized in-service training for personnel in education and those in other ministries working with individuals with disabilities (Kiarie, 2004; Kenya Institute of Special Education, N.D).

Cognizant of the benefits of child identification for the benefit of early intervention and other services, the government initiated centers for assessment of children with disabilities called Educational Assessment Resource Centers (EARC) (Ministry of Basic Education, 1981) and by 1988,

28,000 children had been assessed for and identified for services in one of the 40 assessment centers in operation. Short-term courses and other activities for parents and other stakeholders were and continue to be conducted in these centers which also integrate children with disabilities in special schools, establish special units in regular schools, establish “small homes” for integrated students with physical disabilities, refer children for medical examinations, provide equipment needed by students with disabilities, run seminars for teachers, administrators, health professionals and social workers, and collect information on students with disabilities for special education planning and research. Apart from assessing children in special classes and assisting teachers in effectively planning their teaching, the EARCs also identify, at an early age, the appropriate placement for individual students and assist parents of younger children with disabilities through home visits and guidance at the centers.

More input into policy guidelines for special education in Kenya came from a number of education commissions and task forces. The Kamunge Report (1988), a result of the Presidential Working Committee on Education and Training for this Decade and Beyond recommended that special needs education inspectors be deployed in the districts. Ten years later, the Dr. Koech report, a result of the Totally Integrated Quality Education and Training Task force, recommended that a special needs advisory board be established and noted the necessity for a comprehensive special needs education policy in the country to guide the activities of this sector.

Another task force, the Dr. Kochung Task force (2003) was set up by the government to investigate and report on the status of special education in the country. In its report, this commission recommended that teachers for the special needs population be trained and those in the field be in-serviced, that funding be provided for determination of and intervention with the early prevalence of disability among school age children and youth, and that special education schools be made barrier free to facilitate access in the physical environments of learning by students with disabilities. Two other documents, Sessional Paper Number 1 of 2005 and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006), emphasized special education and the right for students with disabilities to attend schools of their choice. These recommendations resulted in varying degrees to government action on the education of students with disabilities in the country. More boost to the course of education for students with disabilities in Kenya has come from the passage of the Persons with Disabilities Act (2003), the declaration of Free Primary Education (2003), declaration of Education For All (2003), the passage of the Children Act (2003), and the various global frameworks in education that the government has been party to. These include the Universal declaration of human rights (1948), the United Nations Conventions on the Rights of the Child (1989), the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990), the Salamanca Statement of 1994, and the Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (1999) (Mwangi, 2013).

The guidelines, goals and objectives posited, along with follow through activities conducted with regard to the education of students with disabilities in Kenya geared towards achieving the goals and objectives stipulated in the various documents addressing special education in the nation have certainly born results. Although data is not consistent on the exact number of students enrolled or the number of special schools and units existing in the country (Cherono 2003; Muuya, 2002; & Kiarie 2007), the information available shows that the field of special education in Kenya continues to grow. Data from the government’s Ministry of Education (2008) shows an increase of 123,111 in the number of students receiving special education in Kenya from 84,650 in 2002 to 207,761 in 2007. The number of those receiving special education services in the country increased to 221,995 in 2008. The number of special education institutions in the country increased from 926 in 2002 to 1579 in 2008. More recent data indicates that 3,464 special needs institutions exist in the country, 54.1 % of which are in primary education, 38.2 % in Early Childhood Development Education (ECDE), 3.4 % in Non-formal Education Institutions, and 4.3 % in secondary education. Of these, 2,713 are integrated institutions while 751 are special schools (Kenya MOE & MOEST, 2012).

The above numbers, though impressive, when placed in the context of the estimated prevalence of disability in children and youth in the country, create a rather dismal picture. While the World Health Organization (2006) notes that about 10% of the population of Kenya are people living

with a disability, the UNESCO report on education (2006/2007) notes that about 25% of the estimated 3 million Kenyans with disabilities are school age children, a statistic that shows that a majority of school age children with disabilities in Kenya are not receiving educational services at all. Factors such as problems with the identification of children with disabilities, shortage of teachers and support staff for the special needs population, and grossly inadequate funding, among others, are to blame for the low rate of participation of students with disabilities in education in the country (Wanyama, 2012).

The National Policy Goals and Policy Objectives

Fortunately, the Kenya National Special Needs Education Policy Framework targets many of the above factors as areas in need of improvement. The policy identifies plans to improve access to the educational environment and curriculum for students with disabilities in Kenya. It targets for improvement the areas of assessment, identification, and early intervention along with provision of specialized facilities and technology. In this policy, the government articulates its plans with regard to improving special education in the areas of personnel training, advocacy and creating awareness of disability issues, facilitating inclusive education and curriculum development as pertains to students with disabilities. Due to this policy, there is continued activity on the part of the Ministry of Education in order to achieve its various objectives with regard to the education of students with disabilities in the country. For example, recognizing the need for more government financing of education for students with disabilities, the Ministry of Education recently recommended increased government funding for this sector. The funding is to go towards development and procurement of specialized instructional materials and equipment and meet the needs of the country's Institute of Special Education, among other uses.

The future for special education in Kenya looks bright. With the passage of the National Special Needs Education Policy Framework, the activities of the advocacy and parent organizations for individuals with disabilities in the country, volunteer activities of individuals and groups, and the new Constitution (Government of Kenya, 2010) with its various articles on education, one can safely expect further progress in special education in Kenya. The Constitution of the country provides for free and compulsory basic education as a human and social-economic right for every Kenyan child, recognizes the right to an education for minorities and marginalized groups, and requires that the government take measures to ensure that the youth access relevant education and training, all activities geared to boost enrolment for students with disabilities.

As discussed below, in contrast to the Kenya situation, the case of the development of special education in the United States underscores the importance of comprehensive policy along with follow through activities to advance the field of special education. The comprehensive special education policy of the United States stands in stark contrast to the fragmented guidelines, goals and objectives that have guided special education in Kenya for so long in the absence of a comprehensive policy.

Special Education Policy in the United States

In spite of the many criticisms leveled against special education in the United States (e.g., Berman, Davis, Kauffman-Frederick & Urion, 2001; Finn, Rotherham, & Hokanson, 2001; Lyon, Fletcher, Shaywitz, Torgesen, Wood, Schulte & Olson, 2001; & Townsend & Patton, 2001), the advances in results experienced by children with disabilities and their parents testify to the progress the country has made in the field of special education so far. Policy on special education in the United States of America has emerged partly from litigative activity, judicial rulings, and federal legislative action. In the United States, policy on special education is articulated in the landmark act, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), formerly the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EHCA), enacted in 1975 and reauthorized every couple of years. It is the six principles of the IDEA that guide, guard, and go a long way in guaranteeing education for every student with a disability in the country. A brief examination of the state of education for students with disabilities in the United States prior to the enactment of this landmark law is imperative to clarify its role and necessity.

Background to the EHCA 1975

In the United States, efforts to educate students with disabilities have a long history. However, in the 1950s and 1960's, there was a step up of activity in this area. In this period, family and professional associations advocated for the rights of children with disabilities in response to which the government took various actions. The government allocated funds to professionals to develop methods to work with children with disabilities. In addition, the federal government passed legislation that supported the development and implementation of programs and services to meet the needs of these children and their families. Two laws, PL 85-926 (1958), the National Defense Act, and PL 86-158 (1959) provided training for teachers and other professionals who worked with students with mental retardation while PL 87-276, the Special Education Act of 1961 provided training of teachers and professionals for the deaf and hard of hearing. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act, PL 89-10, and the Amendment to title 1 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, PL 89-313, funded states' education for children with disabilities while the Handicapped Children's Early Education Assistance Act of 1968 (PL 90-538) provided funds for early childhood intervention for children with disabilities (Heward, 2009; Martin, Martin, & Terman, 1996; Jimenez & Graf, 2008).

In spite of the foregoing activity in the field of education for children and youth with disabilities, literature reveals that prior to EHCA of 1975 about one million children with disabilities in the United States were not receiving educational services at all (Alper & Ryndak, 2002). Some were deemed unable to benefit from an education and therefore denied the opportunity to receive it. Murdick, Garin, and Crabtree (2006) note that before the 1970's, laws in many states permitted public schools to deny enrollment to children with disabilities. The few students with disabilities served, more often than not, received inappropriate services in environments that were restrictive and usually at their parents expense. This situation was disrupted by, among other factors, the civil rights movement, society's advancement in its understanding of the concepts of equality, freedom, and justice, the spread of the ideas of democracy, individual freedom, and egalitarianism across America and Europe, and the changing perceptions and attitudes about individuals with disabilities (Gargiulo 2010; Hallahan & Kauffman, 2012; & Heward 2009). These factors facilitated an environment that resulted in court cases in the area of education of students with disabilities, geared towards safeguarding the right to education and fair treatment for this population. An examination of the litigation on education for students with disabilities during this period shows that a number of lawsuits brought before the courts involved exclusion, misclassification, and discrimination against them. While some children and youth with disabilities were outright excluded from a free appropriate public education, an act that was usually supported by courts in this period, others were classified as having disabilities when they did not have them while other children were misdiagnosed and misclassified. All these practices violated the students' right to an education under the United States Constitution and motivated advocacy for change.

One of the earliest lawsuits that resulted in a judicial ruling that impacted education of students with disabilities in the United States is the anti-racial segregation case, *Brown vs Board of Education, Topeka Kansas*, in 1954 (Hardman, Drew, & Egan, 2005; Patterson, 2001; Wilson, 1995). In this case, the Supreme court ruled that schools may not segregate or discriminate by race, hence renouncing the "separate but equal" practice of the day with regard to educational services for minority and Caucasian students. Seizing upon the ruling of this case and its implication on the practice of segregation in the provision of educational services to children from diverse racial backgrounds, advocates, parents, and civil rights lawyers for students with disabilities argued against segregation and denial of appropriate public educational services for students with disabilities. Just as the court ruled it unacceptable to segregate students on the basis of race, they argued, it was equally unacceptable to segregate against students on the basis of any other factor. In the period 1960 through the 1970's, this line of thinking resulted in several court cases and rulings that helped the course of education for students with disabilities. Among these court cases were the *Mills vs Washington DC Board of Education* in 1972 and the *Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Citizens (PARC) vs Commonwealth of Pennsylvania* in 1971 (Hallahan, Drew, & Egan, 2005). The later challenged a state law that denied public school education to certain children deemed unable to profit from a public

school education. As a result of these two court cases, the courts ordered the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania and the District of Columbia to provide a free appropriate public education to all students with disabilities, educate students with disabilities in the same schools as students without disabilities, and put into place certain procedural safeguards so that parents of students with disabilities could challenge schools that did not live up to the court's orders. Every child 3 and over with a disability had to have an Individualized Education Program (IEP), a document detailing the appropriate education for that child and containing, among other information, specific educational goals for the child along with the time line for meeting those goals (Hardman, et.al.,2005).

A detailed review of the many court cases and court rulings that positively impacted the progress of education of students with disabilities in the United States during this period is beyond the scope of this article. Suffice it to say that the rulings in *PARC vs Commonwealth of Pennsylvania* and *Mills vs Washington DC, Board of Education*, among others, contributed to the birth of policy on education for this population in the country. The rulings in these two court cases influenced the federal legislation, Education for all Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142) so much that the same language was used in the principles articulated in it. Through this Act, the efforts of parents, professionals, and organizations for people with disabilities were finally rewarded with the enactment of a federal legislation and funds that would guarantee students' rights to an education and help states finance the same.

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (1990)

The EHCA, later renamed the IDEA, and most recently reauthorized in 2004 as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act, encompasses the policy on education of students with disabilities in the United States. This legislation has guided the practice, process and progress of education for this population in the country for the last nearly four decades. The IDEA, more recently, the IDEIA but more commonly (as in this paper), referred to as the IDEA, is anchored on the six principles of zero reject, parent and student participation, nondiscriminatory evaluation, appropriate education, procedural due process, and least restrictive environment. Adherence to these principles ensures no student with disabilities, however significant their disability, is denied an appropriate education at public expense in the least restrictive environment; that assessment to determine eligibility for special education services is conducted in an appropriate manner that is free of discrimination; that parents and students can participate in the educational process and that they have avenues to resolve problems with service providers as necessary. With the implementation of IDEA's zero reject, the number of students with disabilities receiving educational services in the United States increased from 4.5% of all children enrolled in school in the school year 1976-1977 to 7.7% in the 1993-1994 school year, a 45% increase in the special education population (Lewit & Baker, 1996). Data from the United States Department of Education (2007) indicates that 12% of the school age population (6-17) in the nation are children with disabilities in special education and that the number of students receiving special education services in the nation has risen from 3485088 in 1976 to 6598853 in 2010, an increase of an overwhelming 89% (U.S Department of Education, 2010). Due to its principle of least restrictive environment which requires that students with disabilities be educated with those without disabilities to the maximum extent appropriate, many students with disabilities are included in regular education classrooms because the IEP, the guarantee of an appropriate education for the child with a disability, provides the members with an opportunity to assess the feasibility of a general education environment to meet the educational program of each child with a disability before they consider a more restrictive environment. Thus, this policy provides that students with disability are educated in as "normal" an environment as possible. Currently, over 50% of all students with disabilities in the United States are educated in regular education classrooms 80-100% of their school day (U.S Department of Education, 2011). These students are educated in the regular education classrooms in their home schools with supports and services and they are only removed where education in this environment, even with supports and services, is not feasible. Differentiated instruction, where teachers vary the various instructional aspects in order to reach students of differing learning abilities, along with teacher aides and aspects of the universal design for

learning, are among the supports and services utilized to ensure the progress of students with disabilities in accessing and mastering the general education curriculum.

Along with access to educational services and inclusion of students with disabilities in both the extracurricular activities and social interaction with their peers, it is important to note that the IDEA addresses a wide range of issues concerning the education of this population in the country. For example, through the Child Find policy, many children with disabilities have been located, evaluated and provided services as necessary. Child Find is a component of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) that requires states to locate, identify, and evaluate all children with disabilities between the ages of birth to 21, who are in need of early intervention or special education services. The comprehensive special education policy in the United States along with follow-up activities to ensure adherence by schools, school districts and states, has ensured that students with disabilities are included in every educational reform or initiative.

In the context of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) (2001), for example issues of access to and progress in the general education curriculum content for students with disabilities alongside their peers are of utmost concern to parents and students, special educators and other professionals, advocates and stakeholders. The NCLB is a recent education act that supports standards-based education reform and emphasizes high expectations and measurable goals in the education of all students. Ideally, through the NCLB, the general education curriculum guides all students' learning and state and other assessment content for all students, including those with disabilities, is aligned to the general education curriculum content (Turnbull, Turnbull, Wehmeyer, & Shogren, 2013). Although assessment data for students with disabilities (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2011) show some improvement in their test of academic achievement results, for example in 2009, it is worth noting that academic achievement is only one factor in increasing the chances of success in life for students with disabilities. Nevertheless, the inclusion of these students in the evaluation of student progress and achievement through annual state and district assessments that is mandated by NCLB aims to improve their educational results and is in line with IDEA's perspective that improving educational results for this population is key to realizing the nation's goals of full participation, independent living, economic self-sufficiency, and equal opportunity for all individuals with disabilities. Most recently, state curriculum and other changes and updates to align to the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) have taken into consideration issues of students with disabilities. Effort to ensure optimum participation of the special education population in this educational "reform" through implementing the universal design for learning along with supports and aids, accommodations and modifications necessary for the success of these students continue to engage the minds of many professionals in the special education field.

Though much remains to be done in the field of special education as a whole, it is clear that through the comprehensive special education policy and follow-through activities on behalf of students with disabilities in the United States, many children and youth with disabilities have gained access to the educational environment and to the curriculum and due attention is directed toward their educational outcomes. Granted data quantifying the number of students with disabilities receiving services may not necessarily show the adequacy, appropriateness, and functionality of services provided to the students, it is safe to say that the achievements of special education in the United States have increased the possibility of achieving equal opportunity, full participation, independent living, and economic self-sufficiency, for this population. In this context, the number of students with disabilities who are receiving educational services, the type of services received along with participation and progress in the general education curriculum become vital indicators of development in the field of special education in any country. It is from this perspective that the role of policy and follow through activities in the development of special education in Kenya are examined.

Conclusion

As is clear from the status of special education in the United States, a comprehensive and clear national policy along with follow through on such policy are necessary for adequate progress in the

field of special education in any country. It is crucial to the development of special education in Kenya that the country's Ministry of Education has compiled the various stipulations, guidelines, and objectives from parliament Sessional papers, Education Committees, and Task Forces regarding education of students with disabilities into a comprehensive national policy on special needs education. This step has the best intentions of the country behind it and is bound to facilitate a consolidation of the effort by various organizations in the country for the benefit of students with disabilities, to give clear direction to this field with the full force of the government behind it for the benefit of students with disabilities in the country. Successful implementation of this policy is likely to enhance access to education of children and youth with disabilities in Kenya and improve the quality of the same.

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Evaluation of School Uniform Policy in Turkey: A Case Study

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the results of current school uniform policies according to views of stakeholders. Descriptive case study method was used for this study to understand the concerns of the stakeholders about school uniforms. Data was collected through interviews with stakeholders and also reviewing the documents in TOKI Elementary and Middle School. Collected data was analyzed and evaluated to see the impacts of the school uniform on academic achievement, discipline, economical, safety, functionality, personality and self-expression. As a result of the study, almost all students support the free clothes policy in schools but most of the parents, teachers and school administrators support school uniform. Finally, parents' voting should be repeated every year. In addition, dress codes should be determined by school administration and parent-teacher association by taking ideas of parents, students and concerning cultural features of school neighborhood.

Keywords: Descriptive case study, school uniform policies, dress codes

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Introduction

School uniform is a hot debate in many countries for many years. Both proponents and opponents have debated the school uniform policies on different platforms. There are also many scientific researches about school uniform because of its popularity. Some of these studies are described below.

School administrators and teachers, in particular, seem pleased with the outcomes of mandating uniforms, arguing that uniforms foster equality among students and promote better behavior. Overall, they believe the impact of uniforms has been the creation of environments more conducive to academic endeavors and achievement. Proponents suggest that school uniforms will make safer schools and better students. Schools are also made safer with uniforms because it is easier to identify outsiders. Opponents of school uniform policies question whether uniforms really reduce violence in schools and level the playing field. They contend there is no evidence uniforms produce any changes. They also argue that uniforms are an infringement of students' U.S. Constitutional rights (Thompson, 1999).

Educators were most convinced that academic advantages could be linked to obligatory school uniforms, while parents, followed by learners, were significantly less convinced about this. Educators were also quite convinced that school uniforms embraced social benefits, while parents and learners were less convinced about this (Wilken & Aardt, 2012). The results are similar to findings of Thompson (1999).

Sanchez, Yoxsimer & Hill (2012) investigated public middle school students' opinions on the benefits of wearing a school uniform. An overwhelming majority of the students (87%) clearly indicated that they did not like wearing a school uniform. The results are similar to findings of Thompson (1999) and Wilken & Aardt (2012). Generally, educators support the school uniform. On the other hand, students do not like school uniform.

Vopat (2010) recommends that children should be granted a certain amount of free expression in order to develop their substantive expression, and then perhaps we should impose a dress code rather than a strict uniform requirement. Vopat also said that uniforms do not provide claimed benefits like fostering discipline, promoting equality, and increasing overall academic performance. We are in fact doing children a disservice when we implement mandatory school uniform.

Bigger (2006) explains that Muslim women have problems on wearing Islamic head coverings in schools, colleges and universities especially in French and Turkey. While Turkish Government has solved this problem with a legislation of regulation of dress code the problem continues in France.

Happel (2013) sought the relationships between gender, gender performance, and school uniforms in the US especially investigate the significance of skirt-wearing among middle and high school girls. Skirts restrict movement in real ways; wearers must negotiate how they sit, how they play, and how quickly they move. Skirt-wearing, consciously and unconsciously, imposes considerations of modesty and immodesty, in ways that trousers do not.

The research of Gentile & Imberman (2011) identifies the impact of uniforms on student achievement, attendance and behavior from a large urban school district in the southwest United States (LUSD-SW). They found that uniforms generate improvements in attendance in middle and high school. The attendance results are particularly strong for girls. On the other hand there is a little evidence of uniforms having impacts on attendance or disciplinary infractions for elementary students. Moreover, the researcher found little evidence that uniforms have lasting impacts on achievement and discipline.

Using school uniform in United States has been increasing from year to year. In 1996, only 3% of public schools required uniforms. By 2005 uniform adoption had more than quadrupled as it

spread to 14% of public schools (Gentile & Imberman, 2011). According to source of National Center for Education Statistics about 22% of public elementary schools, 19% of middle schools, and 10% of high schools are already required some kind of uniforms for students (McDaniel, 2013).

Bodine (2003) explains the misleading of educational research for social and political purposes by criticizing the research of Brunnsma and Rockquemore (1998). They found statistically significant positive correlation between test scores and uniform use. By generalizing from the single school sector with the opposite correlation, they claimed that uniforms have a negative effect on academic achievement. Ideally, education research implies research in the service of students, teachers, families, and schools. However, far from clarifying an education policy issue, the authors clouded thinking about school clothing by introducing an unfounded claim that student uniforms result in lower achievement. Brunnsma and Rockquemore (2003) reply to Bodine via writing another article and defend themselves. They said they stand by their findings and look forward to future empirical analyses that build on, extend, and challenge what we already know about school uniforms: They will not increase academic achievement.

In Argentina, white smocks, which were adopted as the mandatory dress code around 1910 on the basis of an egalitarian rhetoric, were part of a politics of the body closely tied to Hygienism and linked to ideals of moral and racial purity. White smocks established a homogeneous and austere, monochromatic aesthetics of the school space that quickly identified transgression and indiscipline. In the US, uniforms were used for the schooling of minorities (Native Americans, women) as a way of rigorously training unruly bodies and of learning other aesthetic and bodily dispositions. Recently, urban public schools have adopted uniforms to counter-balance gangs' and rappers' dress codes (Dussel, 2005).

History of School Uniform in Turkey

Republic of Turkey was founded in 1923 and Westernization efforts were launched in social structure and all government offices. As a result of this, compulsory dress and hat reform was implemented all through the country on 25.11.1925. The reform affected the school dress codes. In 1942, government issued a regulation for school clothes. According to this regulation, students should not be forced to wear different clothes except for hat and school uniform. Until 1970, hat was used in the schools as a part of the school uniform. In 1981, Turkish government regulated the compulsory school dress as black school uniform and white collar in elementary schools. In 1990, the color of school uniform was changed from black to blue. Suit, tie, skirt and white shirt were used for middle and high school students. After 2000, many school decided their own compulsory school uniform (Kahraman & Karacan, 2013).

In 2012, the government issued a new regulation for school clothes. According to this regulation, the government has set some dress codes. Paying attention to dress codes, students were allowed in dressing as they wish. These dress codes are (1) Students cannot wear badge, emblems, symbols, insignias and etc. except for schools' badges and emblems. (2) Students cannot wear clothes which affect the human health negatively and not convenient with the season conditions. (3) Students cannot wear torn, holed and transparent clothes (4) Students cannot wear skirts above the knee, deep slit skirt, short pants, sleeveless T-shirt, sleeveless shirt and shorts and tights which show body line. (5) Students cannot use and dress scarf, beret, hats, bags and similar materials including political symbols, figures and texts. (6) Students cannot make up, and cannot have mustache and beard. Students should come to school uncovered head, clean and undyed hair but female students in religious middle and high schools (imam-hatip schools) can cover their heads in all courses. Female students in regular middle and high schools can cover their heads in only elective Quran course (Milli Eğitim Bakanlığına Bağlı Okul Öğrencilerinin Kılık Kıyafetlerine Dair Yönetmelik, 2012).

These regulations increased public debate. Both proponents and opponents have debated the school uniform policies on different platforms. After all these debates, the government issued a new regulation for school clothes on 08 July 2013. According to this regulation, students cannot be forced

to wear one type dress (uniform) but both school administration and parent-teacher association (PTA) can decide school uniform together by getting the approval of majority of parents. Parents' voting will be repeated every four years. If majority of parents vote free clothes instead of uniform then students can wear whatever they want complying with national dress codes (Milli Eğitim Bakanlığına Bağlı Okul Öğrencilerinin Kılık Kıyafetlerine Dair Yönetmelik, 2012).

Erkan (2003) suggested similar regulation in his research. He explained that it is not easy to say yes or no to decide the uniform or free clothes in the schools. Teachers and school administrators as well as families should be participated to decision process about school uniform or free clothes.

Kahraman & Karacan (2013) conducted a study about free clothes in a public high school. According to this study, researchers found some negative results of the free clothes policy on school and students. Free clothes policy can create a security and control problems in school. In addition, free clothes policy can decrease academic achievement and increase dressing cost for students. Students can tend to undesirable behaviours, grouping, adopt negative role models and create problem in social relationship. The researcher also found some positive results for students, for example, giving importance to personal care, freedom of choice and individual preferences, increasing self-confidence and responsibility.

Akbaba & Konak (2014) explain that as a requirement of our area, free dress policy in schools should be continued although it caused parents to have economic difficulties, took the time of students, and brought-out the rich-poor distinction.

Generally, supporters of school uniforms claim the following advantages of uniforms. Uniforms increase (1) students' academic achievement, provide more (2) discipline and (3) safety. School uniforms are also (4) more economic, (5) functional. Moreover uniforms contribute (6) personality and self-expression. The study looks for the accuracy of these claims in TOKI Elementary and Middle School in Kilis. School applied free dress policy almost 1 year. Later, parents voted the school uniform (81%) in September, 2013. Despite the voting results, school administration do not implemented school uniform policy strictly. While some students come to the school with school uniform others come to the school without uniform or wearing just one part of the uniform. After 2 years experience, I looked for the results of free school clothes policies in TOKI Elementary and Middle School. What has changed in this school?

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the results of current school uniform policies according to views of stakeholders.

Research questions:

- (1) What do stakeholders think about relationship between school uniform and students' academic achievement?
- (2) What do stakeholders think about relationship between school uniform and students' discipline?
- (3) What do stakeholders think about relationship between school uniform and students' safety?
- (4) What do stakeholders think about economic advantages of school uniform?
- (5) What do stakeholders think about functionality of school uniform?
- (6) What do stakeholders think about school uniform in terms of students' personality and self-expression?

Method

I used descriptive case study method for this study because it was helpful to understand the concerns of the stakeholders about school uniforms. Descriptive case study research is better to gather information of a greater depth than would be possible using another methodology such as survey data. Patton (1990) asserts that “qualitative methods permit the researcher to study selected issues in depth and detail; the fact that data collection is not constrained by predetermined categories of analysis contributes to the depth and detail of qualitative data” (p. 165). Merriam (1998) defines a descriptive case study in education as “one that presents a detailed account of the phenomenon” (p. 38). Yin (1994) states that “A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 13). Under these definitions, I decided to a descriptive case study in education for this research.

Data was collected through interviews with stakeholders in TOKI Elementary School. I interviewed with 40 students, 10 teachers, 25 parents and 2 school administrators. All interviews were semi-structured. I also reviewed the voting results about school uniform and briefing files of the schools.

TOKI Elementary and Middle School

The case site was chosen as TOKI Elementary and Middle School in Kilis-Turkey because I have already had rapport with school administrators and many teachers. I also have a rapport with many parents because I have been living in the same neighborhood. In addition my 3 children and 6 nephews were going to this school so there was no access problem.

TOKI Primary school was opened in 2009 and located on city centrum of Kilis. The school is a typical elementary and middle school—provides education level for grades 1-4 in the morning and for grades 5-8 in the afternoon in the same building. The school enrolls 450 students in elementary school and 350 students in middle school (TOKI Elementary and Middle School, 2014).

The school building has three floors and includes 24 classrooms, 3 offices, 1 science laboratory, 1 technology classroom, 2 language laboratories, 1 map room, 1 counseling room, 1 room for course materials, 1 teachers’ room, 1 music classroom and 1 school library. In the basement, there is a big bare multipurpose room used on rainy days for physical education, sometimes for theater performances and other social activities. There are football teams, ping pong teams, theater club and music chorus in the school. Moreover, the school has playground space with surrounding wall. Students can play basketball and volleyball there. There are no gym, theatre and art and craft rooms in the school. The school canteen services to students and staffs. It includes course materials (notebooks, pen, pencil and so on), some chocolates, gums, crackers, coke and etc. There are no disable restrooms and elevators in the school (TOKI Elementary and Middle School, 2014).

There are 40 teachers working in the school (16 in elementary and 24 in middle school). In addition, there are 1 school administrator and 2 assistant school administrators working in the school. One consultant teacher works in the school to help students with their educational, social and physiological problems. There are three employees working in the school (TOKI Elementary and Middle School, 2014).

As all schools in the country, the school uniform was used in TOKI Elementary and Middle School until 2012. After that, the government issued a new regulation for school clothes. Paying attention to dress codes, students were allowed in dressing as they wish.

Education Ministers, Ömer Dinçer, said that until so far, authoritarian structure put pressure on our students. The new policies about free school clothes increase students' self-confidence and support democratic structure. (Ministry of National Education, 2013)

According to the new regulation, free dress policy was implemented in TOKI Elementary and Middle School for 1 year. Later, the government issued a new regulation for school clothes on 08 July 2013. According to this regulation, parents voted the free dress policy in September, 2013 and school uniform was accepted with the votes of 81% of parents. In the same way, all schools in Kilis City accepted the school uniform, except for Science High School. Despite these voting results, administration of TOKI Elementary and Middle School do not implemented school uniform policy strictly. While some students come to the school with school uniform others come to the school without uniform or wearing just one part of the uniform. After 2 years experience, I looked for the impacts of free dress policy in TOKI Elementary and Middle School. What has changed in this school? I shared my findings and discussion below.

Results and Discussion

Tablo 1. Stakeholders' Views about School Uniform

		Increase Achievement	Support Discipline	Support Safety	Economic al	Functiona l	Personalit y and self- expressio n
Students (40)	Agree	2	3	11	13	1	1
	Undecided	2	2	9	8	2	1
	Disagree	36	35	20	19	37	38
Parents (25)	Agree	15	18	18	17	12	7
	Undecided	3	2	2	3	5	2
	Disagree	7	5	5	5	8	16
Teachers (10)	Agree	6	7	7	7	6	1
	Undecided	2	1	2	2	2	1
	Disagree	2	2	1	1	2	8
School Administrators (2)	Agree	0	2	2	2	1	0
	Undecided	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Disagree	2	0	0	0	1	2

Academic Achievement

Most of the parents and teachers believe that school uniforms increase academic achievement (see table 1).

Students will focus on what to wear instead of focusing on tomorrow's lesson. I think that school uniform was helpful and contributes students' academic achievement (Parent, male, 45 years old).

Students can be more proud of themselves with school uniform. Children with school uniforms feel themselves more student and concentrate more their lessons (Fourth grade teacher, male, 30 years old).

In contrary to parents and teachers, the school administrators do not believe that school uniforms increase students' achievement.

According to our national high school entrance exam results, there are no significant differences about our students' academic achievement for a few years. I believe that school uniforms do not effect students' achievements (School administrator, 40 years old.).

Almost all students do not like school uniform and they do not believe that school uniforms increase their achievement.

I feel more comfortable and better myself when dressing up as I wish so I can concentrate my lesson better. I think, free dress policy can increase my academic achievement (7th grade student, female).

Kahraman & Karacan (2013) found that free clothes policy can decrease academic achievement. According to Wilken & Aardt (2012), educators were most convinced that academic advantages could be linked to obligatory school uniforms, while parents, followed by learners, were significantly less convinced about this. Thompson, (1999) found that school administrators and teachers believe that school uniforms create environments more conducive to academic endeavors and achievement. In contrary to these findings, most of the parents in TOKI Elementary and Secondary School believe that school uniform contribute students' academic achievement (See table 1).

Discipline

School administrators, most of the parents and teachers believe that school uniforms support discipline activities because students' dressing style can effect their behaviours (See table 1).

I think, school uniforms help us to keep discipline in the school. There is a strong relationship between students' behaviours and what they wear. If students wear like a punk generally behave like a punk. School uniforms are serious dress and students with uniform show more positive behaviours. The uniform can decrease in fights among students (Teacher, male, 42 years old).

Students do not believe that school uniforms provide discipline in the school. They believe that nothing changed in the school discipline after free dress policy (See table 1).

I don't believe that school uniform contributes discipline in school but school administrators and teachers think that they keep discipline when they force us to wear school uniform (Female student, grade 8).

Kahraman & Karacan (2013) found that students with free clothes can tend to undesirable behaviours, grouping, adopt negative role models and create problem in social relationship. Recently, some urban public schools have adopted uniforms to counter-balance gangs' and rappers' dress codes in United States (Dussel, 2005). Except for students, school administrators, most of the parents and teachers in TOKI Elementary and Secondary School believe that school uniforms support discipline activities (See table 1).

Safety

Except for students, school administrators, most of the parents and teachers in TOKI Elementary and Secondary School believe that school uniforms contribute school safety (See table 1). They worry about school safety because of free dressing policy. They think any intruders can come to the school and damage to their children.

I think free dressing policy is not a good idea. Free dressing application can create a problem to recognize children if they are our students or not. Uniforms certainly help us to recognize any intruders who come into the school. After free dressing policy, some drug dealers can come to school garden or our classrooms. How can we solve this problem? We can also recognize our students outside of the school with school uniform. If we see their misbehaviour we can warn them (Assistant school principal, 38 years old).

In the study of Thompson (1999) proponents believe that school uniforms will make safer schools and better students. Schools are also made safer with uniforms because it is easier to identify outsiders. Kahraman & Karacan (2013) found that free clothes policy can create a security and control problems in school.

Economical

Except for students, school administrators, most of the parents and teachers in TOKI Elementary and Secondary School believe that free dressing policy bring extra cost for parents. They think students are competitive with each other in trendy so they do not support free dressing policy (See table 1).

I think school uniforms contribute to the budget of the parents. Without school uniform, students demand more and variety new dress from their parents and they want to wear something different every day. School uniforms can help to banish fashion wars (Parent, 27 years old).

On the other hand, some stakeholders think differently. They believe that school uniform policy bring extra cost for parents.

Children has already some clothes used in street they can use the same clothes in their schools. Everyone's financial situation may not be good. Parents are asked to pay money for school uniform but some parents can not afford to pay this money. Most of the parents voted in favor of school uniform. I and my children support free dress policy but voting will be repeated after four years. Then my children will be graduated. I think four years is too long. Voting should be repeated every year because every year 25% of parents are changed (Parent, female, 28 years old).

Except for students, most of the stakeholders believe that after free dressing policy, the differences between poor and rich students in school are to be displayed more clearly.

Free dressing policy can create class differences among children. Poor students who wear cheap clothes would be exposed teasing of friends (School administrator, 40 years old).

The question "What am I gonna wear to school tomorrow" will arise at home. This will force low-income families. Competition will begin among children (Teacher, female, 26 years old).

On the other hand, some stakeholders do not believe that free dressing in school would be a problem among students because phones, shoes, watches, bags and such products already make feel differences.

Students come to school from the same neighborhood. They already know and see each other on the street. After the school they play together in their neighborhood. Everyone knows each other's economic status. So I do not think that poor students have problem with free dressing policy (Parent, 42 years old).

Kahraman & Karacan (2013) found that free clothes policy can increase dressing cost for students. Akbaba & Konak (2014) suggest that as a requirement of our area, free dress policy in schools should be continued although it caused parents to have economic difficulties, took the time of students, and brought-out the rich-poor distinction.

Functionality

Except for students, school administrators, most of the parents and teachers in TOKI Elementary and Secondary School support school uniform explaining its functionalities.

School uniforms are useful to eliminate choice-related stress. The uniforms save time. Children do not think what to wear in the morning. They wear their uniform and go directly to the school. Moreover, Teachers can identify their students easier (Teacher, male, 36 years old).

On the other hand, almost all students believe that free dress policy is more functional.

We are active children and school uniform is not comfortable for us. Using tie, shirt, jacket, shoes are not comfortable and practical for us. Instead of the school uniform, t-shirts, jeans, sports shoes are more casual and comfortable dress for us. In addition, we are very hot during the summer or very cold in winter with school uniform (6th grade student, male).

School uniform is not good aesthetically. Adults decide what young people to wear. I do not have to dress up according to their pleasure. Everybody has a self-pleasure in dressing. Students should not be forced to dress up to according to somebody's pleasure (Female student, 8th grade).

Some parents and teachers also support students and believe that free dress policy is more functional.

I think using free dress policy is good but delayed application. When I was a student I did not like the uniform. When I came home, my first job was to remove school uniform. Mostly, I began to remove my uniform on the road. I do not think other students like uniform (Parent, male, 38 years old).

Sanchez, Yoxsimer & Hill (2012) investigated public middle school students' opinions on the benefits of wearing a school uniform. An overwhelming majority of the students (87%) clearly indicated that they did not like wearing a school uniform. The study in TOKI Elementary and Secondary School has the same findings.

Personality and Self-Expression

Most of the students, teachers, parents and school administrators believe that free dress policy contribute students' personality and self-expression.

If compulsory school uniform conflicts with the child's inner world these children feel uncomfortable psychologically. Students want to dress up how they want to be perceived. School uniforms prevent students' self-expression and individuality. Mevlana who is an Islamic thinker said that "Either be as you seemed or seem as you are". There is a relationship between people's inner world and outer appearance. If people's dressing reflects their inner world people can feel happier (Parent, female, 46 years old).

What about student individuality? We should support student individuality and encourages diversity. Students feel unique if they wear clothes of their choice. If they wear school uniform they feel the same as all the students (Teacher, female, 35 years old).

In the first days, students were not adapted to free dress policy. They were confused such as what wore, how wore, where did they get, looks good on or not but over time they get used to these changes and clothing debate are decreasing day by day (School administrator, male, 40 years old).

We should have the freedom to choice. Our clothes are extremely important in our daily lives. School administrators and teachers should not force us for school uniform (Male student, 7th grade).

Some students want to wear clothes according to their religious requirement in the school for example head scarf or long skirt. They want to cover the most of their bodies. On the other hand compulsory school uniform policy does not allowed to do it. Bigger, S. (2006) explains that Muslim women have problems on wearing Islamic head coverings in schools.

Students who cannot wear according to their religious requirement feel unhappy. This situation affects students' approach to school and their academic achievement negatively. Students cannot be forced to wearing in contrary to their beliefs (Parent, male, 48 years old).

I think using free dress policy is good but not enough. Using scarf should be allowed in middle and high school. Existing application in headscarf is contrary to human rights. Students should

have the right to choose. We should not interfere with their lifestyle (Teacher, male, 33 years old).

On the other hand, some stakeholders believe that school uniform is useful to teach them how to dress dress formally for example in meetings or work places. School uniforms give students a sense of belonging and teach them.

Dressing style also is a way to reflects people's personality and give non-verbal messages to others. Sometimes, students can give undesirable messages around them with their dressing. For example, gang connections or advocacy for other illegal activities (School administrator, 40 years old).

Kahraman & Karacan (2013) found that some positive results for students, for example, giving importance to personal care, freedom of choice and individual preferences, increasing self-confidence and responsibility. Vopat, M. C. (2010) recommends that children should be granted a certain amount of free expression in order to develop their substantive expression, then perhaps we should impose a dress code rather than a strict uniform requirement.

Recommendations

Policies establishing dress codes for public school students are not the same as policies regarding uniforms: Dress codes generally determine what students cannot wear to school, while polices for uniforms specify what a student must wear while in school (McDaniel, 2013). Instead of using school uniform, dress codes can be used in the schools. Dress codes give opportunities to children what to wear.

In current application, students cannot be forced to wear one type dress (uniform) but both school administration and parent-teacher association (PTA) can decide school uniform together by getting the approval of majority of parents. If majority of parents vote free clothes instead of uniform then students can wear whatever they want complying with national dress codes determined by educational ministry. Parents' voting will be repeated every four years.

Current regulation about school uniform is good but parents' voting should be repeated every year. If majority of parents vote free drees policy then dress codes should be determined by parent-teacher association by taking ideas of parents, students and concerning cultural features of school neighborhood. They can describe undesirable clothes (dress codes) and make students free to dress up whatever they want. Dress codes can be updated considering difficulties in practice.

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The Effect of Creative Drama on Pre-Service Elementary Teachers' Achievement in Art Education Course and Interest in Art

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of the creative drama method on pre-service elementary teachers' achievement in art education courses and interest in art. The study made use of the experimental pattern with pre- and post-test control groups. Data were collected, analyzed, and interpreted according to the mixed method including both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Before and after the study, both groups were administered the Art Education Achievement Test and the Information Form on the Interest towards Art. Participants in the study and control groups were requested to keep diaries about their emotions, thoughts, and achievements after the art education class every week. Following the study, 12 participants were interviewed individually and a focus group interview was conducted with 6 participants. The study concluded that the creative drama method improved the participants' levels of interest in art and their achievements in the art education course.

Keywords: *Interest in art, achievement in the art education course, creative drama*

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Introduction

As cultural and social creatures, human beings require various resources to live. One of these resources is art. Art is believed to be a necessity for creating a modern and progressive society, as well as ensuring that individuals think independently and originally, address their psychological needs, and express themselves confidently. "Art is necessary for an individual to know and change the world. However, it is necessary just because of the spell it has in its spirit." (Fischer, 2003). Art can enable an individual to be sensitive towards its environment. In the light of these statements, as a field of interest that has impacts on various areas of life, art may become functional when it is well-understood. Therefore, it is important to recognize and interpret art and works of art.

Art is considered to be as old as the history of humanity. "In English, the word "art" comes from *ars* in Latin and *techne* in Greek, used to express all kinds of human skills such as horse breaking, poetry, shoe-making, vase painting, or administration." (Shiner, 2010, p. 22). The concept, which was used to describe craftsmanship in ancient times, has gained its modern meaning over time. The concept of art has been defined in many ways. According to Read (1984), art is simply related to the concepts of "plastics" or "visual"; however, it also involves the concepts of literature and music. Pasin (2004, p. 13) states that art "is the aesthetic relationship between human beings and the facts of nature; it is learning to see". Tezcan (2011, p. 1) defines art as "a creative individual activity which refers to the explanation or communication of certain thoughts, purposes, situations, emotions or events using skills and imagination with the help of experiences". All these definitions illustrate that art is related to the concepts of creativity, aesthetics, and emotion.

A high level of awareness adopted by individuals towards art is essential for the modernization of a society. "Modern individual identity also involves artistic training." (Ozturk, 1994, p. 4). With reference to artistic training, art lessons are incorporated at the elementary school level. According to Artut (2006), art courses at the elementary school level are limited to activities involving manipulative skills, which lead to the perception of art courses as meaningless activities beyond the traditional educational approach, and which may result in a negative influence on students' attitudes towards such courses. It may be concluded that art can achieve its goals when it is perceived as an essential part of education rather than being a free-time activity.

Art education has an important purpose since it enables individuals to think independently, generate new products, produce new and various methods to solutions, and express themselves through diverse fields of art. "The aim is to educate through art; to train all mental skills and processes as sense, affection, perception, visualization, reflection, recalling, and association, activated in an artistic performer or in the one who encounters a work of art for interpretation." (San, 1979, p. 3).

"As we need all of nature, we also need all types of art; together they form a whole." (Lynton, 2004, p. 364). Art education improves the perspectives of an individual through increasing his/her level of appreciation and provides different opportunities to an individual to express him/herself. Art education courses could be considered as important as the courses with social, mathematical, and scientific content. It may be possible for an individual to interpret the works of art and attribute meanings to them through art education courses where the theory and practice are incorporated together. "Appreciating, understanding, and interpreting a work of art require knowledge." (Ozturk, 1994). In this respect, having interest in and knowledge about art has great importance. "Interests of an individual may be predicted through looking at the activities s/he performs in his/her free time in daily life." (Kuzgun, 2009). "Performing activities related to a field of interest is both a source of happiness and a factor influencing achievement for individuals." (Ozguven, 1998, p. 269). Art education may include various fields of art. Creative drama could be used as one of the fields of art as a method in the artistic training processes.

Creative drama has an essential role in art education. During the creative drama processes, participants gain artistic experiences by being involved in the process individually through experiential learning and using their own experiences as well. "Creative drama is an effective teaching tool." (Adiguzel, 2006, p. 8). "The teacher following this method collects the best reference materials,

literature, and artifacts he/she can find. The children are encouraged to spend sufficient time studying them in order to build an original drama.” (Mccaslin, 1984, p. 295). Looking at the purposes of creative drama, one can say that it ensures the improvement of individuals in multiple dimensions. According to Adiguzel (2010), the creative drama method aims to create a student-centered learning environment, encouraging critical and original thinking, the development of creativity along with written and oral communication skills. Considering the provision of such achievements, using the creative drama method in the art education classes could be effective. As Metinnam (2012, p. 46) mentioned in his study, "using creative drama in art education processes would lead individuals to establishing more intensive relationships with the artistic experiences within the process. Art education processes, where creative drama is used as a method, could be designed particularly to improve pre-service teachers' artistic sensibilities". Drama in education may have positive impacts on students' academic performances (Lee, 2013). Drama in education may also help individuals in developing their communication and decision making skills as well as ensuring that individuals gain sensitivity towards their peers (McNaughton, 2004). In light of these explanations, we can say that using creative drama in education would lead to gaining positive skills and experiences.

A creative drama-based lesson plan would consist of three phases: warm up - preparation, animation and evaluation. First, the warm up - preparation phase involves preparation of the individual for the process both mentally and physically. Second, the animation phase consists of activities in which such techniques as improvisation and role-playing are used. Third, the evaluation phase involves sharing of achievements, emotions and thoughts about the creative drama process by the participants. In this study, certain techniques were used within the creative drama process implemented to the study group. These techniques include improvisation, role-playing, role cards, teacher inclusion in the role, frozen image, simultaneous improvisation, still images, the creative drama oriented station technique, group sculptures - portrait composition, recalling, narration and the creative drama-oriented six thinking hats technique.

Art may be closely related to creative drama. As teachers of the future, pre-service elementary teachers should gain art-related experience and awareness. It is believed that developing an awareness of art is correlated with an interest in art as well as achievement in art education classes. Art education is taught not only by art educators but also by elementary teachers. Studies in the literature have shown that "elementary teachers had difficulties in recognizing new methods used in art education, developing children's imagination and creativity" (Tari, 2011), and that "elementary teachers should obtain knowledge and understanding about the purposes of the visual arts education and its importance in the development of students; they were seen to have difficulties with the topics included in this subject area and with teaching and evaluating student work; therefore, they needed intensive education to overcome these difficulties." (Ozer, 2001).

Considering that the elementary teachers, as implementers of art education, are not sufficiently trained and lack the required knowledge and experience, necessary adjustments should be made to create art awareness. The utilization of the creative drama method has positive results in various fields. Therefore, this study was important in determining whether the creative drama method is effective in creating awareness towards art in elementary teachers. Hence, the purpose of this study was to determine the impact of the creative drama method on pre-service teachers' achievement in the art education course and interest in art.

Methods

This was an experimental study which utilized a quantitative analysis in order to research the interests and achievements of elementary teachers and a qualitative analysis with the aim of determining their opinions. This study was designed in the form of a mixed methodology where qualitative and quantitative data collection tools were used together within an experimental pattern of pre- and post-test control groups. According to Johnson & Christensen (2008), better results are obtained when qualitative and quantitative approaches are used together. The qualitative and quantitative parts of the study may be performed simultaneously or alternatively. In this respect, the researcher may request the participants to express their opinions following a quantitative study or

experiment with the aim of determining whether the results are consistent. Wiersma (1995) mentioned that the experimental pattern with pre- and post-test control groups involves two groups, one of which is administered with experimental processes while the other is not.

The experimental pattern of this study is composed of one study and one control group. The independent variable in this study was "creative drama" while the dependent variables were the pre- and post-test scores in "interest in art" and "art education course achievement". Before and after the study, both groups were administered the Art Education Achievement Test and the Information Form on the Interest towards Art. The study was recorded on video. Pre-service teachers in the study and control groups were requested to keep diaries about their emotions, thoughts, and achievements after the art education class every week. Following the study, 12 pre-service teachers were interviewed individually and a focus group interview was conducted with 6 pre-service teachers. The interview is one of the data collection tools used in qualitative research. "The interview is used to gather descriptive data in the subjects' own words so that the researcher can develop insight on how subjects interpret some piece of the world." (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998, p. 94). The reason for carrying out a focus group interview, in addition to the individual interview was to pave the way for the emergence of new and different opinions through the participants' interaction with the group.

The program content used for the control and study groups was prepared in consultation with four academicians teaching art education at four different universities. The program content used for the experimental processes was prepared in consultation with three academicians teaching drama in the education faculties of two different universities. In the study group, communication - interaction activities were carried out during the first week, followed by the introduction to art in the second week. In the following ten weeks, two periods, the Ancient and the Renaissance Periods, as well as Romanticism, Realism, Impressionism, Cubism, Expressionism, and creativity were taught using the creative drama method. Members of the control and study groups were selected randomly in consideration of their general academic averages and genders. The random selection of group assignments was important in terms of the validity of the study.

Procedure and Participants

The sampling of the study consisted of 57 pre-service teachers, of whom 29 were in the study group and 28 in the control group, studying elementary education at the education faculty of Recep Tayyip Erdogan University during the spring semester of the 2012 - 2013 academic year.

Measures (instruments)

The data collection tools used in this study are listed below.

Information Form on Interest in Art

In order to determine pre-service elementary teachers' levels of interest in art, the "Information Form on Interest in Art", developed by Ozturk (1994), was used. The form consisted of 18 items in line with its aim. In this study, the validity and reliability analyses of the form were repeated. The appropriateness of the items was analyzed by three academicians from Hacettepe University's Faculty of Fine Arts with respect to the content validity of this form. All items were deemed appropriate. In terms of the reliability of the Information Form on Interest in Art, 88 pre-service teachers studying in the Elementary Education Department were administered the form twice in two weeks. The correlation coefficient was found through the test-retest method. A positive and significant relationship at a high level was found between the total scores obtained from the two applications ($r=.82$, $p<0.01$). In this respect, the scores obtained from the two applications were consistent. This could be considered as proof of the reliability of the information form.

Art Education Achievement Test

The achievement levels of pre-service elementary teachers in the art education course were assessed through the "Art Education Achievement Test", developed by Adiguzel (2011). Developed by

a field specialist, the achievement test was administered to 57 pre-service teachers enrolled in the art education course of the Elementary Education Department with the aim of executing an item analysis. The achievement test used in this study, which consisted of 40 items with 5 multiple choice categories, covered basic knowledge on art, Ancient art and Renaissance art, Realism, Impressionism, Cubism, Futurism, and Surrealism movements, as well as the topic of creativity. In the study, the internal consistency was calculated as KR-20 in terms of the reliability coefficient. The reliability coefficient for 40 items was calculated as 0.65. Since the achievement test had been recently developed and used for the first time in a scientific study, this coefficient could be considered sufficient.

Interview Form on the Creative Drama Method

With the aim of taking the opinions of pre-service elementary teachers about the creative drama method, the researcher developed an interview form and modified it in line with the expert opinion. The interview is one of the data collection tools used in qualitative research. "Through interviews, we try to understand the unobservable, such as experiences, attitudes, thoughts, intentions, interpretations, mental perceptions, and reactions." (Yildirim & Simsek, 2006, p. 120). With respect to the interview form, open-ended and easy-to-understand questions of different types were prepared along with alternative questions and probes. The questions were reasonably sequenced and were updated in light of the opinions of the two academicians from Hacettepe University's Faculty of Education. Nine interview questions were prepared for the interview and probes were added to these questions. Twelve participants in the study group were interviewed individually, while focus group interviews were conducted with six participants. Individual interviews were conducted with 12 participants separately and they were audio-recorded. The focus-group interview was conducted with 6 participants and was also audio-recorded.

Video Recording

The entire process involving the study and control groups were video-recorded with a Sony HDD DCR-SR52 video recorder. Video recording has some advantages. "One of them is that it displays non-verbal behaviors such as facial expressions, body movements and mimicry in their original forms and in a certain continuity." (Yildirim & Simsek, 2006, p. 189).

Diaries

Pre-service teachers in the study and control groups kept diaries every week following the art education course on A4 sized papers. These diaries, which reflect their feelings, thoughts, and achievements about the course were collected every week.

Data Analysis

Covariance Analysis (ANCOVA) was conducted in order to determine whether the post-test scores obtained from the Information Form on Interest in Art differed at a statistically significant level. The results of the Art Education Achievement Test scores differed at a statistically significant level, as analyzed through the t-test for independent sampling and the t-test for related sampling among the parametric tests. The descriptive analysis was used for the analysis of the qualitative data collection tools. During the descriptive analysis, the opinions that were obtained from the participants were directly cited. Participants were selected for the interviews on a voluntary basis and permission was obtained from the participants for audio-recording. Each individual interview lasted for 15-20 minutes and the focus group interview lasted for 53 minutes. Audio records were transcribed by the researcher and they were analyzed using a descriptive analysis. In order to provide reliability and validity, the literature was scanned and the findings of the study were supported. The interview durations were clearly indicated in the study.

The reliability of the individual and focus group interview transcription codes were provided through the opinions of two encoders, who had taken a qualitative research in education course during their doctoral degree education in the elementary education department. "Such studies should

conclude with a minimum reliability rate of 70%.” (Yildirim & Simsek, 2006, p. 233). The reliability of the coding was determined through encoding of the audio records by the researcher and the other two encoders. The codes, on which the researcher and the two encoders "agreed" and "disagreed" were determined. In order to calculate the reliability of the coding, the following reliability formula indicated by Miles & Huberman (1994, p. 64) was used:

$$\text{Reliability} = \text{number of agreements} / (\text{total number of agreements} + \text{disagreements})$$

The reliability of the coding obtained from the interviews was calculated to be 86%.

For the analysis of the video recording, the codes obtained from the individual interviews, focus group interviews, and diary entries were gathered. An observation form with a three-point scale was prepared by the researcher and the scoring was made in the form of "Yes, there is", "Partly", "No, there is not". Weekly video records were viewed and scored on the observation form.

Triangulation was performed using the qualitative data including the diary entries, video recordings, and individual and focus group interviews. “Triangulation stands for all efforts to increase the persuasiveness of the research conclusions using varied data resources, data collection tools and analysis methods. One of the most important strategies used in providing the reliability and validity of a study is "triangulation". (Yildirim & Simsek, 2006, p. 94).

Results

The Impact of the Creative Drama Method on Pre-Service Elementary Teachers' Interests towards Art

Table 1. Pre- and Post-test t-test results of the Control Group obtained from the Information Form on the Interest towards Art.

Group	N	X	SD	Sd	t	p
Pre-test	28	25.75	3.26173	27	3.112	.004
Post-test	28	28.04	3.95795			

Table 1 shows that according to the pre- and post-test t-test results of the control group obtained from the Information Form on Interest in Art, the scores of the control group differed statistically ($t(27)=3.11$, $p<.01$). The mean score obtained from the post-test ($X= 28.04$) was found to be higher than the mean score obtained from the pre-test ($X=25.75$). The findings about the pre- and post-test comparison of the study group are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2. Pre-and Post-test t-test results of the Study Group obtained from the Information Form on Interest in Art.

Group	N	X	SD	Sd	t	p
Pre-test	29	36.55	4.64132	28	3.803	.001
Post-test	29	39.59	4.46028			

Table 2 indicates that according to the pre-and post-test t-test results of the treatment group obtained from the Information Form on Interest in Art, the scores of the study group differed at a

statistically significant level ($t(28)=3.80, p<.01$). The mean score obtained from the post-test ($X=39.59$) was found to be higher than the mean score obtained from the pre-test ($X=36.55$). Findings showing the pre-test comparison of the control and treatment groups are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Pre-test t-test results of the Control and Study Groups obtained from the Information Form on Interest in Art.

Group	N	X	SD	Sd	t	p
Control	28	25.75	3.26173	55	10.13	.000
Treatment	29	36.55	4.64132			

Table 3 shows that according to the pre-test t-test results of the control and treatment groups obtained from the Information Form on Interest in Art, the scores of the control and treatment groups differed statistically ($t(55)=10.13, p<.01$). Due to the absence of a significant difference between the pre-test scores, the difference in the post-test scores was analyzed through the covariance analysis. Findings from the post-test comparison of the control and treatment groups are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4. Corrected Average Scores for the Post-test Scores obtained from the Information Form on Interest in Art.

Group	N	Pre-test Average	Post-test Average	Corrected Average
Control	28	25.75	28.04	30.95
Study	29	36.55	39.59	36.77

Table 4 shows that according to the post-test t-test results of the control and study groups obtained from the Information Form on Interest in Art, the scores of the control and treatment groups differed statistically ($t(55)=10.13, p<.01$). The mean score of the study group obtained from the post-test ($X=39.59$) was found to be higher than the mean score of the control group obtained from the post-test ($X=28.04$).

Table 5. Comparison of Post-test Scores obtained from the Information Form on Interest in Art.

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Sd	Mean of Squares	F	p
Post-test	251.124	1	251.124	18.605	.000
Group	167.983	1	167.983	12.445	.001
Error	728.874	54	13.498		
Total	68433.000	57			

According to Table 4 and Table 5, the mean score of the control group obtained from the "Information Form on Interest in Art" that was corrected after the experiment was calculated to be 30.95, and the same value for the study group was found to be 36.77. According to the ANCOVA

results, there was a significant difference between the corrected mean scores of control and study groups obtained from the "Information Form on Interest in Art" [$F_{(1, 54)}=12.45, p<.01$]. In other words, the control group was identified to have a lower mean score than the study group. The quantitative findings obtained from the Information Form on Interest in Art have shown that the levels of interest in art increased more in the study group when compared to those of the control group. As an interpretation of this finding, the quantitative data including the video recordings, individual and focus group interviews were listed under the subheadings below:

Results Obtained from the Diary Entries about the Level of Interest in Art

The opinions expressed by the participants in the control and study groups through diary entries about their interest in art are directly cited. The names of the participants were coded as S1, S2, etc... for the members of the study group, while the coding for the control group members were C1, C2, etc...

S1 stated: "At the end of the lesson, I understood once again that one cannot be unhappy in this course. We learn a lot of things and we do not get bored while doing them. I do not realize how time passes by. The lesson is like therapy at the same time. We are relieved from all the daily exhaustion and problems during the lesson," and that s/he is happy with the lesson, s/he had a high level of motivation and interest in the lesson and s/he feels relieved.

S9 stated: "I thought that art education would be boring and would seem to last forever. I even thought about occasionally missing the classes. However, the way the course is taught, the proximity of the teacher and his/her relaxed attitude removed our prejudices, and enabled us to act comfortably during the lesson. Through the games we played, we got to know our friends better and we learned a lot of things," and expressed that s/he has eliminated his/her prejudices against the course and s/he could act comfortably in the classroom. **S4** expressed that the games provided motivation for the lesson by saying, "The games we play are perhaps the main things that motivate us for the course. We really have great fun."

C6 in the control group said, "The lessons are quite exhausting as we do not have any breaks. However, there is useful knowledge if we follow the lesson and the slides. When we are taught through instruction all the time, we do not pay attention; we enjoy the lesson more when we participate actively and have the right to speak. However, I think it should not last more than one hour" and indicated that the lessons would be more enjoyable when there is active participation by the students. **C14** mentioned that, "Regarding the teaching of the lesson, the participation of everyone is quite good when everyone talks and expresses their opinions." S/he also indicated that it was a good approach to ask for the opinions of each participant. **C1** said, "We are having intensive classes and we sometimes have difficulty in remembering certain things." S/he also expressed that the information that is taught will not be permanent due to the intensity of the lessons.

Results Obtained from the Video Recordings about the Interest in Art

The study group was observed to have greater interest in the lesson and a stronger tendency towards extending attention as well as improved interest in artistic movements, art as a whole, willingness to use art, and a tendency towards art events when compared to the control group. While the study group was observed to have socialized and improved their empathy and communication skills, the same improvement was not observed in the control group. The study group was observed to have improved more than the control group in terms of respecting opinions, recognizing the deficiencies, overcoming prejudices, believing in the necessity of art, and eliminating anxiety towards making mistakes, as well as interpretation skills. Similarly, members of the study group were identified to display more improved behavior than the control group with respect to encouragement, decreased shyness, active participation, critical thinking skills, expressing opinions independently, feeling confident, developing imagination, improving self-confidence, self-evaluation, self-expression,

creating curiosity, appreciation, caring, sharing, positive attitudes, better expression in front of a large group, and displaying creativity.

Results Obtained from the Individual Interviews about the Level of Interest in Art

Some of the impressive statements expressed by the participants were as follows:

“I used to think that all singers were artists, but I noticed that I was wrong. All singers are not artists.” (S15)

“I never used to listen to classical music, but now I have a tendency towards doing so.” (S15)

“We always participate in the lesson in an active and dynamic manner.” (S15)

S15 stated that art education was necessary, art gave pleasure, s/he was able to distinguish between who is an artist and who is not, his/her level of interest in art has increased, his/her level of interest in the lesson increased and s/he gained a high level of motivation. In this respect, we can say that **S15** gained awareness about art.

S8 indicated that s/he had overcome his/her prejudices by saying, "At first, I was thinking about missing the classes, but I changed my mind."

S5 said, "I experienced active participation in creative drama, everyone was involved. I believe that I will use the creative drama technique with my students in the future." This was an expression of his/her intention to use creative drama as a method in the future, which may show that the participant is interested in the method.

S25 said, *“As we put ourselves in the shoes of those who lived in those periods, it was much easier and was easier to remember.”* S/he also emphasized that his/her empathy skills improved.

S4 said, “We stand up and act together or perform another activity. We couldn’t help participating, and consequently a positive attitude emerged towards the lesson.” S/he also expressed his/her increased level of interest in the lesson. **S19**, using the following statement, indicated that with the help of the creative drama technique, s/he was able to respect opinions, gained self-confidence, improved his/her creativity, s/he was more interested in the lesson, s/he learned through enjoying, and that there was sharing among the participants:

“A lesson that I will never forget, even if I want to. I have never attended such a class. It attracts my attention, as it is very different. We continuously participated, we had fun, and enjoyed learning at the same time.” (S19)

The fact that the statements used by **S19** indicated his/her enthusiasm and that s/he did not experience a course where fun and learning were combined in his/her previous educational life, leads to the assumption that the elements of interaction and fun were missing within the educational system. These significant examples of statements obtained from the individual interviews indicated the increase in the level of interest in the art education course. It may be interpreted that the creative drama method is believed to have a great impact on this increase.

Results Obtained from the Focus Group Interview about the Level of Interest in Art

The statements about the interest in art are directly cited below:

“I used to be involved in theatre in the past, I haven't practiced it for a long time. I have missed it, and the lesson was great for me. I noticed, at least I noticed, that I have missed it.” (S17)

“We established better communication with each other. We socialized better and the information we learned was more permanent as we performed all activities through games.” (S14)

“It was the lesson in which I participated in the most all through my life, with joy and without any hesitation, because I used to be shy: “Would it be weird to say that”, “what would my friends think about it?” but I never experienced such a thing here.” (S29)

“When we buy a newspaper or other periodical, we first read the events of the agenda, the headlines, tabloids, horoscope, this and that... However, I feel like art has become my priority now.” (S1)

“We have been to an art exhibition with my classmates, and we interpreted the exhibitions together. We say things like, ‘It should have been like this, they should have thought like that, etc...’ (S29)

“As a country, we are not a community that pays much attention to art, to be honest. I don't think it is easy to attract people in art, Sir. I believe that creative drama has a great impact on that.” (S14)

The opinions obtained from the focus group interviews with the participants in the study group have shown that the creative drama method used in the art education course created an awareness of art, improved self-confidence, provided willing participation, promoted curiosity towards art in newspapers and magazines, removed anxiety towards making mistakes, and enabled students to express their opinions confidently. One can say that the participants were able to express their opinions comfortably, this experience enabled them to interpret the works of art more independently, and that although some of the participants were interested in art in the past, this lesson increased their levels of interest.

The Impact of the Creative Drama Method on Pre-Service Elementary Teachers' Achievement in Art Education

Table 6. The Pre- and Post t-Test results obtained by the Control Group from the Art Education Achievement Test.

Group	N	X	SD	sd	t	p
Pre-test	28	17.71	3.05332	27	20.934	.000
Post-test	28	32.79	2.92318			

Table 6 shows that according to the results of the control group obtained from the Art Education Achievement Test, the scores differed statistically ($t(27)=20.93$, $p<.01$). The mean score obtained from the post-test ($X= 32.79$) was found to be higher than the mean score obtained from the pre-test ($X=17.71$). The findings from the pre- and post-test comparison of the treatment group are displayed in Table 7.

Table 7. The Pre- and Post t-Test results obtained by the Study Group from the Art Education Achievement Test.

Group	N	X	SD	sd	t	p
Pre-test	29	16.69	2.94113	28	22.583	.000
Post-test	29	33.76	3.82338			

Table 7 shows that according to the results of the study group obtained from the Art Education Achievement Test, the scores differed statistically ($t(28)=22.58, p<.01$). The mean score obtained from the post-test ($X= 33.76$) was found to be higher than the mean score obtained from the pre-test ($X=16.69$). The findings from the post-test comparison of the control and study groups are displayed in Table 8.

Table 8. The Post-test Results obtained by the Control and Study Groups from the Art Education Achievement Test.

Post-test	N	X	SD	sd	t	p
Study	29	33.76	3.82338	55	1.076	.286
Control	28	32.79	2.92318			

Table 8 shows that the post-test scores of the control and study groups obtained from the Art Education Achievement Test differed statistically ($t(55)=1.08, p>.05$). The mean score of the study group obtained from the post-test ($X= 33.76$) was found to be higher than the mean score of the control group obtained from the post-test ($X=32.79$). This difference, which was not found to be significant, is in favor of the study group. One can say that there was an increase in the achievement levels of pre-service elementary teachers who were in the study group where the creative drama method was used in the art education course. As an interpretation of this finding, the quantitative data including the video recordings, and individual and focus group interviews were listed under the subheadings below.

The Results regarding the Achievement in Art Education Obtained from the Diary Entries

The following statements made by the participants in the study group have shown that they attained knowledge with the help of the creative drama method, they were able to learn by experiencing, permanent learning was realized, and that they learned and enjoyed the experience at the same time:

“I learned about the characteristics of the Romanticism movement in the lesson and that it was not only limited to the feeling of love, but involved other emotions as well.” (S1)

“We created performances of the paintings we liked and we performed frozen image activities. The knowledge we attained was more permanent, as we learned by experiencing. We both had fun and learned at the same time.” (S17)

Looking at the opinions of the participants on the concept of "romanticism", one can say that awareness was created about the fact that the concept had a broader meaning than it was assumed to have, and that the techniques used were effective on the provision of the permanent learning.

“Impressionism = “Each man does not play horon in the same way (horon is a folk dance of the Eastern Black Sea Region)” (S15)

S15's statement in his own words about the Impressionism movement can be interpreted as the internalization of the topic by the participant. Other opinions also showed the emphasis of the participants on the creative drama method, ensuring enjoyable and permanent learning. It was observed that the participants attempted to reflect what they learned on their diary entries, and these efforts indicated the state of well-comprehension.

S22 said, “Our topic was Cubism. I had no previous information about this topic. I wouldn't be able to say a single thing if I were asked by someone. I wouldn't be able to understand if I read about it somewhere. However, with the help of this method, I was able to observe and learn quite well. We put together the picture like a jigsaw puzzle and played a little game with it.” S/he expressed that s/he learned with the help of the creative drama method, while some other participants from the control group stated their thoughts about the lessons being boring as follows:

“This lesson was a bit boring. I think it was boring to me because I didn't like this movement.” (C2)

“I didn't understand much from the lesson on Cubism movement. I couldn't find anything interesting about the topic. I found this lesson a bit boring.” (C10)

According to Gombrich (2009, p. 17), “Most people like to see in paintings, the things they like seeing in real life.” The fact that understanding the Cubism movement, which requires sufficient artistic knowledge and experience, took longer for the participants to understand than the other movements may be due to the reason that the visual images do not literally reflect the reality. Nevertheless, it was observed that the participants in the study group, who learned about the Cubism movement through the creative drama method, emphasized permanent learning and enjoyed learning during the lesson. The traditional teaching implemented in the control group did not change the existing attitudes towards the movement and its contribution to learning was more limited when compared to the creative drama method.

“I strongly believe that in this lesson, we will be able to learn all the information we may need for all aspects of our lives.”(C3)

“We expressed our opinions about art. We learned about the elements of a work of art. We learned about the fields of art. We observed the effects of skill, imagination, emotions, and thoughts on art. I believe that the question and answer method should be used more often in the lesson. That could increase the level of effective participation in the lesson.” (C25)

These opinions indicate that the participants wanted to participate more in the classroom and that they were able to have an idea about the topic in the lesson. However, they were limited due to the teaching methodology of the lesson and they found the question and answer technique useful, yet they were not satisfied with the frequency that was used. Contrary to the learning method based on a unilateral introduction within the traditional approach, interactive learning could be an effective method in making the learning permanent. One can say that the creative drama method may have an important place in not only their own learning, but also among the methods they may use in the future. Furthermore, the creative drama method could be assumed to be as effective on remembering a topic whose reflections are not experienced as frequently within popular culture.

C3 said, “My opinions about the lesson, although the slides are boring, are that they teach us something. We recall our previous knowledge or attain new information.” S/he indicated that s/he learned new knowledge although the lesson was boring. C5 said, “I was happy to acquire this knowledge, as I believe that I will benefit from them in terms of general culture; however, as we learn through reading, I cannot remember them.” S/he expressed that the lesson was beneficial in terms of

attaining information about general culture; however, the knowledge learned would not be permanent. The opinions of the participants in the control and study groups have highlighted two opposing views: while the permanence of the learned knowledge was emphasized in the study group, the control group mentioned that although they found the topic quite interesting, they had difficulty in recalling the information later on.

The Results regarding the Achievement in Art Education Obtained from the Video Recordings

The study group was observed to have student-centered lessons, where there was cooperative learning, learned through concretization and experience. Brainstorming activities were performed, while this was not the case for the control group. Both the control and study groups were observed to have acquired knowledge, were introduced the works of art, attained information on general culture, examined the works of art, and recognized artistic movements, works of art, and fields of art, as well as the artists at the same level. Interpreting the works of art, learning while having fun, ensuring facilitated learning, distinguishing an artist from those who were actually not artists, interpreting art, and increasing the number of known artists were observed more frequently in the study group when compared to the control group. Active participation, the creation of interdisciplinary connections, visualization, and enrichment of materials, active participation ensured by teachers, making the students feel comfortable, and the creation of a comfortable and warm atmosphere were observed to be experienced more intensively in the study group. While interaction was ensured only in the study group, teacher's classroom management was observed in both groups at the same level.

The control group was observed to have a monotonous teaching experience, where the lesson was taught theoretically. Some of the participants felt bored and the participants remained seated, whereas the same was not experienced in the study group. The question and answer technique was used more frequently in the study group when compared to the control group.

The Results regarding the Achievement in Art Education obtained from the Individual Interviews

Some of the impressive statements expressed by the participants were as follows:

“We learned which painting belonged to which artist, their meanings as well as respective art movements. I noticed that I learned about various artists.” (S18)

“I did not use to have good impressions about the art education courses I had taken in previous years; however, this lesson reversed my prejudices. We performed activities, which increased the permanence of the paintings in our minds, and improved the sense of creativity to a certain extent.” (S21)

“By active participation, I learned better and I enjoyed myself.” (S5)

“The art education lesson was both permanent and educational.” (S25)

These significant examples of statements obtained from the individual interviews indicated the increase in the level of achievement in the art education course. As the opinions of the participants indicate, one can infer that the creative drama method had an impact on increasing the level of achievement in the art education course.

The Results regarding the Achievement in Art Education Obtained from the Focus Group Interviews

The statements made by the participants about their achievements in the Art Education course are directly cited below:

“I socialized with my friends. I saw that we can do something and I believe that we have learned a lot about art.” (S22)

“Sir, if we studied these topics from the course book or slides, we may have forgotten them. I fear how it would be possible to learn so many things if we had studied these topics using the course book. However, we remembered them all, as we learned by experiencing.” (S14)

“Beginning a lesson with games both prepares us for the lesson and enables us to be more active. We get the chance to feel relief at this stage and we become more concentrated on the lesson.” (S1)

“In fact, the concept of “artist” has changed... We learned about the real concept of an artist and the number of artists we know increased.” (S1)

“Frankly, I didn't use to know any artists other than Picasso. Now, I think about, for instance, Van Gogh, Claude Monet, now I know more.” (S17)

“Creative drama means learning by doing and experiencing, we knew about that; but, in this lesson, we experienced how it is performed. I already knew that learning by experiencing and doing was more effective; but in this lesson, I learned about how to implement this. For instance, I can visualize in my mind, and I will implement these to my students in the future.” (S14)

The opinions of the participants in the study group indicate that the education and teaching techniques in which the traditional learning methods were dominant lead to the development of negative attitudes towards learning. However, one can say that the use of the creative drama method in art education courses minimizes this attitude and therefore, the participants become more open to learning by developing an interest and tendencies. In other words, they voluntarily participate in the learning activities instead of by obligation. One can interpret creative drama as an alternative method that ensures learning during the lesson rather than postponing it to a later period.

Discussion

Looking at the Information Form on Interest in Art in general, it may be stated that the art education lessons created awareness in participants with respect to the concepts of art and artist, and promoted their interests in art. The creative drama method used in the study group may have led to an increase in the participants' levels of interest in artists. One can say that the participants adopted new criteria for their perception of "artist".

In terms of interest arousing, the study group was observed to have experienced a greater increase in their levels of interest in art and the art education course. They were observed to be more curious and participate more willingly. Participants in the study group were observed to have a tendency towards using the creative method in the future. In terms of the social skills, participants in the study group were observed to have socialized with the help of the creative drama method and improved their communication skills, overcome shyness, engaged in more exchange and cooperation, were able to speak in front of the public more confidently, and knew their peers better. Participants in the study group mentioned that the creative drama method removed prejudices and the anxiety to make mistakes by ensuring self-development and independent thinking, improving the sense of confidence and empathy skills, promoting respect towards other opinions, improving imagination and self-confidence, facilitating the ability to recognize one's own mistakes, evaluate oneself, express oneself comfortably, be happy, and develop creativity. After the experiment, participants in the study group mentioned that art was necessary for everyone, and emphasized the importance of self-development. They stated that other courses may also be taught using the creative drama method and that the teaching of art education through creative drama during one semester would be a good preparation for the drama course. With respect to the thinking skills, most of the participants in the study group highlighted that the creative drama method improved critical thinking skills.

Participants of the study group expressed that the teachers made them feel comfortable and the participation of the teacher was important in attracting attention to the lesson. The statement by Glasser (1999, p. 313) saying, "As teachers attract the attentions of their students, students will become more active in classrooms," is supportive of this view.

With respect to the classroom environment, the participants in the study group mentioned that it was comfortable, intimate, and vast, while they emphasized the importance of material richness as well as visualization. In terms of teaching, the participants in the study group mentioned that the games increased their motivation, they learned and had fun at the same time, the creative drama method extended their motivation periods, and learning was interactive. In terms of the interest in art, participants of the study group expressed after the experiment that they were interested in artistic events, they valued works of art more than they used to, and that there was an increase in the number of books, magazines, and TV shows about art that they followed.

As for the academic achievement, participants in the study group indicated that the creative drama method used in the art education courses had an effect on their ability to recognize the fields of art, artists, artistic movements, and works of art, as well as examining and interpreting the works of art and attaining knowledge and general culture. Participants in the control group stated that they were able to recognize the fields of art, artists, artistic movements, and works of art in the art education course and learned how to examine and interpret the works of art through the knowledge acquired and general culture that was learned. In terms of the learning skills, participants in the study group emphasized "permanent learning" more than the participants of the control group. It was mentioned by the participants in the study group that the creative drama method enabled them to learn by doing, experiencing and concretization, and that the creative drama method was a student-centered method facilitating learning and ensuring cooperative learning. The following statement by Glasser (2000, p. 75) is supportive of this result: "Art, particularly music and drama, would naturally encourage human beings to integrate in a cooperative system." Although the emphasis on academic achievement was similar, there were differences favoring the study group with respect to the affective and social skills. Some of the participants in the control group highlighted that there was continuous instruction during the lesson that the lesson was boring as it was taught theoretically, that there was a monotonous instruction, and that the traditional approach would not ensure permanent learning.

It was stated by the participants in the study group that, through the creative drama method, they were able to perform brain storming, participate in the lesson actively, execute group work, enable each participant to make a comment, produce a product, improve their interpretation skills, and use various techniques. Participants in the study group mentioned that after the experiment, they were able to distinguish between a real artist and those who are not, there was an increase in the number of artists they knew and they recognized that there were different artists. As a result, the study revealed that the creative drama method had an impact on participants' achievements in the art education course. This fits with prior research that has shown that art has a positive effect on academic achievement. For instance, Glasser (2000, p. 75) found that the "Academic achievement levels of the teenagers in the Santa Monica orchestra were much better due to being a member of a qualified music group."

Conclusions

The post-test scores of the control and study groups obtained from the Information Form on Interest in Art were observed to have differed statistically. The mean score of the study group obtained from the post-test was found to be higher than the mean score of the control group obtained from the post-test and a significant difference was observed between the average scores. In this respect, one can say that creative drama is an effective method in increasing the level of interest in art. Conclusions of the certain studies in the literature support this finding. For instance, in the study by Lin (2010, p. 108), it was concluded that there was a positive improvement in students' creativity, imagination, independent thinking, and risk taking qualifications. In the study by Ozdemir, Akfirat, & Adiguzel (2009), creative drama was found to be beneficial in terms of students' individual development,

creativity, socialization, and self-expression. According to Okoronkwo & Chuckwu (2011), creative drama could support the cognitive development of a child while improving his/her creativity, ensuring his/her socialization and creating a natural environment for him/her to express her/himself. In this respect, these views are found to be in line with the research conclusions. Antepi & Ceylan (2009) indicated in their study that creative drama enabled pre-service teachers to strengthen their interpersonal relationships, gain self-confidence, and express themselves effectively.

The post-test scores of the control and study groups obtained from the Art Education Achievement Test differed statistically. The mean score of the study group obtained from the post-test was found to be higher than the mean score of the control group obtained from the post-test. This difference, which was not found to be significant, is in favor of the study group. It was not surprising to obtain no significant difference regarding the level of knowledge as the achievements/targets about the level of knowledge were the typical indicators of the traditional approach. In this respect, the creative drama method used in the art education course may be considered as an effective factor in increasing the achievement levels of pre-service teachers in art education courses. In terms of academic achievement, the results of the study were in line with the conclusions of certain studies in the literature. In the study by Adiguzel & Timucin (2010), the creative drama method was found to have a positive impact on the academic achievement levels of students. Research by Miller et al. (1989, p. 28) concluded that the use of drama in the classroom would encourage students to learn and attract their attention to a particular topic. Gumuslu (2009) mentioned in his study that creative drama could be an effective method to be used in graphic design and advertising courses. Creative drama studies were found to enable students to gain significant achievements in terms of their personal development and fields of interest. In a similar study by Sefer & Akfirat (2009), it was stated that creative drama provided more active participation of the participants when compared to the traditional methods and that creative drama activities supported by games and animations would create an environment where the participants could comfortably express themselves, which increased their motivation levels and facilitated their learning.

Ultimately, our results fit with the similar conclusions that have been reached in other studies. However, it is necessary to mention the strengths of the study in terms of quality. According to Glasser (1999, p. 312): "Education is the process during which we understand that learning adds quality to our lives." The results of this study have shown that the creative drama method administered in the study group not only increased the participants' levels of achievement in art education and levels of interest in art, but also contributed to them in terms of affective and social skills. This made the lesson more interesting and led to obtaining stronger results when compared to the control group. The art education course, carried out with the creative drama method, addressed the requirements and individual characteristics of a student rather than considering the student as an object. "According to the control theory, all human beings are born with the five basic needs that have been coded in their genetic structures: survival, love, power, fun, and independence." (Glasser, 1999, p. 50). "Since our birth, all our behaviors are dedicated to the satisfaction of these needs. Therefore, quality is everything that enables us to continuously address one or more of those basic needs." (Glasser, 2000, p. 17). In this respect, the creative drama method may be considered to address these basic needs or create such opportunities. Hence, one can say that the participants in the study group received a better education when compared to the participants in the control group. It would be appropriate to suggest that art is necessary for a better educational approach.

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The Perception Levels of Secondary Education Students Regarding the Concept of Village: The Case of Çanakkale

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Abstract

This study mainly aimed to determine the perceptions and definitions of the secondary education students receiving education in three different secondary education institutions located in the central district of Çanakkale Province in the 2012-2013 academic year regarding the concept of “village” through metaphors. Another aim of the study was revealing the misconceptions of the students regarding the concept of “village”. According to the research results, the students produced 56 valid metaphors in regard to the concept of “village”. These metaphors were evaluated through division into 13 different conceptual categories based on their common features. According to these conceptual categories, the concept of village was firstly divided into two groups in the minds of children: 1. Good/ Positive; 2. Bad / Negative. 278 students (122 females and 156 males) participated in the study.

Key Words: Village, Metaphor, Geography Education, Secondary Education Students

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Introduction

The areas to which people are materially and spiritually bound and where they live and work in order to fulfill their sheltering, protection, and other vital needs are called 'settlements'. Since settlements include human beings, they are not only places of sheltering, but also areas with a history having unique social, cultural, and economic functions (Girgin, 1995). Settlements can be classified based on their social, cultural, and economic functions. In this regard, the major distinction used in the entire world is rural settlement-urban settlement distinction. Rural settlements include small settlements that fulfill functions mostly based on primary economic activities and are located in rural areas. Being the most important rural settlement, village can be considered the smallest settlement. According to the definition in the village law introduced in Turkey in 1924, any settlement with a population of less than 2000 is called village, which is stated to consist of collective goods such as mosque, school, grassland, pasture, and coppice forest and people living in collective or dispersed houses along with their vineyards, orchards, and fields (Resmi Gazete, 1924). Villages, which are permanent settlements, make up the main frame of rural settlements in Turkey.

According to Geray (1975, a village, being a unit of rural settlement, is an area where there is not a developed division of labor, economy depends on agriculture and stockbreeding, extended family culture and face-to-face neighborhood relations prevail, and thus communities different from urban communities live. Villages are communities with population less than urban areas that are more intertwined with geography and nature, are located in various geographical and ecological areas, and have unique labor, social organization, culture, proper name, and history.

Urbanization, which can be shortly defined as increase in the number of cities and population in such cities, is a global phenomenon accelerating in parallel with industrialization in the 19th century (Keleş, 1972; Atalay, 1983). While the phenomenon of urbanization consists of ecological, economic, and demographic qualifications, the cultural dimension of the social structure emerging as a result of urbanization is expressed by the concept of "urbanization culture" (Sezal, 1992). Keleş (1998) describes urbanization culture as a process that brings about changes in the behaviors, values, and life styles of people participating in the urbanization process. While the western urbanization emerged in direct relation to industrialization (Güngör, 1990), urbanization is not directly related to industrialization in some developing countries like Turkey. Thus, urbanization and urbanization culture do not seem to be simultaneously developing phenomena in such communities. Urbanization occurs firstly, and then comes urbanization culture (Karaman, 2003).

The phenomenon of urbanization in Turkey can be associated with "village blocks" rather than "city blocks" as in the West. Such urbanization does not depend on industrialization, and only the village culture has been moved to cities (Sezal, 1981). Keleş (1972) states that the village blocks approach is open to criticism, and its does not mean anything beyond that the countrymen arriving in cities have not adapted to the urban life yet, and maintain their rural values and lives temporarily. Thus, it can be said that some cultural differences emerge in urban spaces in urbanization processes in Turkey.

The cultural differences emerging in the process of urbanization affect conceptual perceptions, too. For example, Dewey (1972), who addresses the issue from a different perspective conceptually, states that the concept of "village" is generally associated with backwardness, traditionalism, and conservatism in the discourses of academicians, politicians, and bureaucrats. As stated before, rural-urban migrations underlie the urbanization in Turkey, unlike the urbanization in the Western world. At the present time, most of the people living in cities are in the process of urbanization culture, and sustain their material or spiritual ties with their villages. Thus, it cannot be said that the Turkish society is unacquainted with the concept of village. What about the perceptions of the new generation mostly born in cities and having a life style intertwined with urban values in the urbanization process regarding the concept of village? How do they describe the concept of village? How can it be used in geography education? Based on these questions, the present study dealt with and evaluated the

perceptions and definitions of the secondary education students living in the central district of Çanakkale Province regarding the concept of “village” through metaphors.

Location of the Study

Çanakkale was chosen as the urban location in this study. Çanakkale is situated in the northwest of Turkey and in the south of the Marmara Region. Divided into two by the Dardanelles, the territory of the province consists of the Gallipoli Peninsula in Thrace, the Biga Peninsula in Anatolia, and Gökçeada and Bozcaada in the Aegean Sea. Çanakkale is located between the east longitudes of 25° 35' and 27° 45' and between the north latitudes of 39° 30' and 40° 45'. It has an area of 9,737 km². Although it is situated in the Marmara Region, which is one of the most developed regions of Turkey, it does not hold a considerable population of the region. As per the 2013 data, total population of the province is 502,328. However, only 149,881 people live in the central district of the province. While 57% of the total population (288,770) lives in urban areas, 43% (213,558) lives in rural areas. In this regard, urbanization process continues in the province where rural activity is noteworthy.

Initially, Çanakkale city started to shape around a strategically important castle (the Çimenlik Castle) set up for protecting the Dardanelles line. The settlement expanded on the delta plain formed by Sarıçay flowing into the strait in the east-west direction. It has access to such big cities surrounding it as Istanbul, Izmir, Bursa, and Balıkesir by road. The immigrants coming from the Balkans besides those coming from the rural areas of the province after the World War I have a considerable contribution to the population of the central district (the city). The city continued to let in immigrants from close and far places in the post-war period, and came to have a population of 116,000 (TUIK, ADNKS, 2013). With this population, it is included in the category of medium-sized cities. Thanks to Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University founded in 1992, it has a growing trend both in terms of population and economically, socially, and culturally. Functionally, the city can be considered a city of education and tourism. Three national parks located within the borders of the city, Gelibolu, Troy, and Mount Ida (partly) attract tourists. The coastal towns and summer resorts of the province attract many visitors in spring and summer months in particular. Various education units founded within the body of the university and admitting students contribute to the variation of lines of business and to the increase of employment rate in the city. The inhabitants of the city have close relations with their immediate surroundings. The number of rural settlements affiliated to the central district of Çanakkale Province is 54. The economy of Çanakkale mainly depends on agriculture and stockbreeding. Fruit growing (peach, apricot, cherry) is locally and regionally important in the regions close to sea that are affiliated to the central district. Vegetable growing is becoming widespread, too. A considerable amount of the demands of the weekly open markets set up in the central district and its immediate vicinity and those of the supermarket-like businesses, which increase day by day, are met by rural settlements. In Çanakkale Province, urban population and rural population are intertwined. Local population maintains its strong ties with the villages. Those living in villages gain economic returns by selling their products to weekly open markets and supermarkets besides meeting their own needs through the agricultural activities they conduct on their lands. The high demands and preferences of those living in the urban areas play an important role in the continuance of strong urban-rural ties.

Aim of the study

This study aimed at determining the perception levels of the secondary education students regarding the concept of “village”. To this end, the study made an attempt to answer the below-mentioned questions:

1. With what metaphors do the secondary education students associate the concept of village?
2. What is the definition of village according to the secondary education students?

Research Method

Research Design

This study employed the phenomenological design – a qualitative research design. This design focuses on the phenomena which we are aware of, but we do not have any depth and detailed understanding of. Phenomena confront us in various forms such as events, experiences, perceptions, tendencies, concepts, and situations. However, this acquaintance does not mean that we understand phenomena absolutely. The phenomenological design provides an appropriate research basis for the studies aimed at searching the phenomena that are not completely foreign to us, but we fail to comprehend the full meaning of (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2006). In other words, the research area of phenomenology is describing the essence of the consciousness (Sönmez and Alacapınar, 2011).

Study Group

The study group consisted of 278 students, 122 (43.88%) of whom were females and 156 (56.12%) of whom were males, studying in three secondary education schools named Vahit Tuna Anatolian High School, İMKB Industrial Vocational High School, and TOKİ Anatolian High School in the 2012-2013 academic year. The first two of these high schools were located in the Esenler Neighborhood of the central district of Çanakkale Province, and the last one was located in the Hamidiye Neighborhood of the central district of Çanakkale Province. Data related to the study group are provided in table 1.

Table 1. The Frequency and Proportional Distribution of the High Schools Students in the Study Group by Gender

Gender	Frequency (f)	Ratio (%)
Female	122	44.3
Male	156	56.7
Total	278	100

Data Collection

A semi-structured and non-directive interview form containing the following two statements was presented to the 9th, 10th, and 11th grade students included in the present study:

- 1) “When village is mentioned, what comes into my mind is, because”;
- 2) “A village is”.

Enough time was given to the students for them to deliver their opinions. Such forms filled up by the secondary education students were the main data source of the present study.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The research data were analyzed through content analysis, which is defined as a systematic and repetitive technique whereby some words of a text are summarized with smaller content categories through coding based on specific rules (Büyüköztürk et al., 2009). The main goal of content analysis is to reach concepts and relations that can explain the collected data. The data summarized and

interpreted in descriptive analysis are subjected to a deeper process in content analysis, and the concepts and themes that cannot be noticed through a descriptive approach can be discovered via this analysis (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2006).

Data analysis and interpretation stage was constructed based on similar studies (Saban, 2009; Coşkun, 2011; Eraslan Çapan, 2010; Hacifazlıoğlu, Karadeniz and Dalgıç, 2011). The data obtained from the study group were analyzed at the following five stages; (i) coding and eliminating, (ii) sample metaphor compilation, (iii) category development, (iv) validity and reliability, and (v) data transfer into computer environment.

Coding and Eliminating Stage: At this stage, firstly the metaphors created by the participants were arranged in an alphabetical order, thereby producing a temporary list. It was examined whether or not the metaphors had been expressed clearly in the writing of the participants. X forms that were determined to contain no metaphor definition were left out of the study, and thus the study continued with XX forms.

Sample Metaphor Compilation Stage: The metaphors were re-arranged in an alphabetical order, and the raw data were revised for the second time. A sample metaphor statement was selected from each form representing a metaphor filled up by the participants. In this way, for each one of 48 metaphors, a “sample metaphor list” was created through the compilation of the metaphor images provided by the participants assumed to represent it best. This list was created for two main purposes: (i) Use as a reference guide; (ii) Validation of the data analysis and interpretation process of the study.

Category Development Stage: The metaphors created by the participants of the survey were examined in terms of the features they contained in regard to the concept of village. Based on the list created for X metaphors, how each metaphor image conceptualized the *phenomenon* of village was examined. To this end, each metaphor produced by the participants was analyzed in terms of its topic, source, and the relationship between its topic and its source, thereby creating X different conceptual categories through associating each metaphor image with a specific theme in terms of the perspective it held in regard to the concept of village.

Validity and Reliability Stage: Validity and reliability are the most frequently used criteria for ensuring the credibility of the results of scientific research. Detailed reporting of the collected data and explanation of how the researcher has reached relevant results are among important criteria for the reliability of a study (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2006) In the present study, after the research data were coded and categories were developed based on such data by two separate experts independently, two works were compared, and the detected differences were rearranged by receiving the opinions of a third expert. Later, to determine the reliability of the study, the list containing X metaphors and the list including X different conceptual categories were given to a domain expert who was asked to match the first list with the second list. After the number of agreements and the number of disagreements were determined by comparing the list created by the experts and the list produced by the researcher, the reliability of the study was calculated as per the following formula of Miles and Huberman (1994): “Reliability= ((Number of Agreements):(Number of Agreements + Number of Disagreements)) x 100”. On the basis of this reliability analysis, the reliability of the study was calculated to be 0.92. The formulization of this operation is as follows:

$$[Reliability= ((75):(75+8))x100 \Rightarrow Reliability= 90.3\%]$$

In qualitative research, the desired level of reliability is achieved when the concordance between the evaluations of expert and researcher is not less than 90% (Saban, 2008).

Findings

When the emergent metaphors were evaluated based on their contents, they were included in 13 different categories associated with the perceptions of the students regarding the concept of village. Table 2 presents such categories along with the number of metaphors they contained.

Table 2. The metaphors by categories.

No	Category	Sample Metaphors	Frequency (f)
1	Natural Life	Naturalness, Natural Production, Organic Food, Village Bread, Healthy Life	68
2	Nature	Greenery, Clean Air, Clean Environment, Natural Environment, Forest, Landscape	68
3	Stockbreeding	Animals, Stable, Cow, Goat, Sheep, Bees	49
4	Agriculture	Fields, Vineyard, Orchard, Farming	49
5	Low Population	Small Settlement, Few People, Sparse, Isolated Settlements	46
6	Neighborhood	Sincerity, Brotherhood, Cooperation, Sharing	26
7	Relatives	Mother, Father, Grandfather, Grandmother, Old People, Family	25
8	Low Educational Level	Gossip, Prejudice, Blood Feuds, Ignorance	23
9	Rural Life Conditions	Difficult Conditions, Inadequate Health and Education Facilities, Boring, Turd Odor	23
10	Underdevelopment	Inadequate Technology, Earth Roads, Transportation Difficulties, Unemployment	20
11	Dwelling Type	Small Houses, Bungalows, Garden Houses	19
12	Geomorphology	Mountain, Slope, Incline	14
13	Freedom	Being Free, Freedom,	7

Note: The students were allowed to use more than one metaphor in regard to the concept of village.

The evaluation of the categories in terms of the metaphors they contained showed that there were positive and negative perceptual approaches to the concept of village. Accordingly, while underdevelopment, low educational level, geomorphology, rural life conditions, and low population were negative categories, the other ones were positive categories (Table 3). Thus, based on the metaphors included in the categories, it can be said that the percentage of the positive perceptions held by the students in regard to the concept of village was 71%, and that of the negative perceptions held by them was 29%.

Table 3. Positive and negative categories.

Categories Containing Positive Statements		Categories Containing Negative Statements	
Category	Frequency (<i>f</i>)	Category	Frequency (<i>f</i>)
Natural Life	68	Low Population	46
Nature	68	Rural Life Conditions	23
Agriculture	49	Low Educational Level	23
Stockbreeding	49	Underdevelopment	20
Neighborhood	26	Geomorphology	14
Relatives	25		
Dwelling Type	19		
Freedom	5		
Total and %:	309 (71%)	Total and %:	126 (29%)

The examination of the definition categories showed that almost all of the students mentally included agriculture and stockbreeding in the definition of village. They were followed by nature descriptions and natural life features (e.g. naturalness, natural production, organic food, village bread, clean air, clean environment, natural environment, forest, landscape, etc.). Some other positive points stated by the students were relationships by affinity and the living of the relatives and parents of mother and father there. In addition, the students stated that neighborhood relations, cooperation, sharing, and sincerity were more intense in villages in comparison to cities. Another point stated in the definitions of village was the existence of bungalows and garden houses that implied a more prosperous life.

On the other hand, the students also had a population-oriented perspective on the concept of village. The students made such definitions as “Underpopulated settlements”, “Small settlements”, and “Peaceful and quiet places”.

The students, who used many positive and negative concepts together, described the “village” also as an underdeveloped place where road and transportation were inadequate, there were technological inadequacies, and education and health facilities were insufficient. The fact that one of the students defined the village as a hardship area and a settlement with underdeveloped facilities indicates that villages may be perceived as places where employment opportunities and social facilities are inadequate. The definition suggesting that “villages are the places where people sit in coffee houses” points to the examples of unemployment or short-term agricultural labor that reflect on space. The emphasis put on transportation and communication inadequacies manifests itself in such metaphorical definitions based on perceptual images reflecting the topographic characteristics of villages as rugged terrain, mountain, and incline.

One of the students who said, “The villages are somewhat bygone” implied that the villages were behind the times. Some other definitions involving statements like “A village is the space of grandfathers, and young population is low there” implicitly emphasize that young population does not live in villages, but moves to cities, and there is rural-urban migration.

Such descriptions as the limitedness of sources of income, the broadness of agricultural areas, and low population included in the definitions of the concept of village by the students are parallel with the known official definitions of the concept of village suggesting that a village is a place where economic activities mostly based on agriculture and stockbreeding are carried out. On the other hand, statements like “We obtain all the food we eat from villages” and “What could we feed on if

countrymen were not engaged in this business (agriculture/stockbreeding)” point to the commitment to these areas in a sense. It is seen that comparisons were made against the cities.

The examination of the metaphors produced by the students and the definition categories created based on such metaphors revealed that while some of the students regarded the natural life, quietness, and peace environment far from the urban chaos and noise prevailing in the village as freedom and happiness, some students stated that it would be boring after a while.

The fact that some students considered the village a natural life environment where inhabitants met their own food and dressing needs demonstrated that the villages where traditional production style prevailed did not involve division of labor and specialization as the cities did, but the people living in the villages could continue their lives independently of others when they stayed alone. The following student statement verifies this determination, too: “To me, a village means a community living under hard conditions.”

The description of the village by a student as a place where poor but well-intentioned people live reveals that moral traditions still continue their existence in the villages to the contrary of ambition for money and position in the cities. The following student statement means that what is considered a need in the cities may stop being a need in the villages: “A village is a place where no money is needed”.

The definitions suggesting that the villages are the settlements where traditions are preserved, different dialects are spoken, and people dress differently demonstrate, in fact, that the villages are the only places where all religious, cultural, and traditional values are maintained.

Some definitions put forward by the students in regard to the concept of village through the interviews reveal also their mind maps concerning the above-mentioned concept. Some of them are as follows:

- “A place far from any kind of stress where in general, old people prefer to live and transportation depends on donkeys and horses.” (The phenomenon of migration of young population is highlighted through putting an emphasis on old people).
- “Underpopulated settlements where cows and goats walk around and are grazed in the streets” (Stockbreeding as a main factor and underdevelopment are highlighted).
- “A natural life environment where inhabitants meet their own food and dressing needs” (Lack of division of labor, which normally prevails in urban areas, and traditional production type are highlighted).
- “A place where traditions and customs are maintained” (The continuance of traditions and customs is highlighted to the contrary of the cities).
- “A place where poor, but well-intentioned people live” (A sociological definition is provided).
- “A village is a hardship area underdeveloped in terms of facilities” (The inadequacy of socio-economic activities is highlighted).
- “Places where people live less in comparison to the past”, “The space of grandfathers”, “Young population is low” (The phenomenon of migration and low population are highlighted).
- “An environment where the meaning of life is understood best thanks to intertwinedness with the nature, and everything is obtained by labor.” (Traditional production and naturalness are highlighted).
- “Villages are the nutritional sources of cities.” “We obtain all the food we eat from villages. What could we feed on if countrymen were not engaged in this business?” (It is highlighted that villages are the places providing essential nutrients for cities, and the production function of villages is emphasized).
- “Villages are the places where agricultural and rural works bring money.” (It is highlighted that source of income is agricultural production in the villages).

- “*Villages are somewhat bygone*” (It is highlighted that villages are behind the modern age).
- “*Villages are places where sources of income are limited*” (It is highlighted that economic function is simple and plain).
- “*Villages are the places having broad agricultural areas, but a low population*”, “*Villages are places where old people and farmers live*” (The economic function and the phenomenon of migration are highlighted).
- “*It has a different dialect*”, “*Traditions and Dialect*”, “*Villages are the places where people dress differently.*” (Local cultural features are highlighted).
- “*Villages are the places visited very rarely*”, “*Villages are the places where people sit in coffee houses*” (Daily life in the villages is highlighted).

The second gap-filling statement presented to the students was “A village is” With this statement, the students were asked to define the concept of village. The results were examined in three categories: “correct”, “deficient”, and “incorrect”. It was seen that most of the students had some deficiencies in definitions rather than misconceptions. In this regard, it was realized that while approximately 84.5% (n=246) of the students defined the concept deficiently, almost 15.5% (n=32) correctly defined the concept by focusing on different aspects of it.

Conclusion

This study, which was conducted in order to reveal the village perceptions of the secondary education students studying within the borders of the central district of Çanakkale Province, generally demonstrated that the students had more positive perceptions than negative perceptions in regard to the concept of village. It was seen that the number of the positive images in the students’ minds (n= 309) was much bigger than the number of the negative images in their minds (n= 126). Of 14 categories created based on the metaphors and images included in the student answers, 8 were positive, and 6 were negative. While some of the students used such categories along with only positive or only negative metaphors, some others used them in a mixed manner as they put an emphasis on both positive and negative aspects of villages.

One of the prominent phenomena in the current study was “agriculture and stockbreeding”. As is known, one of the essential phenomena included in the definition of the concept of village is the following, “Villages are the settlements where the main source of income is agriculture and stockbreeding”. Here, the students gave a wide coverage to this phenomenon both in metaphors and in definitions. Another attention-grabbing issue in the study is the phenomenon of migration. This is because; villages are now regarded as boring and underdeveloped places where mostly old people live, employment opportunities are inadequate, life conditions are hard due to climate and topographical conditions, and various conflicts take place due to ignorance, and thus which are only visited in summer months for visiting relatives and being engaged in some recreational activities.

Among the metaphors containing positive images, some frequently mentioned ones are Naturalness, Natural Production, Organic Food, Village Bread, and Healthy life that are followed by Freedom, Clean Air, Clean Environment, Natural Environment, Forest, and Landscapes. Apart from that, such metaphors as mother, father, grandfather, grandmother, old people, family, sincerity, brotherhood, cooperation, and sharing emphasize relationship by affinity and a sincere environment.

Among the negative images developed by the students or kept by them in their minds in regard to the concept of village, underdevelopment of villages appears to be the most important category. Some other important metaphors in this matter are the inadequacy of transportation and communication facilities, insufficiency of health and education facilities, and lack of social facilities.

Low population in villages makes investment opportunities inadequate, too. Scarce and isolated settlements make it difficult to provide infrastructure services, various municipal services, and social services. As a result, it is not possible to work in sectors other than agriculture and stockbreeding. Thus, villages are regarded only as recreational areas.

It was determined that the villages of their parents played an important part in the village perceptions of the students participating in the study. This is because; their parents visited their villages in summer months or in specific periods of the year for holiday purposes, for visiting their parents or relatives, or due to various reasons such as disease, funeral, etc. Media may also have been influential on that.

It was determined that the metaphors produced by the students in regard to the concept of village varied by gender. In this respect, while the inadequacy of social facilities and the existence of difficult and hard conditions in villages were stated by the female students, the inadequacy of employment opportunities and the insufficiency of health and education facilities were expressed by the male students.

In essence, it was seen that the students mostly found village life and life conditions in village favorable. However, that mostly reflected the effects of the childhood memories and short-term village visits of the students. The examination of the domestic migration movements in Turkey after 1960 shows that rural-urban migration has resulted from lack of adequate social facilities and employment opportunities in villages despite natural and healthy life there. That is clearly observed in the answers of the students to the above-mentioned open-ended questions.

Moreover, it was noticed that our cultural background based on our ever-present civilization and involving all beauties, colors, traditional dressing types, traditional production types, local speeches, and life styles still continues its existence in villages. These elements disappear slowly in the urban areas as a result of migration.

All in all, it was realized that many factors including gender, life experiences, written and visual media, etc. were influential on the conceptualization of various events and phenomena by the students as well as the creation of mind maps regarding such concepts. The metaphors developed by the students living in cities in regard to the concept of village and the metaphors produced by the students living in villages in regard to the concept of city may be dealt with in the future studies.

Implications

It was found that the students had different views about the village life. Thus, these settlements may be introduced to the students via trips. Villages are already quite suitable administrative units for educational visits and field surveys in the subjects of Social Studies, Geography, History, and Sociology. The research trips to be held at primary education level and secondary education level may deal with land use, settlement types, dwelling types, and the connections of such economic sectors as agriculture, stockbreeding, forestry, and tourism with urban areas. The students may undergo the experience of learning about population and structure of rural areas, rural-urban migrations, and the causes of such migrations by seeing and asking within the framework of pre-planned educational activities. Villages vary by population, the type of basic source of income, the design of sources of income, land use characteristics, and traditions. Such variation is closely related to physical, human, and cultural characteristics. The observation of human-environment relations in rural areas may make valuable contributions to the educational experiences of the students.

For the students to know villages via trips, necessary information about the villages to be visited should be given to the students in advance, relevant brochures should be distributed in this matter, and they should be made to watch CDs/DVDs about the places to be visited. In this way, the students should be made to adopt such life mentally prior to going to these places.

Trips should be included in curricula to ensure their frequent implementation. This is because; although the students living in the rural areas come to know the urban life closely through visits for various reasons, the students living in the urban areas have very limited opportunities to visit villages and to know undisturbed rural areas. Therefore, the goal of making the students living and receiving

education in the urban areas know the rural areas and villages closely should definitely be included in *curricula*.

Some joint educational efforts and projects to be made or conducted through sister school initiatives between urban schools and rural schools may contribute to the realization of a successful cooperation in this field. In addition, the social responsibility projects determined, planned, and implemented through the gathering of the students living in the rural areas and those living in the urban areas may serve as unique models achieving many educational goals.

The geographical and environmental conditions of provinces are quite different from one another. Thus, efforts and activities bringing together the students living in rural areas and those living in urban areas together and aiming at spatial examinations at provincial scale should be included in *curricula*. This matter should be addressed and planned at provincial level. These kinds of educational efforts and activities may make an important contribution to knowing local, environmental, human, and economic resources as well as different social life styles, traditions, and cultures, and providing the students with a spatial awareness and improving such awareness.

Furthermore, the students may be made to pick fruits from the plants growing in the orchards in villages for them to understand how and in what conditions plants are grown there. Likewise, the students may be provided with an opportunity to learn how animals are raised and fed by doing and experiencing.

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Evaluation of Bullying Events among Secondary Education Students in Terms of School Type, Gender and Class Level

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Abstract

This paper examines whether the intensity and amount of bullying and/or being bullied among secondary education students vary significantly according to gender, school type and class levels. The scanning method was used in the research. The research sample consisted of 213 students, 96 female and 117 male, who were enrolled in secondary education in the Fatsa district of Ordu province during the first semester of the 2013-14 school year. No significant gender differences were identified with regard to either bullying or being bullied. In terms of school type, it was found that students in trade vocational high schools exhibited bullying acts more than students in other high school types, while students in industrial vocational high schools were bullied more than students in other high school types. Additionally, it was found that bullying and being bullied were both more prevalent among students in the 12th class than among students in other class levels.

Keywords: *Bully, Bullied, Bullying, Secondary Education Students*

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Introduction

Humans are biological, cultural, psychological and social beings. The social side of humans is related to efficient compliance with the environment they are in. Many social institutions, especially families, function to realize this goal. However, schools are institutions that are created specifically for the purpose of socializing students. For schools to achieve this goal, their curricula, staff and physical conditions as well as the social circles of their students are vital. The behavior patterns and value judgements of the students' social circles are likewise important in every term. However, these behavior patterns and value judgements may overcome the values promulgated by both school and family, especially during puberty. Therefore, the communication and interaction patterns in the social circles of pubescent students are important to the educational process as a whole. When these interactions are beneficial, they may contribute to students' adopting positive behaviors, including sharing, cooperation, protection of their own rights, and respecting the rights of others. Nevertheless, communication and interaction between students at school may not always serve such purposes. Bullying is one type of negative interaction that prevents students from adopting positive social behaviors.

The first studies of bullying were conducted in the 1970s by Olweus, who later defined bullying as repeated negative behaviors by one or more individuals directed against weaker individuals (1993). Besag (1995) further developed Olweus' definition, as repeated physical, psychological, social or oral assaults carried out by a strong individual or individuals against individuals who are not strong enough to stand up against them; while Roland and Munthe (1989) defined bullying as long-term and systematic, psychological or physical violence committed against an individual who is not capable of defending him- or herself. Wallace and Shute (2009) define it as one student causing fear, damage or stress to another student through physical, verbal or psychological assault. Piskin (2002), who examined the different definitions in the literature, defined bullying as a kind of aggressiveness carried out by one or more students against weaker students, resulting in the constant and purposeful disturbance of the victims, who are in no position to protect themselves.

According to Koc (2006), bullying is an important academic and disciplinary problem. It especially impacts the victims, but all students in a school where it takes place are also affected. However, because of many problems such as limited time and budgetary opportunities, workloads, and lack of effective leadership, schools tend not to prioritize the solution of bullying problems among their students. Only a small proportion of schools have carried out serious studies in support of bullying prevention, while most either routinely ignore bullying events, or expect someone else to solve such problems. Yet, bullying has a range of negative effects on students' academic achievement and personality development: negatively affecting their social, emotional, behavioral and academic development (Toksoz, 2010); and if school staff tolerate an atmosphere of bullying, this may cause students to fear going to school and result in physical, emotional and social changes among them (Koc, 2006). That bullied students develop negative attitudes towards their teachers and friends, and have lower academic achievement, are important results supported by research findings (Lai, Ye & Chang, 2008). Bullying acts can cause stomach aches and headaches, sleeping and eating disorders and concentration impairments in the victims, as well as long-term problems such as depression, hyperactivity, drug use, antisocial behaviors and the use of guns (Anderson & Swiatowy, 2008). Elliot (1997) points out that bullying students likewise have low levels of school success and low self-esteem, while Fitzgerald (1999) finds that bullies are jealous of others' achievements, have trouble admitting defeat, often fail, and are short-tempered in their relationships. Research also demonstrates that students with bullying habits continue these acts after school-age; that their children also tend to exhibit the same kind of behaviors; and that the children of bullying victims are more likely to be victims as well (Farrington, 1993).

Research studies also show that bullying is related to many other problems. For instance, Bosword and Espelage (2000) identify a linear relationship between behavioral and psychosocial variables of bullying and the frequency of misconduct. Bullying students exhibit more antisocial behaviors than their non-bullying peers and have a negative image among other students at school

(Klicpera & Klicpera, 1996). According to Bently and Li (1995), bullying students have more aggression-triggering beliefs than others.

A thorough examination of existing literature related to the extent of bullying reveals that, in almost every country, the rate of bullying presents a serious problem – although the detailed research findings reveal considerable variation. For example, Kaltiala-Heino et al. (1999) carried out research in Finland which found that 11% of students conduct bullying acts at least once a week, and that the same proportion of students suffer from these acts. Another study, conducted in Southern Cyprus by Stavrinides et al. (2010), found that 5.4% of students were exclusively bullies, 7.4% were only victims, and 4.2% were both bullies and victims. Similar research has indicated that 7.5% of Scottish students are bullies and 16.7% of them are victims (Karatzias, Power & Swanson, 2002); that the rate of bullied high school students ranges from 11.4% to 26.8% in Spain; and that 13% are bullies, 10.3% are victims and 6% are both in the USA (Nansel et al., 2001). Based on research in 19 countries with low and moderate national income Josephson Institute (2010) gives categorically higher figures: 50% for bullies and 47% for victims.

Though no scholarship has claimed that bullying is not a serious problem in Turkey, the research findings related to the extent of it there vary to a surprising degree. According to Yildirim (2001), 16% of Turkish schoolchildren are bullies and 26% are victims, with 23% of individuals falling into both categories. The work of Kapci (2004) would appear to support this, indicating that the proportion of students who are involved in bullying acts, either as a bully or a victim, is 40%. However, Pekel (2004) found a much lower incidence: 7.6% for bullies, 9.3% for victims and 6.4% for both. Atik (2006), meanwhile, found that the rate of bully students is 4.6%, the rate of victim students is 23%, and the proportion of students who were both bully and victim is 21.3%. Gokler (2007) found that the rate is 10% for bully students, 27% for victims and 21% for both bully and victim students. Most recently, Piskin's (2010) study claims that the rate of bully students is 6.2%, the rate of victim students is 35.1%, and the rate of both bully and victim students is just 3.2%. A general review of the studies carried in Turkey suggests that the extreme estimates range between 3.3% (Kartal and Bilgin, 2009) and 33% (Kutlu, 2005) for bullying students; between 9.3% (Pekel, 2004) and 41.3% (Kartal and Bilgin, 2009) for victims; and between 6.4% (Pekel, 2004) and 30.2% (Piskin, 2010) for students who fall into both categories. Despite significant differences between them, the findings obtained from studies both in Turkey and abroad reveal 1) that the number of victim students is consistently higher than the number of bullying students, and 2) that the rates for Turkey are high in a broad sense.

The bullying-related studies conducted in Turkey have presented the bully and victim rates in different levels of education, but the number of studies that have sought to establish these rates according to school type and class level is very limited. Therefore, for purposes of the present research, it seemed advisable to examine bullying according to school type and gender as well as class level.

Method

The following sections will describe the design of the study, the characteristics of the sample, the tools used to collect data, and the statistical techniques used in analysis of the data.

Research Design

This research examining whether the bullying and bullying-victimization experiences of students in different secondary education schools vary according to gender, class level and school type is a correlational descriptive research utilizing the scanning model.

Sample

The sample for the present research consisted of a total of 213 students, each of whom was attending one of six secondary schools in Fatsa district of Ordu province during the first semester of the 2013-14 school years. Within this group, a total of 40 students were attending a trade vocational high school, 40 an Anatolian high school, 31 an industrial vocational high school, 37 a girls' vocational high school, 35 a religious vocational high school, and 30 a medical vocational high school. In all, 96 of the students were female and 117 male. The schools and the students were both chosen using the unbiased-random method.

Data Collection Tools

This research made use of the "Peer Bullying Detection Scale-Adolescent Form" (hereafter PBDS-AF) developed by Piskin and Ayas (2007). PBDS-AF consists of two parallel scales, called the "bully scale" and the "victim scale", which involve the same items asked in different ways. The students are expected to score items in terms of how frequently they perform acts and words in the case of the bully scale, and how frequently they are exposed to acts and words in the case of the victim scale. Psychometric studies carried out on these sub-scales are summarized below.

The victim scale consists of six factors, which are: 1) physical victimhood, 2) verbal victimhood, 3) exclusion, 4) exposure to rumors, 5) damage to belongings, and 6) sexual victimhood. To evaluate the validity of this scale, first expert opinion was obtained, and then confirmatory factor analysis was performed. The results of first-order CFA found a fit index of $\chi^2=5407.73$ ($sd=1307$, $p=.00$), $\chi^2/sd=4.13$, $RMSEA=0.041$, $GFI=0.90$, $AGFI=0.89$, $CFI=0.90$, $NFI=0.96$, and $NNFI=0.97$. As the result of second-order CFA, fit index was found to be $\chi^2=5959.71$ ($sd=1315$, $p=.00$), $\chi^2/sd=4.53$, $RMSEA=0.043$, $GFI=0.89$, $AGFI=0.88$, $CFI=0.97$, $NFI=0.96$, and $NNFI=0.97$. The Cronbach α internal consistency coefficient was 0.93 for the victimhood scale as a whole; 0.82 for the physical victimhood sub-scale; 0.75 for the verbal victimhood sub-scale; 0.77 for the exclusion sub-scale; 0.75 for the exposure to rumors sub-scale; 0.80 for the damage to belongings sub-scale; and 0.88 for the sexual victimhood sub-scale.

The bully scale also consists of six sub-factors. These are: 1) physical bullying, 2) verbal bullying, 3) excluding, 4) creating rumors, 5) damaging belongings and 6) sexual bullying. To evaluate the validity of this scale, first expert opinion was obtained, and then confirmatory factor analysis was performed. As the result of first-order CFA, fit index was found to be $\chi^2=6461.32$ ($sd=1307$, $p=.00$), $\chi^2/sd=4.94$, $RMSEA=0.046$, $GFI=0.89$, $AGFI=0.88$, $CFI=0.96$, $NFI=0.95$, and $NNFI=0.96$. Following second-order CFA, fit index was $\chi^2=7298.38$ ($sd=1316$, $p=.00$), $\chi^2/sd=5.54$, $RMSEA=0.049$, $GFI=0.87$, $AGFI=0.86$, $CFI=0.96$, $NFI=0.95$, and $NNFI=0.96$. The Cronbach α internal consistency coefficient is 0.92 for the bully scale as a whole; 0.83 for the physical bullying sub-scale; 0.74 for the verbal bullying sub-scale; 0.75 for the excluding sub-scale; 0.66 for the creating rumors sub-scale; 0.79 for the damaging belongings sub-scale; and 0.88 for the sexual bullying sub-scale.

Findings

The findings obtained of the present research are presented first according to gender, then high school type and finally class level.

Table 1. *T-test results for bullying according to gender*

Gender	N	S	Sd	T	P
Female	96	70,5417	28,98599	211	-,600
Male	117	72,8803	27,73028		,54

From Table 1, it can be observed that there is no significant association between bullying and gender. (t(211)= -.600, p>05)

Table 2. *T-test results for being bullied according to gender*

Gender	N	S	Sd	T	P	
Female	96	72,6979	33,67777	211	-.286	.77
Male	117	73,8462	24,88027			

Table 2 shows that there is no significant association between gender and being a victim of bullying. (t(283)= .040, p>05)

Table 3. *ANOVA Table for Level of Bullying according to School Type*

School Type	N	\bar{x}	ss.		Mixed Total	sd	Mixed average	F	p	An. Difference
TRAD	40	80,79	38,45	Between	10748,59	5	2149,71	2.80		TRADE-MED
E				groups	7				0	
IND.	31	69,41	25,88						1	
MED	30	56,20	15,87	Within	158557,9	212	765,981			
REL.				Group	7					
VOC.	35	76,22	20,41			217				
GIRLS'	37	73,72	28,32							
ANA	40	63,67	21,52							
Total	213	71,82	28,25	Total	169306,573					

Table 3 reveals that there is a statistically significant (F(5-212)=2.80) association (p<.05) between the type of school a student attends and his/her bullying scores. In order to refine this result, Scheffe test was conducted, and it indicated that trade vocational high school students (=80,79) perform bullying acts more than medical vocational high school students (=56,20).

Table 4. ANOVA Table for Level of Being Bullied according to School Type

School Type	N	\bar{x}	ss.		Mixed Total	sd	Mixed Average	F	An. p	Difference
TRADE	40	41,49	21,63	Between groups	7211,01	5	1442,20	3,35	.	IND-REL.
MED	30	38,03	26,08							
ANA	40	34,28	18,15	Within Group	119948,96	212	429,92		0	
GIRL	37	37,72	16,20			217				
IND	31	48,22	27,48							
REL VOC	35	30,39	15,88							
Total	213	38,94	21,16	Total	127159,98					

Table 4 indicates that there is a statistically significant ($F_{(5-212)}=3.35$) association ($p<.05$) between the type of school a student attends and his/her being bullying-victimization scores. A Scheffe test revealed that in this case industrial vocational high school students ($\bar{x} =48,22$) are exposed to bullying acts more than Religious Vocational high school students ($\bar{x} =30,39$).

Table 5. ANOVA Table for Level of Bullying according to Class Level

Class	N	\bar{x}	ss.		Mixed Total	sd	Mixed Average	F	An. p	Difference
9	61	69,18	30,83	Between groups	11468,141	3	3039,31	5,06	.00	9-12
10	58	70,39	26,19							
11	46	63,73	18,75	Within Group	157838,43	209	815,823			12-11
12	48	84,66	31,22			212				
Total	213	71,82	28,25	Total	169306,573					

Table 5 reveals that there is a statistically significant difference ($F(3-212)=5.06$)($p<.05$) between students' bullying scores across class levels. A Scheffe test indicated that 12th grade students ($=84,66$) perform bullying acts more often than 9th grade students ($=69,18$), and 10th grade students ($=70,39$) perform bullying acts more often than 11th grade students ($=63,73$).

Table 6. ANOVA Table for Level of Being Bullied according to Class Level

class	N	\bar{x}	ss.		Mixed	Mixed	F	An.	p.	Difference
					Total	sd				
9	61	69,55	33,16	Between groups	9117,941	3	3039,31	3,72	.01	9-12
10	58	72,08	26,63							
11	46	67,60	19,47	Within Group	170507,05	209	815,823			12-11
12	48	85,10	31,62							
Total	213	73,32	29,10	Total	179624,995					

Table 6 shows that there is a statistically significant difference ($F_{(3-212)}=3.72$)($p<.05$) between students' bullying-victimization score across class levels. A Scheffe test revealed that 12th grade students (\bar{x} =85,10) are exposed to bullying acts significantly more than 9th grade students (\bar{x} =69,55), 10th grade students (\bar{x} =72,08) or 11th grade students (\bar{x} =67,60).

Discussion and Conclusion

Bullying is an experience that negatively affects students' cognitive, emotional, social, moral and personality development as well as their academic achievement. In spite of this, systematic study of the phenomenon began only recently, both in Turkey and abroad. According to Atik (2011), the total number of articles relating to bullying published between 1975 and 2010 is 1,703, but 85% of these articles appeared after the turn of century. Similarly, the number of bullying-related studies carried out in Turkey over the same years was just 82, of which 88% were conducted after 2005. Creating the desired safe school environments that support students-development, will only be possible through the implementation of efficient programs especially designed to prevent and deal with bullying. To be able to achieve this, reliable data related to the phenomenon that can constitute a basis for these programs is required. Most of the studies on bullying in Turkey have been based on samples of primary education students (e.g. Cayirdag, 2006; Gokler, 2007; Bektas, 2007; Alper, 2008; Ariman, 2008), while the number of studies that include high school students is very limited (Piskin&Ayas, 2005; Koc, 2006; Ayas&Piskin, 2011). As such, the present research helps to fill in a significant gap in the existing literature.

This section begins with a brief summary of the research findings after which it will discuss theoretical implications in light of both the present findings and those of previous studies.

Almost all bullying-related research conducted to date uses gender as a variable, and most such studies have found that, males both perform and are exposed to bullying acts more than females are (e.g. Baldry & Farrington, 2000, Carney & Merrell, 2001, Delfabro et al. 2006; Elliott, 1992; Eslae & Smith; 1994, Jarrett, 2001; Menesini et al., 1997; Mouttapa et al., 2004). In this respect, results obtained from research conducted in Turkey were similar to those obtained in other countries (e.g., Dolek, 2002; Pekel, 2004; Piskin & Ayas, 2005a; Bilgic, 2007; Esici, 2007; Hilmioglu, 2009; Ayas & Piskin, 2011). However, as previously mentioned the present research did not find any significant difference between male and female students either in terms of bullying or being bullied. This situation may be explained by an increase in studies intended to raise social gender awareness in Turkey in recent years. These studies have begun to convey the message that aggressive behaviors are not specific to biological gender, but are related to social gender. Violent messages both in media and

video games as well as in the social environment are effective in exhibiting bullying acts to both genders. Certainly, more research is required on this issue. Likewise, only a small amount of prior research has compared bullying across different types of school, which proved a significant factor in our sample. Cheraghi and Piskin (2011), compared the bullying and victimization levels of students attending general high schools against those attending vocational high schools in Iran. According to this research, the rate of bullying behaviors among vocational high school students is significantly higher than among general high school students. Ayas and Piskin (2011), who also compared different high school types in their research, found that private high school students engage in bullying acts more often than Anatolian high school students. The findings of the present research are consistent with above mentioned the findings. The fact that trade vocational high school students in our sample exhibited bullying behaviors more often than medical vocational high school students did may be explained by the fact that students in the former type of high school are chosen from among less successful students, and have fewer opportunities for both employment and academic advancement than their medical high school peers. The present research also found significant differences in bullying-victimization scores across different types of high school. Industrial high school students in our sample were exposed to bullying acts more than Religious Vocational high school students. Subject to further investigation, this situation may be explicable by industrial students' higher level of anxiety about their futures and low academic expectations. Religious Vocational high schools, meanwhile include religious courses in their curricula which present the message that bullying acts are not approved by the religion and this may be effective.

Examination of the bullying and bullying-victimization scores of students according to their class level also presented a statistically significant difference between 12th grade students and others. If bullying can be broadly defined as rude and domineering behavior directed against the weak by the strong. It is worth considering that 12th grade students are the eldest and therefore usually the physically strongest students at any school, which may go some way to explaining this situation. On the other hand, this finding may reflect that negative behaviors which were not corrected in previous years are indirectly reinforced, and therefore increase in frequency as time goes by. In any case, this finding of the present research is consistent with the findings of Borg (1988), Yurtal and Cenkseven (2006), and Ayas and Piskin (2011).

Despite recent increases in the number of scientific studies related to bullying, and in the number of such studies carried out in Turkey, bullying remains an important problem requiring a solution. Without doubt, it is not a problem that can be solved by schools acting alone. Families, non-governmental organizations and the media should support the studies conducted at schools. As is well known, psychological counseling and guidance services necessitate team work. The most important members of this team are undoubtedly the schools. Thus, all staff, especially the professional team can contribute to the solution of the problem by participating in raising awareness, prevention and relevant studies. Further research should focus on practical approaches that can be applied to dealing with bullying.

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Miscellany

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