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A new rendition of an old classic: The young writers program as a writing workshop

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Abstract

The Young Writers Program (YWP) is the latest writing workshop to be developed for the classroom. It challenges students to choose a topic and write a novel-length piece based on that topic, without worrying about spelling or grammar. While the foundation of this philosophy is solid, the support and structure of the Young Writers Program website does not make up for the lack of structure and routine that is instrumental to the implementation and success of other writing workshops. Until it creates a framework that teachers can implement in their classroom, the Young Writers Program has very little direction and very few benefits when compared to other, more successful, writing workshops.

Keywords: Writing, elementary, communication

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Introduction

NaNoWriMo, or National Novel Writing Month is a challenge during the month of November where everyone writes a novel of at least 50,000 words. The only prize you win is the satisfaction of knowing how few people can accomplish the feat of writing a novel in thirty days. Every year 150,000 to 200,000 people put forth the best Jack Kerouac and Ernest Hemingway impersonations possible and write as much, as fast as, possible. Quite possibly the focus is quantity over quality. The idea was first derived by Chris Baty, who had always expressed the interest to write a novel. In 1999, he and a number of friends decided that, not only were they going to write a novel, but they were going to do it in a month. Since then, the sensation has grown exponentially, and it was out of this popularity that the Young Writers Program (YWP) was created.

The Young Writers Program, created in 2004, brings the basic concept of NaNoWriMo into the classroom. Teachers sign up their classes to participate, the students set their word goals, and spend the month writing and trying to achieve them. Press releases from the Young Writers Program organizers claim that novel writing builds fluency, confidence, creativity and time management skills.

Description of the Problem

The Young Writers Program is founded on three rules: (1) the students choose the topic of their novel, (2) importance is placed on quantity of words, not quality (e.g. spelling, grammar, etc.), and (3) the students set their own goals and must achieve them in a month's time. From these three things, and under the guidance of the teacher, the magic is supposed to begin. But how solid is this foundation? Do teachers just set aside time every day for students to write? What about the almighty curriculum? Where does the Young Writers Program fit in? What about the special needs students? Can the Young Writers Program actually work?

Research Questions and Purpose

Herein we focus on three questions:

1. How does the Young Writers Program work?
2. Does the Young Writers Program have a strong, theoretical-based foundation?
3. Are there any ways in which the Young Writers Program could be improved?
4. Is the Young Writers Program a worthwhile venture to implement in the classroom?

In an effort to answer these questions, an evaluation of the Young Writers Program (YWP) unfolds in two ways. First, an examination of the program in terms of what it offers the teacher and students in terms of support and structure. Second, a comparative view of the foundation and framework of the Young Writers Program versus what the research recommends, including successful writing workshops, unfolds herein.

Rationale

The YWP is, in essence, a type of writing workshop. The writing workshop is one of the most successful and highly encouraged methods of teaching literacy in the classroom, especially in the younger grades (Jasmine & Weiner, 2007). The writing workshop process is not only about getting children to write. It has been proven that writing workshops have the ability to build up the confidence of students through writing in a structured environment (Bayer, 1999; Fu & Lamme, 2002). Students are taught important mechanics of writing, such as editing and grammar, but are also given time to write and later share what they've written. It can also be easily redesigned and changed to suit all kinds of students, including students with different learning styles (Hachem, Nabhani & Bahous, 2008; Conroy, Marchand & Webster, 2009), special education students (James, Abbott & Greenwood, 2001), students with disabilities (Enns, Hall, Isaac & MacDonald, 2007) or ESL/ESOL students (Peyton, Jones, Vincent & Greenblatt, 1994). Since the writing workshop model has the potential to be successful on many different levels, it is worth determining whether or not the YWP has the same potential in its construction and implementation.

Methodology

From the onset we looked at recommended writing strategies for students via initial research found within Ebscohost. We then realized the most prominent writing strategies was that of the writing workshop. Deciding to narrow the focus, we began researching the writing workshop model. Ray and Laminack's The Writing Workshop: Working Through the Hard Parts (and they're all hard parts) served as an excellent place to start. It was written as a guidebook for teachers looking to implement the strategy in their classroom, and helped us to first understand how the model was supposed to work. From there we began looking for articles that detailed the writing workshop being put into practice, again using Ebscohost, JSTOR and Scholar's Portal. we found that the dozen articles located often referenced other articles, and using these sources we were not only able to locate articles about writing workshops and their uses, but other topics that are important to the YWP, such as writing under pressure and other forms of writing that the students can write that are accepted by the YWP.

We collected testimonials, press releases and media articles about the program. The website itself contains almost all of the information required about the YWP, with the exception of a Classroom Novel Kit, an incentive package sent to the registered teachers to help encourage and motivate the students. We e-mailed the organizer, Chris Angotti, and explained our interest in the program.

Analysis of Research

The literature review is divided into two sections. The first section examines twenty different writing workshops based on length, class, and structure. It serves as a review of other articles that either play a major role in, or tend to result from, the writing workshop as a whole. The second section deconstructs the YWP as it is laid out on the website, simulating how it might appear to a teacher who is looking at the program for the first time, including all of the support and benefits the website has to offer both the educator and the student.

The Writing Workshops

The primary book that was used to give a general overview of what the writing workshop was and how it worked was the book by Ray and Laminack (2001). In it the authors lay out everything that should be considered when developing a writing workshop, from the content to student choice to the layout of the classroom. The drive of the book is making students write and making the students feel like writers. They state all the important aspects of what should be considered when developing a writing workshop, but they don't do the work for you. The design and frequency of the writing workshop is left to the educator. Due largely to the fact that writing workshops are recommended for younger grades, the majority of the writing workshops recovered were within the range of kindergarten to grade six.

The first writing workshop took place in a third grade classroom. Lensmire (1994) details the layout of his writing workshop, which he teaches every day. In his classroom, he begins with a mini-lesson of about five to ten minutes, followed by thirty minutes of writing time for the students, during which time he allows the students to choose their writing topics. During that time, students are permitted to move around to find a place to write or consult other students or the teacher if they are having difficulty. The final ten minutes of the class is dedicated to sharing time, and each student is permitted to share at least once every week.

In a study by Jones, Reutzel and Fargo (2010), researchers found the writing workshop to be just as successful as interactive writing in a kindergarten classroom. The writing workshop process had four primary parts to it: a mini-lesson, writing period, conferencing, and sharing. The writing workshop was done every day, but didn't say how much time was dedicated to each section. Students were permitted to choose their own topics and work at their own pace. Students were encouraged to use invented spelling rather than ask or look up how to spell every word. The workshop would end with the students sharing their work, and every student would share at least once a week.

Johnson (2001) looked at three beginning teachers who were setting up workshops in their classes for the first time. The workshops lasted five months and were evaluated based on six separate classroom observations and three video recorded classroom sessions towards the end of the five months. The workshop structure included mini-lessons, group discussion, and then writing time, but did not give a time allotment for each, nor did it say how many times a week the writing workshop was run. Students were given their own choice of topics, and all three teachers found this to be beneficial. One teacher found that allowing the students to choose their topics resulted in better writing. The second teacher found that she didn't have to force the students to write once she gave them free choice of what they wanted to write. The third teacher found that allowing the students to choose their topics engaged them so much that it contributed to the success of classroom management.

In a Masters Research Project, Bayer (1999) conducted a writing workshop with a class of first grade students for six months. The writing workshop was held once a month and was broken down to begin with a five to ten minute mini-lesson, followed by thirty-five to forty minutes of writing, during which time teachers would also conference with students and encourage writing, revision and editing. It also mentions that students were allowed to share their work during points of the writing workshop, though it does not indicate the frequency. Bayer (1999) concludes by saying that there was a measured increase in confidence in the students' abilities as writers.

Miller and Higgins (2008) recommend using the writing workshop in conjunction with a reading workshop, and how both of these together can be used successfully for test preparation without focusing only on 'teaching to the test'. They outline the writing workshop in ten steps, and is the most detailed out of the writing workshops in terms of structure. The ten steps are: mini-lesson, teacher models the writing being studied, revising and editing, students brainstorm writing topics, prewriting/planning, writing a rough draft, peer conferences, revise and rewrite, second peer conference, group sharing time, and publish. The article doesn't discuss how much time should be delegated to each task. The authors emphasize the importance of teaching students a wide variety of genres, and make a special note to say that allowing students to choose their topics will encourage creativity and success in all aspects of the writing process.

Fu and Lamme (2002) considered a similar approach and looked at the results of a writing workshop versus the assessment grades of a class of grade three students. The authors felt that some of the assessment tools used to grade students were unfair and wanted to see how their writing looked within a structured writing workshop. Students were allowed to choose their own topics to write on and were allowed to work on one piece of writing for as long as they felt they needed to. The writing workshop was conducted twice a week from January to June. Students were welcome to write and share with other students in the class, but the study did not detail how much time was spent on each. The researchers found that there was a visible difference between the quality and marks of writing in the class versus the quality of writing and marks of the school assessment. One boy, who scored low on his third grade assessment, had made substantial improvements in the writing workshop that were not accurately measured by the assessment. He said that he preferred the writing workshop because it made him feel comfortable, and that he didn't feel compelled to write as fast as everyone else. The researchers concluded that the students have a control over their own learning in the classroom that doesn't transfer over successfully to the assessment methods.

A study by Jasmine and Weiner (2007) aimed to determine the impact that a writing workshop could have on the confidence and independence level of grade one students as writers. The study was seven weeks and looked at nineteen grade one students. The writing workshop was held two to three times per week for a thirty-five to forty minute period each time. Rather than have each period contain all of the different steps important to writing, each week added a new skill to be learned. Each class began with a mini-lesson, after which time the students would begin to write. Each student shared their piece of writing at some point during the first week. After this, another step was added each week. The second week focused on peer conferencing and revision, the third focused on editing, the fourth focused on making corrections, so that by the beginning of the fifth week, the

students had written a first draft, shared, peer conference, revised, edited and rewritten their copies for the final week, during which time they all shared their work. The authors state that the students showed an increase in enthusiasm as they began to understand the process and structure of the writing workshop. They concluded by saying that the writing workshop model “has proven to be an effective instructional method to support first graders in learning the writing process” and meant more to the students when they chose their own topics (Jasmine & Weiner, 2007, p.138).

Pollington, Wilcox and Morrison (2001) examined the impact of teachers in the writing workshop and found that the attitudes of the individual teacher are instrumental in the success of the writing workshop. They surveyed of 130 students from grade four and five classes in which the writing workshop structure was the same. The class started with a sharing time for five to ten minutes, either reading a book or looking at pictures. In some instances, the teacher would share his or her own writing. This would be followed by a five to ten minute mini-lesson. After this, the teacher would take five minutes to discuss with the class what they would be working on during the writing period, either writing or conferencing with classmates or meeting with the teacher. The students were then given thirty to forty minutes to carry this out, and end with another sharing time, this time of the students’ work for the final five to ten minutes. Students were allowed to choose their topics and to sit or work where they wanted to. The study concluded that the attitudes of the individual teacher towards the writing workshop had more of an influence than any strategies or approaches used during the workshop.

A study conducted by Enns, Hall, Isaac and MacDonald (2007) studied the role of the writing workshop with three classes of deaf students, one grade four and two grade five. The workshop writing process was outlined as “preparing/planning (prewriting), drafting, revising, editing, and publishing” (Enns et al., 2007, p.6). The writing workshop was done daily for anywhere from one hour to ninety minutes, and was done for three weeks. Students were encouraged to write in English, but were also allowed to write in ASL. The study also encouraged students to choose their own topics, saying that the “children often need to have a purpose for writing” and that “if it’s their idea, they’re more, much more motivated” (Enns et al., 2007, p.14). Results of the study found that the writing workshop helped students to have an increased sense of ownership in their work, and that the writing workshop also encouraged self-confidence, independence, and knowledge of ASL.

Peyton, Jones, Vincent and Greenblatt (1994) observed the impact of the writing workshop on a group of ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) students, ranging from kindergarten to grade six. The predominant language in the classroom was Spanish. The writing workshop was conducted for both a half semester and a full semester, once a week for thirty minutes. One teacher outlined the workshop as “a 3-min mini-lesson, followed by 12 min of student writing, 10 min of peer conferencing, and 5 min of rewriting”, with publication occurring another time (Peyton et al., 1994, p.474). The article mentions that there was initial difficulty and frustration among the teachers and students in the beginning, but that it was successfully worked through. The study allowed students to choose their own topics and emphasized the important in allowing students to have ownership of their writing. They also allowed students to write both in English and their native language, and that this accommodation helped to make them comfortable in their writing. They also recommended visual cues and stories for students who might have difficulty coming up with their own ideas. The study concluded by describing the positive impact that the writing workshop had on the students, but that teachers need to remain flexible and have patience. Not everything will work perfectly from the very beginning, but that you need to have courage and the dedication to continue, and sooner or later, it will come.

Conroy, Marchand and Webster (2009) ran a writing workshop for fifteen weeks in an effort to determine what the impact of a writing workshop would have on a group of seventy students, from kindergarten to grade two. The goal was also to determine whether or not the workshop could be used to motivate students of different intelligences. Students were allowed to choose their own topics for writing, and the writing workshop used mini-lessons combined with a very detailed thorough action plan of week-by-week lessons (but the failed to mention how many times per week the lessons were

taught and how long the periods were for). Each week would build on the previous week, and would include modifications to incorporate for different intelligences if required (e.g. logical/mathematical intelligence). Stories would typically take students two to three weeks to complete, and the writing process included revising, editing, conferencing, publishing and sharing, though the time allotment and frequency for each of these was not indicated. The results of the study indicated that students felt less bored or embarrassed towards writing by the end of the workshop, and that some parents had also discovered their children writing more regularly at home.

The article by Shaw (2001) was one of two writing workshops not conducted within an elementary school setting. The writing workshop was designed for a first year course at Yale University, but can be applied to elementary and secondary classes. Shaw outlines the seven C's that are critical to the construction of any writing workshop: Climate (ensuring everyone feels welcome and equal), Choice (allowing students to write what they want), Communication (students should have a good rapport with the teacher and with each other), Coaching (teacher must find a safe place between being too critical and not critical enough), Connection (giving the student's writing purpose and reason), Collaboration (letting everyone work together to edit and revise each other's work), and Chemistry (where students feel like independent writers when everything else works well together). She concludes by saying that, while teacher guidance is important, the goal is to produce writers who can stand independently and have their own idea of what their writing should be.

Kazemek and Logas (2000) examined a writing workshop not located in a classroom. They observed an intergenerational writing project in which independent seniors spend time writing with students (usually from grades three to five). Every year, the students and seniors work together and publish a volume of their writing. The writing workshop meets every week, and usually has between twelve and fourteen seniors and approximately twenty-five to thirty students. Kazemek and Logas demonstrate how the two groups are able to help each other, and how, like any other classroom or group of students; all of them have special needs and abilities. The study demonstrated that the writing workshop can not only work with both generations but can help to close the gap by combining the two into working together.

Boiarsky (1981) considered the role of a writing workshop as an overarching activity in a middle school. Originally started as a two week write-a-thon, the students in the school would use their forty minute homeroom class as a period dedicated to writing. Students were allowed to write on any topic they selected. The schedule for the workshop required that writing occur on Monday and Wednesday, discussion and conferencing on Tuesday and Thursday, and sharing on Friday. The article states that the majority of teachers continued this writing workshop even after the two weeks and that teachers noticed a visible improvement in fluency of writing after the first two weeks.

Maxwell (1994) examined a special writing workshop that took place once a week during lunch time. The "Lunch Bunch Writing Club", as it was called, took place every Wednesday at lunch, during which time parents of the students and adult volunteers were welcome to come and join the students while they worked. Each student had their own writing area where they would take their parent or another adult to work with them. The students were given half an hour to write, after which the final fifteen minutes were granted to students to share their work. Lunch would follow after this, and the parents and adult volunteers were welcome to bring a lunch and eat it with the students. Maxwell found that after the first few weeks, parents and volunteers became more familiar with the structure of the workshop and became more involved and engaged in the project, and that the students benefitted from having them there.

Abbott and Greenwood (2001) studied the impact that the writing workshop structure had on a special education student named Adam. The writing workshop was conducted twice, once with a high range group of students, and once with a low range (the group to which Adam belonged). Both workshops had the same process of prewriting, drafting, editing, peer conferencing, revision and publishing, and this routine was carried out every day for nine weeks. The class would start with a mini-lesson for about seven to ten minutes, followed by the students writing for thirty minutes, but

failed to indicate a time allotment for the remaining steps. The researchers found that the six step process allowed students of different developmental levels to work at their own pace without holding back the other students. Students were also supplied with graphic organizers if they needed them, which Adam did use. By the end of the nine weeks, researchers found that there was an improvement in writing from both groups, but that the improvement was more noticeable with the low range students. They concluded that the use of the graphic organizers with the low range students helped this improvement.

Gobin (2009) looked into the reduction of stress and anxiety via the writing workshop. She ran her writing workshop in a fourth grade classroom, and began each class with a mini-lesson. The students would begin to write from there, and were given the freedom to choose their topics. She also recommends that teachers attempt at becoming writers along with the students, and that when teaching the class editing, it is best to use work that you've written. That way, your students "feel important in the process. In addition, they understand that writing does not have to be perfect the first time" (Gobin, 2009, p.30). She also points out that the use of portfolios as an end product of the writing workshop will cause students additional stress, and that they may focus on getting the assignment finished rather than the writing itself. She explains that the writing workshop is something that can be changed to work for you, and that you have the freedom to make it work.

Brown (2010) studied a kindergarten writing workshop of twenty-nine students, and explained the importance of having mini-lessons while giving students the freedom of writing. Brown explains that "the workshop approach allows children blocks of time to write, focusing not on a finished product, but rather on the act of writing itself," and that children should not feel pressured to have their piece of writing finished by the end of the day (Brown, 2010, p.25). Brown also found that books and reading were instrumental in the development and process of the writing workshop.

Hoewisch (2001) utilized a writing workshop centered on fairy tales, and wanted to determine how students could take the form of writing and make it their own. The workshop was twelve weeks in length and was conducted in a third grade classroom twice a week for seventy-five minutes per session. Students were introduced to three or four fairy tales during the first week of the writing workshop. During this time, students were involved in brainstorming and pre-writing sessions. After the first week, the workshop would begin with a mini-lesson, while the rest of the time was dedicated to writing, sharing and receiving feedback. The students were encouraged to select their own topics and work with them as they liked. The teacher didn't always agree with what the students included in their stories, but researchers felt that contradicting them would be counterproductive to their research. By the end of week eight, students had developed their rough drafts and moved into editing and conferencing. By the end of week fifteen, students had completed their stories and shared them with the class. The research concluded by saying that the writing of children can be positively influenced through the teacher respecting the identity of the individual writer, and by presenting positive and constructive feedback that demonstrates this approach.

The final study we located was conducted by Hachem, Nabhani & Bahous (2008). Their writing workshop was situated in a grade two classroom and was conducted four days a week for one month, with each session being one hour. The writing workshop followed the same routine every day, beginning with a mini-lesson and followed by independent writing time and conferencing with other students. The researchers also emphasized to the students that it was okay for them to make spelling mistakes and other errors, and that the focus was for them to try their best. Students were allowed to move around within the classroom and were allowed to write about whatever they wanted. Researchers found this to be instrumental in the success of the workshop, because "students had the chance to take risks in their writing and learn that writing was much more than correct spelling and being neat" (Hachem et al., 2008, p.331). The study also found that the writing workshop structure allowed for the proper differentiation of writing instruction. When students were aware of the routine and knew what to do without little to no instruction, the teacher was free to help and support the other students who required it. The researchers concluded by saying that not only did the writing workshop

help to support students in their writing, but recommended the use of the writing workshop in classrooms for its ability to differentiate writing instruction successfully.

There are some common points, such as allowing the students to choose their topics and having a structure and pattern to the writing workshop. These common points will be used to compare the similarities and differences between the writing workshops and the YWP.

Out of these writing workshops, three important topics came to light. First, the child's identity as a writer that would inevitably develop as being part of a writing workshop, since it had been previously suggested in the literature. The second was that while the workshops didn't seem to encourage a time limit or rush on writing, the YWP does. As a result of all of the positive writing about allowing students to pace themselves, two articles were located that encourage speed writing. The third was in consideration of the students who might not want to write a novel as their one large piece of writing for the month. As a modification of that (which is always important to have for writing workshops), we studied two alternatives that students are able to consider as substitutes to the novel they are expected to write.

The identity of the writer in the writer's workshop is an inevitability among students who spend anywhere from two to five times a week writing. Not only that, but students are often writing works that matter to them, and that in turn makes them feel like writers. This is unanimously expressed as a positive thing in the three articles that exclusively examine the identity of the writer, either as something to be achieved, or as a by-product of the workshop.

Lensmire and Satanovsky (1998) focus on the freedom and self-expression that children experience in the writing workshop, and how that, in turn, drives their desire to be identified as and become writers. He explains how lived experiences of a student provide something to write about, and the freedom to do that has the greatest impact on them developing their writing identities.

Graham (1999) began by determining what the definition of a writer was with his students, and whether or not a common identity could be derived from all of their ideas and definitions. The students saw the writer as "someone essentially different (a little eccentric perhaps) who possesses a depth of passion and a level of skill that sets this individual aside from the general population" (Graham, 1999, p.361). Throughout the article the students begin writing themselves, and by the end, they have changed their opinion. They consider writing to be a discipline and a writer as someone who has willpower and persists. As a result of their hard work, many of them considered themselves to be writers at the end.

The article by Baker (2005) is a response to the previously mentioned book The Writing Workshop: Writing Through the Hard Parts (and they're all hard parts). His article specifically focuses on the importance of the writing identity that develops in students who participate in writing workshops. He states that both teachers and students need to think of themselves as writers, and finds that the writing workshop isn't about creating something: it is about developing confidence in their writing and their identities as writers. They need to develop confidence in what they write and what they want to write, and not pay attention to what they think someone else will like or want to read. When they write what they want and they enjoy what they write, their confidence will grow and their identity will flourish.

According to the articles by Simmons (2009) and Staples (2005), there is something good to be said about writing under pressure and time constraints. Simmons points out that, while it isn't as important as proper spelling and grammar, writing under pressure is an important life skill. He goes on to give several everyday examples, e.g. how someone from the community might be approached by another member to write a short speech. Staples (2005) agrees and further develops the idea, saying that anyone going into the corporate business world needs to be trained in the skill of pressure writing. He points out that with how fast the world is moving, on demand e-mails and reports are becoming more common and without time to write and re-write everything. They both conclude by

saying that more time needs to be spent on writing instruction in the class, and that the constant development of the skill might eventually lend itself to expertise and speed.

The final two articles were selected because they are accepted by the YWP as being accepted as forms of writing that can be substituted for stereotypical, imagined form of the novel. An article by Crilly (2009) details how students who enjoy both writing and illustrating can create a graphic novel, and explains how the basics of storytelling are still maintained in the move from mainstream novel to graphic novel. Dialogue, characters and building conflict are three important aspects that remain important regardless of which form you're writing, and allows for modification for the students who have an equal love of illustrating and writing.

The other article by Burns and Webber (2009) offers fanfiction as a substitute for students who have a difficulty coming up with their own characters. The basis of fanfiction is that students use characters created by other people, but write their own unique story. The example the article gives, titled "When Harry Met Bella" sets up a scenario in which Bella Swan (of the famous Twilight books) is transferred to Harry Potter's school, Hogwarts. Students would be allowed to use the characters but create their own unique situations. The authors believe that this strategy may free some writers from the pressure of having to create their own characters: "Creating original, believable characters can be the toughest part of writing" while using characters that already exist will let students "concentrate on other areas of writing, such as pacing, style, and plot" (Burns & Webber, 2009, p.29). Students may be relieved to find that this is an acceptable form of fiction for the YWP challenge.

The Young Writers Program

We will now observe the mechanics of the Young Writers Program and what it has to offer us as educators. We will begin with a scenario. Mr. M has heard some information about the YWP and decides that it is something worth looking into. He wants to get some more information on the YWP, so he goes to the website. The Young Writers Program website (<http://ywp.nanowrimo.org/>) is the focal point of the entire program. Anything you need, either as a teacher or as a student, can be found on this site. Whether it is updating word counts, trying to come up with an idea or needing a lesson plan, everything can be found on the website. In looking for a place to start learning about the YWP, Mr. M would most likely come to the Educators page (<http://ywp.nanowrimo.org/educators>). This page presents all of the benefits and support that the YWP has to offer on one page, and is the key to understanding how the YWP works for the classroom. Below are the key features that the YWP has to offer.

Lesson Plans

The curriculum has a monumental impact on what educators do in the classroom. If we have an activity to do but can't find a way to tie it into the curriculum, it is dropped more often than not. This is a universal concern, and explains why the OLL (Office of Letters and Light, the non-profit organization that founded the YWP) have taken steps to ensure that teachers can connect the YWP to the curriculum. The curriculum is divided into four sections: Lower Elementary School (K-2), Upper Elementary School (3-5), Middle School and High School. Mr. M is a grade four teacher, so he clicks on the "Upper Elementary School" link.

From there, Mr. M is taken to a list of lesson plans about the important aspects of novel writing, such as creating characters and villains, and elements of story, plot and setting. Also on this page are two introductory posts. The first introductory post includes a chart and explains how YWP lesson plans have been adapted to the Common Core Standards, a curriculum that has been adapted by 37 different states (http://ywp.nanowrimo.org/ue_fulfillments). The other introductory post tells Mr. M what he has to look forward to in the program, and how it will improve the literacy of his young students.

Curious about the format of the lesson plans, Mr. M clicks on the fourth lesson plan, "Creating Main Characters". The lesson plan is very thorough, beginning with what Common Core Standards are being fulfilled in the lesson. It also includes the lesson time, objective, materials

needed, and the procedure, including discussion questions to ask the students at each step. It also includes accommodations that can be made for students who may read or write at a lower level. As a final note, it also includes worksheets that can easily be printed off or photocopied and used in the lesson. The worksheets for all of the lessons have also been assembled into a workbook, which allows you to download them all at once rather than one at a time.

Virtual Classroom

Mr. M decides that he would like to try and run the YWP in his classroom after all. He registers and is given the opportunity to create a virtual classroom. The virtual classroom allows Mr. M to create a classroom where he can post encouraging words for his students, create a list of important links, create a calendar of upcoming events, and monitor all of his students' word counts at once. At first Mr. M is hesitant, but reads that the name of the classroom doesn't have to include the name of the school or the grade. The classroom can remain anonymous and his students will have usernames that can protect their identities. No one will know except him. He sets up the virtual classroom and uses it to encourage his students and track their progress.

Classroom Novel Kit

Two weeks later in the mail, Mr. M receives a package from the YWP. Inside he finds a very witty and welcoming letter from organizer Chris Angotti, who is happy to hear that another classroom kit has been delivered. He says how he wishes he could have delivered it personally with a handshake, and goes on to explain the contents of the novel kit and how they are to be used.

1. Novel Progress Poster: This is a poster designed to serve as a visual incentive in the classroom, to be hung up and used to chart the progress of students as they write towards their goals.
2. Stickers: Each student gets a sheet. These individual letter stickers form the word "NANOWRIMO". The more progress a student makes towards their word goal, the more letters they use. Once they've reached the goal, the word "Nanowrimo" should be spelled out next to their name on the chart. There are also Nanowrimo logo stickers that are included for each student.
3. Buttons: There is a novelist button for each student. While you can give them to your students as incentive, Chris Angotti recommends attaching them to the chart, giving your students something visible and physical to work towards.

Teacher's Lounge (Forum)

The Teacher's Lounge is the name of the forum on the YWP site. If Mr. M has any questions, or is looking for ideas from other teachers, this is the place that he wants to come to. The Teacher's Lounge is divided into four boards for easy navigation. "Teachers-Only NaNo News" is the board that Chris Angotti uses to post any news and concerns that come across the boards. "Lesson Plans" is for teachers that want to share their own personal lesson plans, which can be especially useful if your curriculum doesn't follow the Common Core Standards that the YWP is designed for. "Beyond Curriculum" looks at how to keep your students inspired, and what to do for those students who might need that extra bit of encouragement or planning. Finally, the "Counselor's Office" is the troubleshooting board. Any teachers that are having difficulty reaching their students, staying organized or staying inspired is welcome to vent and find help here.

One of the most important things about undertaking a writing workshop is to know that you're not alone, and that help is available if you need it. The YWP takes that into account, and has created the forums for that reason: so you can reach out and talk to other teachers who are attempting to undertake the same challenge as you. There is only one word of warning: every October, the boards are cleaned out and erased to make room for the new year of discussions. The four boards stay the same, but the content is wiped clean every year.

Young Writers Resources

Finally, the last section of the website focuses on the students themselves. The forums have a special section of the board just for the students where they can talk to one another across classes and inspire, encourage or help critique characters, ideas, or shared passages from their works. There are

also smaller technology-oriented incentives for the students, such as web badges that they can save and use on their own personal computers. These all pale in comparison to the best resource on the site for young writers: the pep talks.

Every year, the organizers of NaNoWriMo and the YWP ask famous adult, young adult, and children's writers to volunteer and write "pep talks" – a letter to the writers that encourages them to keep writing, and lets them know that they are not alone. All of the authors admit to having trouble writing themselves, and that the difficulty is what makes the challenge. A pep talk is delivered to every participant once a week for the entire month, and always has some encouraging and inspiring words, written from one writer to another. Past pep talk writers for the YWP include Gordon Korman, Jerry Spinelli, and Lemony Snicket. Past pep talk writers for NaNoWriMo include Sue Grafton, Neil Gaiman, Brian Jacques and Piers Anthony.

Certificates and Publishing

Mr. M completes the month. Although not all of his students succeed in achieving their word goals, there is a surprising number who do. Everyone tried their best to reach their goal. As a result of both their successes and their attempts, the YWP sends two blank certificates to Mr. M, one for winners and the other for participants. Both certificates are almost identical, and their development allows Mr. M to print off as many as he would like and fill out the names by hand, or type them in individually using the editable PDF file that has been included.

The students have also discovered that every winner is given a free printed copy of their novel through one of the affiliated sites that is sponsoring the YWP. All they have to do is submit their copy of the story online, and they will receive a free printed proof copy of their manuscript. The winners are excited and want to know more. Some of the other students want to know if they will be running the program again next year. Overall, Mr. M thought the experience was interesting.

As it has been demonstrated, the creation of the YWP has been well designed to consider and support the teachers and students involved. In terms of its development, it is evident that a considerable amount of planning and thought has gone into its construction, from linking it to the curriculum to providing the moral and technical support needed to undertake such a venture. The question now is, how does it measure up when compared to other, successful, writing workshops?

Discussion

While the YWP looks as though it could be beneficial in the classroom, there is cause for hesitation. The YWP is the latest addition to a growing field of writing workshops that are recommended to be included in classrooms around the world. As a result of this, we must view the YWP through a critical framework. To do this, we must look at other writing workshops and observe how they are organized, what grade they are for, and whether or not the YWP shares any common traits with recommended writing workshop procedures.

Twenty different writing workshops, varying in time and age range, were studied and compared for points that were common to all of them. These were then compared to the YWP. The result was that the YWP had a number of these common points, but not all. Like many of the other workshops, the YWP:

1. Allowed students to choose their own topics
2. Encouraged the development of story rather than spelling.

Something that the YWP does not have and need to improve on is:

1. A structure applicable to any or all teachers

Each of these will be evaluated and compared in turn with the writing workshop research.

Students are allowed to choose their own topics

The YWP encourages teachers to allow students to choose their own topics and let the students write about what inspires them. Although some teachers may feel that this is the equivalent of losing some control over the student's writing, the YWP is on the right track. Twelve out of the twenty workshops explicitly instruct teachers to let go of controlling what the students write and just let them choose. Ray & Laminack (2001) say that one of the most important aspects of the writing workshop is giving the students choice. They state that

By definition, writing is about having something to say, and it is the writer's right to decide what this will be, to decide what he or she wants to say. As teachers we really do not have the right to make this decision for students. We will ask students to do their best to write well in our own workshops, so they need to have good reasons of their own to *need* to write well. At the very heart of needing to write well is personal topic selection." (Ray & Laminack, 2001, p.7)

We need to give students a reason to want to write, and the best way to do that is to let them choose what they want to write about. Shaw (2001), whose first-year Yale writing workshop can be applied to elementary and secondary classes, finds choice to be one of the seven most important traits to have in a writing workshop. Johnson (2001) did a study of three teachers, each of them allowing their students to choose their topics. One teacher noticed "a better quality of writing", another noticed that she didn't "have to pull writing" from her students, and the third found that when the writing "tapped into student's interests and valued their ideas" that she had fewer classroom management issues (Johnson, 2001, p.5). Students are not only more engaged, but are less likely to become distracted and lose focus.

Having the writing workshop in the classroom also resulted in students having higher self-confidence, both in themselves and in their writing. Everyone who encouraged students to choose their own topics made this observation. Students began to consider themselves as writers, and began to take value in their writing. Boiarsky (1981) noted that students were "beginning to write what they think, not what they think the teacher wants" (Boiarsky, 1981, p.464). Some students enjoyed writing workshop and their identities as writers so much that they asked their teacher if she could extend the writing workshop period (Jasmine & Weiner, 2007). One study noted that parents found some of their students writing more regularly at home (Conroy, Marchand & Webster, 2009). When students enjoy writing, they begin to feel less like students are more like writers. Baker (2005) says that this is one of the driving forces behind the writing workshop for students, about "feeling like a writer and thinking like a writer... because what you have to say *is* important" (Baker, 2005, p.351). When students have that power and drive, they enjoy the process more and more.

Of course, not all students had an idea and immediately started writing. Some students had difficulty with the challenge of coming up with a story and characters. One study provided students with visual cues such as pictures to help inspire writing topics (Peyton et al., 1994). Other teachers used graphic organizers to help the students come up with different kinds of ideas (James, 2001). The importance is that the students come up with the ideas themselves. Of course, the teachers won't always agree with the selections that the students make. In Hoewisch, 2001, a teacher was confronted with a problem when her students were working on fairy tales and a young girl in her class wanted a rap singer in her story instead of a princess. Other children wanted to make similar changes. The teacher and her associates wanted the children to change them back, but felt that the students "might begin to feel that we were simply criticizing their experiences and interests" rather than giving them the freedom to write that had been promised (Hoewisch, 2001, p.271). The fine line that needs to be considered here is why that child should be told to change his or her topic. Try to evaluate why the student made the choice to write that and whether or not your intervention is being done to improve the child's work or make yourself feel better and safer. Sometimes it is better off to give the child the freedom and let him or her write. As Lensmire and Satanovsky note, "When children are granted such freedom, they are able to experience the elasticity of the frames within which they write" which helps to "transform them, if only in small ways" (Lensmire & Satanovsky, 1998, p.281). Some of those small ways, from what we've seen, include confidence, self-assurance, and enjoyment.

Encourage the development of story rather than spelling

It is one thing to say that you're going to attempt to write a novel in a month, but it is something completely different to actually do it. Anyone can feel daunted by such a challenge, and students are no different. Some students have an idea in the head that everything has to be perfect in one draft or one attempt. This anxiety can easily be amplified when working on a novel. Because it is one long piece of writing, you can have a sudden turn of events in a matter of paragraphs. Students need to know that they should just go with the flow. Paying attention to story rather than spelling or grammar can help achieve this.

Ray and Laminack (2001) describe the situation best. They say that when teachers are getting their students to write in a workshop, their belief is the same as the YWP: it is all about quantity. But the authors explain that the reason to support quantity over quality is that you want to "have students spend lots and lots of time writing, knowing that not all of it will be so great, than spending just a little time writing and getting everything perfect." (Ray & Laminack, 2001, p.10). The best way for students to get better is to write and just keep writing. Hachem et al. (2008) agree, and feel that students would take more chances in their writing if they knew what they wrote meant much more than proper spelling and grammar. Jones, Reutzel and Fargo recommend invented spelling, in which the student makes an educated guess on how to spell the word by sounding it out and moving on (Jones et al., 2010). This technique is also recommended by Schwartz, who says that having to look up a word or focus on the correct spelling disrupts the flow of writing (Schwartz, 1987). Errors are little more than learning mistakes, and can always be corrected in editing later. The important thing is to try.

There needs to be structure in a writing workshop.

As it stands now, the YWP has no visible structure. Take for example the lesson plans that the YWP has developed. Although the program has taken special steps to prepare lesson plans and make them applicable to the writing curriculum, they do very little else. What kind of learning abilities are they designed for? Should teachers be setting aside an hour of class a day for each of the eighteen lessons? How many times a week should the lessons be taught? The topics that the lessons cover are instrumental to the development of the novel. Wouldn't it be beneficial to teach them *before* the month of writing? Questions like these are what could lead a teacher to forget attempting the entire endeavour of implementing the YWP in the classroom. There is no structure.

While it can be implied that the structure is completely up to the teacher, this is not enough. Eighteen out of the twenty writing workshops had some kind of schedule set up. Fourteen of them felt that every writing workshop period should begin with a mini-lesson of five to ten minutes. That is a considerable commonality among writing workshops, and should definitely be included for anyone intending to attempt any kind of writing workshop in their classroom. The YWP is no exception. There needs to be some kind of structure, and the YWP makes no recommendations of how exactly to bring it into the classroom.

Ray and Laminack (2001) write that the writing workshop must be highly structured. The workshop approach must follow the same pattern daily so that it could almost run itself independent of directed activity. Students should know what they are doing and what is expected of them from the moment the writing workshop begins to the moment it ends. It supports them and helps give them focus and direction. It also helps the teacher to spend more time with students of different writing abilities. Hachem et al. (2008) state that "the principle advantage of the writing workshop is its structure, which allows for individualised instruction" while also allowing "students the chance to progress at their own rates" (Hachem et al, 2008, p.332). When students know the routine and can follow it with little to no guidance and supervision, the teacher is free to help other students in the classroom who might need the extra assistance.

What kind of structure best suits the writing workshop? Peyton et al. (1994) define the writing workshop as "regular and predictable blocks of time" in which "teachers begin with a mini-lesson,

followed by periods of drafting, conferencing, sharing, revising, redrafting, editing, publishing and celebrating' (Peyton et al., 1994, p.472). There is no sign of editing or revision anywhere in the program, and while the attitude of NaNoWriMo is 'December is for editing, November is for writing', trying to write and then edit two large bodies of work in two separate months is not a realistic goal to have in the classroom. The lessons that the YWP provides are anywhere from fifty to sixty minutes in length, after which time the students are expected to complete their writing. This does not a realistic amount of time to spend. The beauty of the mini-lesson is that it is short. Most studies found that students began to enjoy working on their writing. Having anything longer than a mini-lesson is preventing the students from doing what they really want to do: write. As such, the YWP should take a lesson from other writing workshops that have more reasonable structures, and more successful results.

Conclusion

We liken the YWP to completing a recipe: you have all of the ingredients and materials, and you know what the final product is supposed to look like, but you don't know what to mix together, what to bake or broil, or the time it will take to complete any and all of the steps. The YWP has a great amount of potential and its foundation is sound, but at this stage it lacks the structure with which to implement it. The YWP has support for every aspect of the program except how it should be executed in the classroom. While it is good to give teachers the flexibility to work with the program as they see fit, having no structure at all does more harm than good. A general workshop structure needs to be developed for the program, and from there teachers can add or subtract or make modifications as needed.

What would also benefit the adoption of the YWP would be the development of modifications for the different learning abilities that are present in the classroom. Although the workbooks can be provided as a supplement to visual learners, there is no indication or suggestion of how to encourage the other learning abilities that could be present in the classroom. Once the YWP develops a substantial structure that can be implicated in the classroom, they will then have the opportunity to make modifications for the different types of learners that the YWP could come in contact with. A successful writing workshop, as it has been mentioned before, has the capacity to be beneficial to all types of learning abilities. As it is presented now, the YWP does not have those kinds of benefits. They have recently attempted to present a Spanish version of the workbook for those classes that needed it, but had to pull it due to errors in its construction. The YWP is taking steps towards considering all kinds of learners and languages, but it is far from achieving the kinds of success that can and should be present in the classes that implement it.

We recommend that any teacher attempting to implement the YWP must first tie it to the curriculum of that grade level. Second, they must develop the concept of the YWP into a workshop format that the students can follow and adapt into a routine, since a large part of their becoming writers relies on their independence at following the structured format. For someone attempting a writing workshop in the classroom for the first time, the YWP provides an excellent idea of how to begin a writing workshop and a month is a good place to start. With the right structure, there is no reason why the YWP can't be a beneficial tool to have in the classroom, no matter what grade level.

Recommendations for Future Research

An excellent place to start would be to find a teacher willing to try and develop a writing workshop that combines the YWP with a more realistic and successful and tested writing workshop framework. Once that has been developed, it would be worth seeing how it is carried out in the classroom, and what the successes and pitfalls of that implementation are. For example, the YWP is very technology-oriented. Is there a way to achieve the same level of success without it? Not all schools have the same levels of technology. Does it have the same benefits with or without the technological advantage?

Since the YWP focuses on students writing one novel for the entire month, it would be worth researching whether or not it is more beneficial for students to work on one single piece of writing for a month, or to work on a series of different, but related, pieces instead. Fanfiction and graphic novel in place of the expected novel can be substituted in, but those are both still single pieces of writing. It would be worth researching whether or not working on only one piece of writing would either help or hinder the development of the student as a writer.

The question that relates to this is in terms of the length of the YWP. Students have thirty days to write. Is this enough time for students to develop writing skills? Should you run the program multiple times in the school year, maybe once per term? The long term and short term benefits of a writing workshop in relation to how often and how long it is run is worth looking into.

The final recommendation for further research is in the construction of the YWP itself. The lesson plans and advantages of the YWP being tied to the curriculum are for those teachers whose curriculum is tied to the Common Core Standards, popular in the United States. Can the YWP be developed for other classrooms around the world as well? Could it be as successful? Is it worth re-designing to suit other countries? Perhaps if the developers of the YWP could find a way to adapt the lesson plans to other countries and curriculums, teachers would be more willing to implement it in their classroom.

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Graduating from College: The Impossible Dream for Most First-Generation Students

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Abstract

Some colleges engage in unethical practices to balance their budgets, such as accepting “marginal” students who qualify for loans and government-backed financial aid but not providing these students with the services and programs they need to achieve success. Too many low-income students who are often first-generation students find themselves gamed when they meet with admissions counselors who help them to complete loan applications but neglect to explain the difference between being accepted to college and graduating from college—and the subsequent need to repay student loans. As a response to this negative scenario, 13 high-impact strategies are suggested which increase the chances of helping first-generation students to achieve success and to graduate in a timely fashion.

Keywords: First-Generation Students, Graduation Rates, High-Impact Strategies, Caring

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Introduction

“Picking a college is like picking a spouse. You don’t pick the ‘top ranked’ one because that has no meaning. You pick the one with the personality and character that complement your own” (Brooks, 2004).

Brooks provides a thoughtful reminder of the vitally important bond between student and college. As student advocates for more than three decades, we recognize the value of this bond, especially for students who are the first in their families to attempt a college education (Sanacore & Palumbo, 2015a, 2015b). As such, we object when colleges engage in unethical practices to balance their budgets, such as accepting “marginal” students who qualify for loans and government-backed financial aid but not providing these students with the services and programs they need to achieve success. Too many low-income students who are often first-generation students find themselves gamed when they meet with admissions counselors who help them to complete loan applications but neglect to explain the difference between being accepted to college and graduating from college—and the subsequent need to repay student loans.

We have found these schools are more concerned with tuition payments than students’ welfare and learning. Many first-generation students cannot handle academic requirements and drop out, saddled with debt. Admissions counselors are well aware of the 4- and 6-year graduation rates of their schools, and we believe they have a professional and moral obligation to reveal this information to potential students. They should also indicate evidenced-based programs and services, if any, that are available for students and that have resulted in higher graduation rates of students at risk of dropping out. Regrettably, this type of transparency does not exist on many campuses.

According to the Chronicle of Higher Education (2013), some colleges have graduation rates below 30%, and some are even below 10%. New York’s Long Island University, for example, has a 4-year graduation rate of 21.7% at its Post Campus, and an 8% graduation rate at its Brooklyn Campus. Similarly, New York’s Mercy College has a low graduation rate of 22.9%. The New York State average, however, is 55.1% for 4-year private, not-for-profit colleges. Whether or not the students graduate, they still have loans that must be paid. We advocate that students avoid schools with graduation rates that are significantly below their state’s average. These low rates suggest that college administrators take students’ money with the unashamed awareness that most of these students will not graduate, and many of them will not complete their first two years successfully.

Exacerbating this problem is the “shell game” many college administrators play, in which they use Pell Grants to supplant institutional aid that they would otherwise have provided to financially needy students (Rivard, 2014). These administrators then shift the funds to recruit wealthier students, offering them generous scholarships. Using poorer students’ Pell Grants as a source of supporting wealthier students is an unscrupulous practice that further undermines low-income students’ efforts to complete their college education. Stephen Burd (2014b, p.1), a senior policy analyst for the New America Foundation, notes, “This is one reason why even after historic increases in Pell Grant funding, low-income students continue to take on heavier debt loads than ever before.” Additionally, Burd’s (2014a, p. 3) analysis indicates that hundreds of colleges nationwide “expect the neediest students to pay an amount that equals half or more of their families’ yearly earnings.”

Another analysis by the Project on Student Debt, an initiative of The Institute for College Access and Success (TICAS, 2014), indicates about 69% of graduates from public and private nonprofit colleges in 2013 had student debt averaging \$28,400. “At public colleges, 68% of graduates had \$26,000 in debt on average; at nonprofit colleges, 75 percent of graduates had average debt of \$32,600” (p. 1). Even older borrowers are defaulting at high rates, and defaulting on federal loans can result in hardships, such as garnishment of social security benefits (Ambrose, 2014). Furthermore, a report from the Federal Reserve Bank of New York indicates that student debt rose

12% to \$1.08 trillion in 2013 (Mitchell, 2014). Worse, the nation's sharp rise in student debt is being driven mostly by Americans with poor credit and few resources. Almost half of student loan recipients are unable to make payments (Best & Best, 2014). This ticking, financial time bomb not only discredits academe but also destroys the aspirations of students and their hard-working parents. After being aggressively recruited by colleges to pay their bills and after dropping out burdened with loan debt, students and their families find they were manipulated as pawns in a debt-transfer financed by tax dollars.

We consider these outcomes to reflect some colleges' uncaring and unethical policies, which are also bordering on illegal practices. Moreover, some higher-level administrators justify these outcomes as a way of demonstrating to trustees that they have morphed their college from "financial red" to "financial black." Then they use this temporary result as a résumé item for gaining leadership positions at other universities. Our analysis of administrators who engage in this self-serving behavior suggests that when they vacate their previous institutions, newly appointed administrative replacements not only have to deal with the unresolved issues concerning student retention but also have to reinstate the previously cut positions that are essential for maintaining the institutions' survival.

Taking the Ethical Road Less Traveled

Yet, there is another choice. College administrators can use student tuition for student benefit by providing services and programs that have strong potential for increasing the academic success and the graduation rates of incoming students. Reacting to the debt-transfer game that some colleges play, the federal government and a number of states have been changing their financial aid formulas to include graduation rates as part of the granting process. Recently, former U.S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan said all states must invest in innovative programs in higher education that increase student success—especially for low-income and disadvantaged students (Rivera, 2015). The Colorado Commission on Higher Education had already approved a new state financial aid distribution policy that increases financial awards when students meet certain credit milestones and decreases awards when students do not graduate in a timely manner. According to Joseph Garcia, Colorado's Lieutenant Governor and Executive Director of the Colorado Department of Higher Education, "We're saying, schools, it's your responsibility to admit these students and provide services to help them get through" (Rogers, 2013). Other states that are developing comprehensive plans to increase college graduation rates include Georgia, Indiana, Maryland, and Tennessee. All states should support this direction to prevent poor students from being used as part of a bottom-line scheme. We believe when federal agencies, state governments, and accreditation services tie graduation rates to financial aid, college administration and faculty will work more cohesively to support a caring and substantive learning environment for the at-risk students who are aggressively recruited.

Nurturing Students' Potential to Graduate from College

Supporting students who are the first in their families to attend college is vitally important because these students usually experience emotional and academic stress as they attempt to navigate the culture of higher education. With self-doubt and with limited resources at home to provide academic support, these first-generation students often have work-related responsibilities, inadequate writing skills, and other personal and intellectual challenges. Although their academic potential is comparable to their more accomplished (continuing-generation) peers, this potential needs nurturing through a consistent support system.

In a recent survey of senior higher-education professionals with responsibility for data analytical tools, 90% of responders indicated that student retention and graduation rates are of central importance, and 95% indicated that they use data in their student retention programs and tactics. Only 24%, however, reported that data and analytics are readily accessible (Gatepoint Research, 2014). As colleges attempt to "catch up" with their data collection methods, students—especially those at risk of failure—deserve a major commitment to helping them achieve success and graduate in a timely fashion.

While not a panacea, we believe the following high-impact considerations can help first-generation students to stay in school. These 13 considerations extend our previous work that supports students' efforts to achieve success (Sanacore & Palumbo, 2015a, 2015b), and they have been judged to be exemplary by a national committee of experts in higher education. Administration and faculty need to engage in thoughtful conversations about these and other approaches before deciding which ones are well-matched with their campus culture. Then, they should organize their selected approaches so they are working in concert, not as isolated entities. This cohesive direction should support students' learning interests, strengths, and needs. The key word is *cohesive* because without it, well-intended efforts will be splintered and fragmented.

(1) Examine the demographic backgrounds of incoming students and involve students in setting goals that are interesting, meaningful, and culturally relevant to them. This instructional direction supports the sociological concept of "social and cultural capital" for students who are the first in their families to enter college and who need extra help in persisting and in building momentum toward graduation (Cerna, Perez, & Saenz, 2007; Perna & Titus, 2005). Emotional and social support from parents and professors is extremely important for helping students sustain efforts to achieve success and graduate. Of course, faculty and administration must grapple with the dual issue of building students' social and cultural capital and simultaneously maintaining academic standards. We believe highly competent and caring professionals will find common ground that will benefit students.

(2) Guide students each semester to register for courses that reflect a balance of their abilities and interests. This support helps students to retain a great deal of agency in their academic course schedule, especially when colleges adapt a version of the process used at the University of the South (Sewanee). Here, faculty serve as guides by helping incoming first-year students to review Sewanee's course selection process and to complete an academic experience form. Incoming students also have to indicate their major academic interests and courses they would enjoy taking, which they select from a catalog designating courses for first-year students. To facilitate the selection process, they sort these courses into categories: those "in which you have experience and confidence," those "clearly new and intriguing," and those "you recognize may challenge you." According to Terry Papillon, Sewanee's new dean, "There's growing evidence to suggest that close bonds with professors during students' first year of college contribute to long-term success" (Flaherty, 2014). Although scaling this model for larger universities might not be as successful, it has been implemented effectively at Sewanee for both students and faculty. With appropriate adaptations, it can be carried out successfully at other institutions.

Additionally, when colleges accept tuition checks from students with learning difficulties, they need to modify their programs to accommodate these students' needs. For example, students with verbal weaknesses should not be expected to enroll in College Freshman English, Western Civilization, Philosophy, Foreign (Second) Language, or other verbally dominant courses at the same time. Instead, these students' chances of success are increased when their course schedule reflects College Freshman English, Mathematics, Technology, Art, Music, or other less verbally dominant courses. These students should also be encouraged to register for no more than four courses each semester and to take two courses in the summer session, consisting of challenging content to which they can give their undivided attention. This type of balance supports quality of learning, while it reduces some of the frustration and failure associated with too many simultaneous academic requirements.

Students also seem to benefit from the elimination of late registration for courses. Research conducted at the Center for Community College Student Engagement (2014) suggests those who registered for all courses before the first class session were more likely to stay enrolled between semesters and to not drop out during the academic year.

(3) Help struggling students to understand their problems are not unique. Administrators and professors can help by implementing a variation of a modest one-hour program

called Difference-Education Intervention, where the panelists who are speaking are juniors and seniors from different backgrounds. The panelists discuss how they adapted to college life, including how they pursued resources and people to guide them with decisions. First-generation students also join the conversation and express their specific challenges in navigating the culture of higher-education. This low-key intervention has potential to increase retention rates because it helps students who are the first in their families to attend college to develop savvy in dealing with the issues that affect the majority of college students. Specifically, this intervention can reduce the social-class achievement gap, increase grade-point averages, and enhance the use of college resources. For a detailed description and supportive research, see Parker (2014) and Stephens, Hamedani, and Destin (2014).

(4) Motivate students' engagement in learning by considering their emotional and cognitive abilities as vehicles for meaningful learning. Instruction that is engaging highlights knowledge and content goals, considers students' interests, supports coherence among instructional venues, involves students in collaborative work, decreases lectures, and increases applications so students see the results of their hard work and continue their interest in learning. An important aspect of engagement is for students to experience success via their professors' evidence-based instructional strategies and methodologies that support both curricular standards and personalized learning.

According to Nobel Laureate Carl Wieman, a major obstacle to effective learning is lecturing to students, which usually causes passive listening and higher failure rates. A promising antidote is active learning, in which students solve problems, discuss solutions with peers, think logically about course content, answer questions, and engage in other activities while receiving feedback from professors (Freeman et al., 2014; Wieman, 2014). As with any process, engaging students through active learning should not be viewed as a one-size-fits-all process. That being said, students benefit from an active learning intervention and its transferability to novel educational settings. For example, Jensen, Kummer, and Godoy (2015) compared an active flipped classroom with an active non-flipped classroom and concluded that learning gains in both college biology sections were most likely the result of a constructivist, active-learning style of instruction instead of the order in which the professor participated in the learning process. Freshmen in both sections also ranked their contact time with the professor "as more influential in their learning than what they did at home."

Not surprisingly, ethnic-minority and first-generation students achieve significantly in this active learning context. Eddy and Hogan (2014) found:

a 'moderate-structure' intervention increased course performance for all student populations, but worked disproportionately well for black students—halving the black–white achievement gap—and first-generation students—closing the achievement gap with continuing-generation students.

These positive outcomes seem to be connected to the students' need for a sense of belonging, which active learning encourages through peer discussions, team projects, small-group interactions, and other related activities. Interventions that support active learning are especially beneficial for students who are the first in their families to attend college because these students feel overwhelming pressure to succeed, "coupled with the lack of an education culture at home" (Ross, 2014). Interestingly, active learning is effective not only in college settings but also in elementary and secondary schools, where the instructional emphasis is on learning instead of teaching (Antonetti & Garver, 2015; Jensen, Kummer, & Godoy, 2015).

(5) Incorporate project-based learning where students work in flexible, short-term groups and develop appreciation for in-depth learning and applications of course content and related strategies and skills. When engaged in course projects, many first-generation students demonstrate insecurity with the writing component of these projects, and three ways of supporting their writing efforts are to (1) model the writing process for them, including brainstorming, development of ideas, organization of content, use of effective language, engagement in thoughtful revisions, and editing of writing mechanics; (2) meet with students in small, short-term groups to

share pertinent feedback concerning their developing projects; and (3) encourage students to send email attachments of their first and second drafts so professors can use the comment software function (e.g., “New Comment” menu of Microsoft Word) to provide students with relevant feedback for improving their papers. This support system inevitably results in improved writing, better grades, and increased academic self-esteem, and these positive outcomes can help students to feel successful and to continue their education. Of course, one can argue that this instructional direction sounds like high school stuff. As college professors, however, we need to remind ourselves that first-generation students have probably struggled with the writing process through their high school years and will continue to struggle in college, unless effective writing instruction is supported across the curriculum. Common sense, therefore, indicates that writing support must be a major part of students’ college experience and that smaller class size will motivate both professors and students to focus on successful writing immersion.

(6) Infuse and reinforce “deep” reading, writing, and note-taking in all courses, so that students develop stamina for responding successfully to challenging texts. When this approach is positive and supportive, it results in productive struggle rather than destructive frustration (Snow, 2013). Within this substantive context, sometimes the basic act of handwriting during note-taking can cause intense frustration for students with dysgraphia. Even at the college level, some students continue to demonstrate this specific learning disability and its observable connection to the emotional and physical stresses of writing and spelling (National Center for Learning Disabilities, n.d.). Often, this disability co-exists with other disabilities, including Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), and these stresses can result in writing fatigue. One way of resolving part of this problem is to encourage all students to take notes with a laptop, tablet, iPad, iPhone, tape recorder, or other technological devices they are comfortable using. When all students have this option, no one is stigmatized, and those with dysgraphia can focus on the substance of note-taking rather than the frustration of handwriting.

(7) Guide students to enjoy in-depth connections between and among the arts, science, literature, music, history, philosophy, mathematics, sociology, psychology, anthropology, technology, engineering, and other content areas. These culturally enriching experiences are enhanced when professors accompany students on related field trips (in lieu of certain class sessions) that increase their awareness of real-world applications and simultaneously improve their critical thinking skills. A poignant example germane to student debt has taken place at the Eli and Edythe Broad Art Museum (2014-2015) at Michigan State University. The exhibition titled *Day After Debt: A Call for Student Loan Relief* highlights the out-of-control debt culture connected to higher education in the United States. Kurdish artist Ahmet Ogut and other artists have sculpted imaginative responses to the debt crisis and its stresses on college graduates. These sculptures not only promote an awareness of a major societal problem but also encourage contributions to The Debt Collective, which is an initiative for canceling student debt. When students connect art and other content areas to societal issues, they are potentially more interested in learning and more likely to engage in related projects.

(8) Use office hours as opportunities for listening to students’ perspectives and individualizing instruction related to individual and team projects. Office hours provide a warm context for demonstrating a genuinely caring attitude toward students’ well-being. In a recent Gallup survey (partnered with Purdue University and Lumina Foundation), college graduates were more likely to be engaged at work if they had reflections of professors who nurtured their excitement in learning, who supported their efforts in an internship-type program, who encouraged them to pursue their passions, and who cared about them. If this type of emotional support while in college has potential to sustain graduates’ engagement at work, common sense would suggest that it also can help motivate students to complete their college education. Regrettably, of the graduates who responded to the Gallup survey, only 14 percent remembered having professors who provided this type of emotional support. Although most professors understandably have a deep interest in their content areas, they sometimes forget that people are primarily emotional and secondarily intellectual and that

the best way of reaching their minds is through their hearts. Additional information about the survey is found in Gallup-Purdue Index Releases Inaugural Findings of National Landmark Study (2014).

(9) Require “success-orientation” seminars where students not only receive support for academic learning but also accrue credits toward their college degree. These types of seminars should include practical aspects of navigating the culture of higher education, such as where pertinent offices are located, how to make an appointment to meet with a professor or adviser, what constitutes plagiarism, and other student concerns. More specifically, first-year students benefit from learning and applying note-taking strategies (e.g., interactive two-column and three-column approaches), reading/study strategies (e.g., PQ4R), and critical thinking skills (e.g., dialectical/generative approaches to critical/creative thinking). There is always a risk in these generic seminars of presenting many skills and strategies but providing insufficient time to apply them to content area materials. One remedy for this problem is to design the success-orientation seminars with a focus on disciplines; then, professors are invited to present specific approaches that have helped their students achieve success in their content areas. This methodology is especially helpful when the professors present pertinent resources and guide students to apply newly learned strategies and skills to the resources, thereby increasing transfer of learning. Also complementary to academic learning are emotional considerations like mindfulness meditation, which can reduce stress and increase engagement. Harris (2014) suggests getting started with just five minutes a day of meditation, which includes (1) sitting with your spine straight and your eyes closed; (2) focusing your full attention on the feeling of your breath inhaling and exhaling through your nose, chest, or belly; (3) realizing that as your mind wanders, focus your attention back to your breath.

(10) Be sensitive to class attendance and reinforce its importance during class discussions and individual conferences. Russo-Gleicher’s (2011) suggestions for dealing with student absences include: noting attendance problems early in the semester and speaking with students privately about this issue; conveying empathy by listening attentively to students’ issues and demonstrating feelings for their situation; conveying hope by supporting students’ efforts to improve their attendance, for example, matching peer tutors with students who have been absent because of medical problems or a death in the family; and offering choices that support students’ self-determination.

(11) Organize social events that bring students together and make them feel connected to their community of learners. Social integration (or social involvement) is vitally important for retaining students, especially ethnic minority students. It helps them to “fit in” socially, thereby increasing their persistence at a higher rate than students who feel they do not “fit in.” Townsend (2007) provides an excellent synthesis of related research.

(12) Reconstruct aspects of the academy to accommodate prescriptive analytics on a descriptive level, thereby analyzing how students are performing and, when necessary, applying appropriate interventions to improve instruction and retention. Professors can determine how courses are progressing by monitoring the rate of change in students’ engagement, which involves their contributions in class, their performance on assignments, and other outcomes related to course content and process. By observing and monitoring students’ progress, professors can identify students who are at risk of failure and can modify instructional methodologies to accommodate their learning needs and cognitive styles. In content area problem-solving, for example, professors can pose an “open” problem, which provides students with sufficient space for solving it in creative ways: spatially, verbally, numerically, or a combination of these and other processes. This broader context is enriched when professors encourage the whole class to join the conversation and become interactive members of the learning community. When this discourse becomes a routine part of classroom practice, it demonstrates respect for individuals’ perspectives as it helps everyone to determine if there is evidence that students understand the underlying concepts of the problem being solved. It also inspires students to continue their engagement and resilience in learning as they refine their problem-solving strategies. Meanwhile, it helps professors to reflect on the effectiveness of their scaffolding of students’ engagement and to determine if certain students might need extra help.

If so, professors can meet with these students individually, or they can refer them to fast-track developmental education courses that are credit-bearing.

(13) Learn and apply these and other high-impact approaches through effective professional development for administrators, professors, mentors, and tutors. A variety of approaches can be effective for learning about evidenced-based strategies that support students' efforts to achieve success and to graduate in a timely fashion. These approaches include study groups, face-to-face workshops, online sessions, and blended learning. An often-neglected but important part of professional development is students' participation (Sanacore & Piro, 2014), which provides opportunities for gaining insights about students' personal and academic stresses and for determining appropriate methods and strategies to help students overcome them. When possible, students should be invited to become active participants in professional development activities.

Some Final Thoughts

For these and other high-impact considerations to work cohesively, we believe administration and faculty need to incorporate more “C” words: commitment, compassion, cooperation, consistency, context, and caring. Because caring is the cornerstone of success in any institution, it represents an essential step in transforming an institution (Hammond & Senor, 2014). Moving in this direction promotes a positive teaching and learning culture, which is especially needed for students who are the first in their families to attempt a college education. This comprehensive support also instigates a provocative question: Have the students been underperforming, or has the system been underperforming?

To help first-generation students succeed in college, administrators and professors must realize that 51% of public school students nationwide (new majority) are from low-income families (Southern Education Foundation, 2015) and that those who attempt a college education will need a teaching-learning context that is sensitive to their demography. Of vital importance is a support system that provides regular (required) access to a dedicated adviser with a small case load, a dedicated career and employment services staff member, and dedicated tutoring services. These types of support are key components of the highly successful City University of New York experiment, which helps a substantial number of students to graduate from community college (Scrivener et al., 2015).

Not surprisingly, male students are increasingly at risk of not completing their college education. In a recent report from the National Center for Education Statistics (2014), a growing gender gap in college enrollment is indicated. The report predicts that females' rate of increase in earning college degrees will outpace that of males' for every type of degree. For example, the projected increase for the Associate's Degree is women-21% and men-9%, and for the Bachelor's Degree, it is women-22% and men-10%.

If President Obama's My Brother's Keeper Program (2014) is effective, then more ethnic minority males will not only graduate from high school but also be better prepared to handle college-level requirements. This potential outcome is more likely to be realized when My Brother's Keeper Program engages students in the rigor of working hard. In a recent national survey of 1,347 high school graduates—men, women, Whites, African Americans, Hispanic Americans—most respondents said they would have worked harder if the expectations were higher. Disaggregated by ethnicity, 53% of African Americans and 50% of Hispanic Americans answered affirmatively to the question: “If my high school had demanded more, set higher academic standards, and raised expectations of the course work and studying necessary to earn a diploma, I am certain I would have worked harder” (Achieve, 2014, p. 14). Students in elementary schools, secondary schools, and colleges are more apt to work hard and to meet challenging expectations when their learning environment is stimulating, engaging, and supportive (Hidden Curriculum, 2014).

Society benefits substantially from college graduates, as they contribute socially, culturally, and economically (Sanacore & Palumbo, 2015a, 2015b). Educated citizens are able to grow beyond their low-income status and to push their families into the middle class. They are more likely to have higher earning potential, greater job satisfaction, healthier lifestyle choices, health-care coverage provided by employers, and higher expectations for their children to earn a college degree. These are only a few of the reasons to work deliberately in promoting a high-impact commitment that supports students' efforts to complete their college education. Undoubtedly, this momentum will boost America's global competitiveness as it lessens the struggle and mistreatment of first-generation students, whose voice is often marginalized in higher education.

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An Examination of the Documentary Film “Einstein and Eddington” in terms of Nature of Science Themes, Philosophical Movements, and Concepts

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Abstract

This study aims to examine nature of science themes, philosophical movements, and overall concepts covered in the documentary film, “Einstein and Eddington”. A qualitative research method was used. In this study, the documentary film "Einstein and Eddington," the viewing time of which is 1 hour and 28 minutes, was used as the data source. Content analysis was used to analyze the data. As a result of the research, it has been found that the documentary put emphasis on the philosophical movements of positivism, rationalism, and relativism. It has been identified that five nature of science themes have been addressed in the documentary, namely that scientific knowledge is tentative; that it includes logical, mathematical, and empirical inferences; that it is subjective; that it is partly the product of human imagination and creativity; and that it is influenced by social and cultural factors. The documentary included concepts related to Einstein's Theories (General and Special Relativity), light deflection in the gravitational field and solar eclipse. As a result, this study showed that "Einstein and Eddington" is a documentary film that could be used in the instruction of some nature of science themes, philosophical movements, and concepts.

Keywords: Einstein and Eddington, nature of science, philosophical movements, teaching concepts, content analysis

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Introduction

In the historical process, as the fundamental understandings in reaching knowledge change, the beliefs about the nature of knowledge also change. These changes also raise new conceptions in the processes of conveying knowledge to new generations. One of the most widely accepted conceptions is that learning is highly subjective; everyone has a different learning capacity, and each individual can learn a particular knowledge if suitable methods are used. This puts the “learning” phenomena and the learning-teaching processes at the center of attention (Özden, 2013). As a product of this effort focused on the learning, various teaching methods and techniques were developed towards an effective learning and teaching process. For effective instruction, teachers are required to select the most appropriate methods and techniques regarding themselves, their students, the subject area, and the behaviors that they want to raise (Fidan & Erden, 1994).

In the education-teaching process to which the contemporary approach was adopted, the teacher helps students to improve their skills regardless of the subject matter. The goal of this kind of instruction is not to memorize knowledge; it is intended to ensure the use of knowledge in order to acquire new knowledge from it, or in other words, to ensure thinking (Özden, 2014). The goal here is not to transfer the existing knowledge to students; it is to teach them the ways of accessing the knowledge.

Science-related issues usually contain abstract and complex concepts, which cause them to be perceived as difficult to understand. Therefore, to help students learn in science courses at the required level, concrete and visual materials should be used together with effective teaching methods and techniques, even in the teaching of abstract concepts (Gezer, Köse, & Sürücü, 1998). Thus, teachers will be able to train science literate individuals instead of students who fear the course or have difficulty understanding it.

Science literate individuals are quite important for communities, as they can solve the social and environmental problems of 21st century (Eisenhart, Finkel, & Marion, 1996). Scientific literacy means individuals can participate in an informed decision-making process featuring issues of daily life (DeBoer, 1991) and evaluate science as a part of modern culture (Hanuscin, 2013). In this context, to reach the scientific literacy goal, understanding the nature of science (NOS) has become a prominent target in science education reform (AAAS, 1993; MEB, 2013; NRC, 1996).

For science literacy education, it is necessary to teach not only science concepts and theories, but also the nature of these concepts and seeing how they function together with the physical world (Eichinger, Abell, & Dagher, 1997). Understanding of science in recent years has moved away from the traditional positivist view, which used to define science dependent to authority and independent of objective and cultural influences. The nature of science is defined within a frame based on the relative structure of science and the studies of philosophers such as Kuhn and Hanson. According to the post-modern approach, science is theory- and culture-dependent and subject to human initiative, which is based on experimental observations (Schwartz, 2004). Science is an engagement in trying to find the truth and to explain the factual world (Sönmez, 2008). Science is the product of humanity's common thought. Understanding science provides practical information to people in everyday life.

McComas, Clough, and Almazroa (1998) defined the nature of science as a mixture of various aspects of social sciences, such as science philosophy, science history, and science sociology, integrated with mental sciences, such as psychology in investigating the explanations of issues such as how science works, how scientists work as a social group, how the community drives scientific efforts, and how it reacts. According to Lederman (1992), the nature of science is seen as the values and beliefs inherent in scientific knowledge.

Although there is no single and universally accepted definition of NOS at present, an important academic consensus has been achieved about the aspects of NOS that should be taught in

school science (Lederman, Abd-El-Khalick, Bell, & Schwartz, 2002; Smith, Lederman, Bell, McComas, & Clough, 1997; Smith & Scharman, 1999). These aspects are: scientific knowledge, which includes “facts,” “theories,” and “laws” is both reliable and tentative, empirically based, subjective and/or theory-laden, partly the product of human imagination and creativity, subject to a distinction between observations and inferences, and influenced by social and cultural factors; and theories and laws are different types of knowledge (Lederman, 2007). Scientific knowledge is subject to change in an evolutionary or revolutionary way, with the acquisition of new data or re-interpretation of existing data (Lederman et al., 2002).

Science is a concept associated with philosophy as well. Science attempts to reach the truth using scientific methods. It provides highly accurate, proven information obtained via experiment, observation, review, and research. On the other hand, philosophy attempts to reach the truth via the information obtained from the science, as well as other areas, such as art, thought, and ethics (Sönmez, 2009). Scientists have adopted different philosophical movements to obtain accurate information or to distinguish science from other ways of thinking. Scientific Outlook, Empiricism, Positivism, Rationalism, and Relativism are among these movements. Scientific Outlook argues that there is no subject or fact that science could not handle. Those who adopted this view represent an extreme, suggesting that scientific method can even address philosophy, art, and morality (Topdemir, 2011). The knowledge obtained through science allowed humanity to control the natural environment and provided the ability to use the offerings of nature to facilitate life, to live more comfortably, more securely, and longer (Doğan, Çakıroğlu, Bilican, & Çavuş, 2009). The major representative of the Empiricism movement is John Locke (1632-1704). According to Locke, at the beginning the human mind is a blank sheet without any mark on it (*tabula rasa*). From here, it can be concluded that John Locke accepted observation and experiment as the only sources of knowledge (Topdemir, 2011). Positivism, which emerged in the 18th century, represented by Auguste Comte (1789-1857) and Ernst Mach (1838-1916), has adopted a more advanced status than Kant about science’s area of knowledge and the possibility of metaphysics (Topdemir, 2011). Kant acknowledged that metaphysics had a moral value in the practice, Comte and Mach claimed that metaphysics had no value. According to Sönmez, Kantian ethics is a philosophic system pretending that accurate information can be obtained from the review of facts and this kind of information can only be provided by experimental sciences. Positivism suggests that we can understand the outside world via the information obtained from observation and experiment. Rationalism is a philosophy suggesting reason as the chief source and test of knowledge. Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, and Descartes are a few of the philosophers who adopted rationalism. The scientist who suggested relativity is Einstein. According to Einstein’s theory of relativity, time is associated with the speed of light; space is also related to it (Sönmez, 2008). Feyerabend has also adopted relativity. He pretended that the meanings of the terms used in a scientific explanation may change over time with the emergence of new explanations (Feyerabend, 1995).

Using the history of science in teaching scientific concepts provides in-depth thinking and discussion opportunities to students (Matthews 1994). Explaining the history and stages of scientific knowledge during science courses, as opposed to only instructing on scientific issues and major scientific laws, will help students to understand the nature, history, and philosophy of science (Türkmen & Yalçın, 2001). In the history of science, it has been seen that many scientists have carried scientific knowledge into daily life. Galileo’s (1564-1642) use of the telescope for astronomical purposes, the Wright brothers’ (Orvil, 1871-1948; Wilbur, 1867-1912) flying away from land with the first plane called *Flyer I*, Alexander Graham Bell’s (1847-1922) invention of telephone, and Thomas Alva Edison’s (1847-1931) discovery of electric light bulb are all examples of scientific knowledge finding application in daily life (Seçkin Kapucu, 2013).

In order to ensure students’ upbringing as science literate individuals, it would be useful to instruct science courses with the aid of systematically prepared and planned documentary films, which are based on the life of scientists, to teach them the phases of science, characteristics of scientific knowledge, how scientific knowledge has changed over time, and the ways of reaching scientific knowledge. In this way, students will find the opportunity to learn about science, the nature

of science, the features of scientific knowledge, and scientists. In addition, students' bias on this issue may disappear, so they may be more interested in science.

This study attempts to show how themes on the nature of science and philosophical movements and concepts take place in the documentaries. Here, this is done specifically by examining the documentary film "Einstein and Eddington." For this purpose, the following questions were addressed.

- Which nature of science themes were covered in documentary film "Einstein and Eddington"?
- Which philosophical movements were covered in documentary film "Einstein and Eddington"?
- Which concepts were covered in documentary film "Einstein and Eddington"?

Methodology

Design of the Study

A qualitative method was used in this study aiming to examine nature of science themes, philosophical movements, and overall concepts taking place in the documentary film "Einstein and Eddington."

Data Source

In addition to written sources, visual materials such as film, video, and photograph can be used in qualitative research (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). This film (Martin, 2008) was selected as the data source for the content analysis. The film contains many topics, such as characteristics of scientists, lives of scientists, studies of scientists, scientific research process, the experiences of the scientists in this process, how science affects society, how society affects science, and cooperation between scientists. Therefore, the present researchers attempted to investigate the film in terms of the nature of science, philosophical movements, and concepts. The documentary film is about the development Albert Einstein's general theory of relativity and Sir Arthur Eddington, a British scientist who had proven his ideas experimentally. In the film, it has been proven that Newtonian physics has been unable to respond to new requests by Einstein and Eddington, and it was supposed to be eliminated. In the movie, many scientists were mentioned, namely Isaac Newton, Max Planck, Fritz Haber, and Wilhelm Röntgen. The film differentiates itself from other documentaries in terms of featuring the cooperative work of many scientists and attempting to prove Albert Einstein's theory experimentally. In the study, the British-made documentary film "Einstein and Eddington," the view time of which is 88 minutes, was used as a data source.

Data Analyses

A qualitative data analysis is a process in which the researchers organize the data, divide it into analysis units, synthesize it, reveal a pattern, explore important variables, and choose the information to reflect in the report (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992).

A content analysis technique was used for data analysis. Data analysis was based on various characteristics of scientific knowledge, which were agreed upon among many researchers (Lederman, Abd-El-Khalick, Bell, & Schwartz 2002; Smith, Lederman, Bell, McComas, & Clough, 1997; Smith & Scharman, 1999). These characteristics are: scientific knowledge is reliable but it is subject to change; scientific knowledge includes logical, mathematical, and empirical inferences; scientific knowledge is subjective; human imagination and creativity have an important role in the acquisition of scientific knowledge; scientific knowledge is influenced by social and cultural climate; observation and inference are different things; and scientific theories and laws are different types of information (Lederman, 2007). Although there is no single and universally accepted definition of NOS, at the moment, an important academic consensus has been achieved that the aspects of NOS should be taught in school science (Lederman, Abd-El-Khalick, Bell, & Schwartz 2002; Smith, Lederman, Bell, McComas & Clough, 1997; Smith & Scharman, 1999). These aspects are: scientific knowledge, which includes "facts," "theories," and "laws" is both reliable and tentative, empirically based,

subjective and/or theory-laden, partly the product of human imagination and creativity, subject to a distinction between observations and inferences, and influenced by social and cultural factors; and theories and laws are different types of knowledge (Lederman, 2007). The categories associated with the characteristics of scientific information, which were required for the first question of the research, were set. These categories were considered during the analysis. Regarding the second and third questions of the research, philosophical movements (Scientific Outlook, Empiricism, Positivism, Rationalism, and Relativism) and concepts included in the literature were considered.

First, transcripts of the conversations in the film have been formed. The transcripts have been transferred into written form, yielding a total of 84 pages of written text. Then the documents were read and the information was coded. Afterwards, coded documents were combined and examined according to the purpose of the study. Each data point was first open-coded, and then coded data were grouped into categories based on the relationships among codes. At the second stage, all categories were described, summarized, and explained under themes (Miles & Huberman, 1994). For the sake of reliability, two researchers have coded the data separately, independently of each other. Then the codes were compared. No statistical analysis was performed while comparing the data; instead, an overall comparison was performed and a consensus was established by discussing a few codes. The coding compliance level was found to be high.

Findings

Nature of Science Themes Included in the Movie

The review of the film in terms of nature of science themes revealed that five nature of science themes were mentioned. These are: scientific knowledge is reliable but it is subject to change; scientific knowledge includes logical, mathematical, and empirical inferences; scientific knowledge is subjective; human imagination and creativity have an important role in the acquisition of scientific knowledge; and scientific knowledge is influenced by social and cultural factors at the developmental and practical stages. In this study, the researchers attempted to explain the nature of science themes included in the documentary film named "Einstein and Eddington" by giving examples of the film's dialogue.

Scientific knowledge is reliable but is subject to change: Regarding the dialogue of the movie Einstein and Eddington, the statement "and we have a new theory of gravity" implies the malleability of scientific knowledge. The dialogue quoted from the film Einstein and Eddington and the corresponding appearance times are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. *Scientific knowledge is reliable but is subject to change*

Duration	Dialogue	Scientific knowledge	Explanation
01:22:17,040--> 01:22:21,238	then the sun's gravitational field has shifted the stars' position	Scientific knowledge is reliable but is subject to change.	Scientific knowledge is subject to change with new observations and re- interpretation of existing observations (Doğan et al., 2009).
01:22:21,280 --> 01:22:24,033	and we have a new theory of gravity.		

Scientific knowledge includes logical, mathematical, or experimental inferences: Among the dialogue of the movie, the statement "then the sun's gravitational field has shifted the stars' position" mentions scientific knowledge including logical, mathematical, or experimental inferences. The dialogue quoted from the film "Einstein and Eddington" and the corresponding appearance times are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. *Scientific knowledge includes logical, mathematical, or experimental inferences*

Duration	Dialogue	Scientific knowledge	Explanation
00:17:03,120--> 00:17:07,830	What use is science if it has no practical application?	Scientific knowledge includes logical, mathematical, or experimental inferences.	Scientific knowledge is based on the data obtained from the observation of nature and experiments (Doğan et al., 2009).
01:09:39,040--> 01:09:42,316	As we look at the eclipsed sun through the giant telescope,		
01:09:45,640--> 01:09:50,111	We'll take photographs of these stars during the five minutes of eclipse,		
01:09:50,160--> 01:09:52,913	and then compare them to photographs taken of the same stars at night.		

Scientific knowledge is subjective: Regarding the dialogue of the movie, the statement “Einstein says that time is not the same for all of us...” is about the subjectivity of scientific knowledge. The dialogue quoted from the film *Einstein and Eddington* and the corresponding appearance times are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. *Scientific knowledge is subjective*

Duration	Dialogue	Scientific knowledge	Explanation
01:23:34,880--> 01:23:40,352	Einstein says that time is not the same for all of us...	Scientific knowledge is subjective.	According to Newton, a bar of one meter long is one meter in all parts of the universe. However, according to Einstein, a bar of one meter long becomes shorter as it moves faster (Sönmez, 2008).

Human imagination and creativity have an important role in the acquisition of scientific knowledge: Regarding the dialogue of the movie, the statement “Pick up the tablecloth. Space. The tablecloth is space,” implies that imagination and creativity are important in the acquisition of scientific knowledge. The dialogue quoted from the film *“Einstein and Eddington”* and the corresponding appearance times are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. *Human imagination and creativity have an important role on the acquisition of scientific knowledge.*

Duration	Dialogue	Scientific knowledge	Explanation
01:07:37,160--> 01:07:39,276	Pick up the tablecloth.	Human imagination and creativity have an important role in the acquisition of scientific knowledge.	Since science is a human product, imagination and creativity are inevitable in the acquisition of scientific knowledge.
01:07:43,280--> 01:07:45,794	Space. The tablecloth is space.		

Scientific knowledge is influenced by social and cultural factors at the developmental stage: Regarding the dialogue of the movie, the statement “Would you see that this gets to Cambridge? They won't allow me to post it. But you... you are... They would allow you to. Please,” shows that scientific knowledge is influenced by social and cultural factors at the developmental stage. The dialogue quoted from the film “Einstein and Eddington” and the corresponding appearance times are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. *Scientific knowledge is influenced by social and cultural factors at the developmental stage.*

Duration	Dialogues	Scientific knowledge	Explanation
01:06:19,600--> 01:06:21,079	Pass, please.	Scientific knowledge is influenced by social and cultural factors at the developmental stage.	Scientific knowledge is mostly influenced by social and cultural factors such as economy, politics, religion, and philosophy.
01:06:24,840--> 01:06:28,913	Would you see that this gets to Cambridge?		
01:06:28,960--> 01:06:31,030	They won't allow me to post it.		
01:06:33,520--> 01:06:35,954	But you... you are...		
01:06:36,000--> 01:06:39,470	They would allow you to. Please.		

Philosophical Movements Included in the Movie

It has been found that positivism, relativism, and rationalism were the main philosophical movements referenced in the movie. Below, the researchers attempt to explain the philosophical movements included in the documentary film "Einstein and Eddington" by giving examples from the film's dialogue.

Positivism: Positivism pretends that we can understand the outer world via the information obtained from observation and experiment. Dialogue about the solar eclipse is given below in Table 6. The dialogue is about an observation related to the eclipse. Thus, based on the dialogue, the existence of the positivism philosophy can be suggested.

Table 6. *Positivism*

Duration	Dialogues	Scientific knowledge	Philosophical movement
01:09:20,160--> 01:09:22,674	I know, too bright. But May 29th, 1919.	Scientific knowledge includes logical, mathematical, or experimental inferences.	Positivism
01:09:23,840--> 01:09:26,149	Total solar eclipse. A chance to look at the sun.		
01:09:26,200--> 01:09:27,679	- Where? - Africa.		
01:09:39,040--> 01:09:42,316	As we look at the eclipsed sun through the giant telescope,		
01:09:42,360--> 01:09:45,591	it will be directly in the middle of the Hyades star cluster.		
01:09:45,640--> 01:09:50,111	We'll take photographs of these stars during the five minutes of eclipse,		
01:09:50,160--> 01:09:52,913	and then compare them to photographs taken of the same stars at night.		
01:09:52,960--> 01:09:55,474	One photographic plate on top of another.		
01:09:55,520--> 01:09:58,592	Are the stars in the same place or different?		

Relativism: “Einstein says that the time is not the same for all of us , ...
... and it is different for all of us. In such a relative point of view”

Einstein is the scientist who suggested relativity. According to Einstein's theory of relativity, time is associated with the speed of light; space is also related to it. From the dialogue displayed in Table 7, it can be concluded that relativity philosophy was included within the documentary.

Table 7. *Relativism*

Duration	Dialogues	Scientific knowledge	Philosophical movement
00:29:19,760--> 00:29:25,835	He's suggesting that time is at different speeds in the universe,	Scientific knowledge is subjective.	Relativism
00:29:25,880--> 00:29:28,872	depending on how fast you're moving.		
00:29:28,920--> 00:29:33,550	The faster you move, the more time... slows down.		
00:29:33,600--> 00:29:37,036	Time isn't the same everywhere?		
00:29:37,080--> 00:29:38,513	That's what he says.		
00:29:38,560--> 00:29:41,120	Yes, time isn't shared. It's not an absolute.		

Rationalism: It is the philosophical movement regarding reason as the chief source of knowledge. Scientists are mostly involved with events that cannot be directly observed, thus they tend to support their arguments with evidence that they have obtained implicitly (İrez & Turgut, 2008). From the dialogue displayed in Table 8, it can be seen that logical reasoning is important in science. Rationalism philosophy is effective in logical reasoning.

Table 8. *Rationalism*

Duration	Dialogues	Scientific knowledge	Philosophical movement
01:08:31,360--> 01:08:35,911	When starlight comes near to the sun, what will happen to it?	Scientific knowledge includes logical, mathematical, or experimental inferences.	Rationalism
01:08:35,960--> 01:08:38,076	It'll bend.		
01:08:38,120--> 01:08:40,315	Yes.		
01:08:43,720--> 01:08:47,952	Starlight will bend.		

Concepts Included in the Movie

In addition to philosophical movements and scientific knowledge, concepts were also reviewed using the documentary film "Einstein and Eddington." The documentary included the concepts related to Einstein's Theories (General and Special Relativity), Light Deflection in the Gravitational Field and Solar Eclipse.

The theory of general relativity: The three main statements of general relativity (1916), which gives the gravitational theory of a four-dimensional universe, which is assumed to be

curvilinear and finite, are as follows: space and time are not solid. Their shape and structures are affected by mass and energy. The deflection of space and space-time is determined by mass and energy, whereas the space and its deflection determine the movement of the bodies (Priwer & Philips, 2009). In terms of general relativity, it can be said that space-time is curved around the high-mass bodies. Table 9 shows the dialogue about the Theory of General Relativity.

Table 9. *The theory of general relativity*

Duration	Dialogue	Scientific knowledge	Explanation
01:07:16,440--> 1:07:19,557	It's called general relativity.	Scientific knowledge includes logical, mathematical, or experimental inferences.	Positivism
01:07:19,600--> 1:07:23,752	It's a theory of gravity and... everything. Excuse me. Let me explain it to you.		
01:07:27,240--> 1:07:31,028	Let me just... Sorry. Let me just show you.		
01:07:57,440--> 01:07:59,237	The sun makes a shape around it in space.		
01:08:25,120--> 01:08:29,193	Space tells objects how to move, objects tell space what shape to be.		

The theory of special relativity: The two special relativity assumptions of Einstein are as follows: First, the laws of physics are the same for all observers in uniform motion relative to one another. Second, the speed of light (c) is the same for all observers, regardless of their relative motion or of the motion of the light source (Priwer & Philips, 2009). Dialogue about the theory of special relativity are shown in Table 7, where philosophical movements were reviewed.

The deflection of light in a gravitational field: The light of a star is deflected while passing close to the sun due to the deformation of space by the sun. Therefore, observers on earth perceive this as the star moving away from the sun (Barnett, 1980). Dialogue about the deflection of light in the gravitational field are shown in Table 8, where philosophical movements were reviewed.

Eclipse: The brave prediction of Einstein, featuring the deflection of light in a gravitational field, was proven in a very impressive manner by the observations made during the full eclipse that occurred on May 29, 1919. Astronomers have very carefully measured the positions of the stars that are close to the Sun during the Eclipse (Priwer & Philips, 2009). Dialogue about the Eclipse are shown in Table 6, where philosophical movements were reviewed

Discussions and Conclusion

In this study, the documentary film "Einstein and Eddington," featuring the experiences of scientists, has been analyzed in terms of how it could be used to present the nature of science, philosophical movements, and overall concepts to the students. As a result of this analysis it has been found that five nature of science themes were touched. These are: scientific knowledge is reliable; scientific knowledge includes logical, mathematical, and empirical inferences; scientific knowledge is subjective; human imagination and creativity play an important role in acquiring scientific knowledge; scientific knowledge is influenced by social and cultural factors at the developmental and

practical stages. It was seen that the film put emphasis on the philosophical movements of positivism, rationalism and relativism. The concepts included in the documentary are related to Einstein's theories: general and special relativity, light deflection in the gravitational field, and solar eclipse. As a result, it is suggested that the "Einstein and Eddington" documentary film could be used in the teaching of some nature of science themes, philosophical movements, and concepts.

Even though 2013 Science and Technology course curriculum consists of detailed activities and teaching methods featuring how to teach scientific concepts, there is no application about how to teach the nature of science or how to integrate it into the units (MEB, 2013). Therefore, this study attempted to perform an examination featuring how to use the visual materials in order to help spread the use of science history as an educational tool.

The use of such films, documentaries, videos, or similar materials in lessons is expected to accelerate the reasoning and learning process of students, to facilitate the making of discoveries concerning the nature of science, and to increase familiarity with scientific concepts. Therefore, students can learn a lot from this documentary in terms of the nature of science, philosophical movements, and overall concepts. In addition, it is suggested that the knowledge acquired through an event that has really occurred, compared to a method based on narration, will also be a better way for the assimilation and memorization of knowledge. Consequently, students who understand the stages and the history of scientific knowledge can more easily develop an understanding of the nature and the philosophy of science (Köseoğlu, Tümay, & Budak, 2008; Abd-El-Khalick, & Lederman 2000; Irwin, 2000; Klopfer & Cooley, 1963; Lin & Chen, 2002; Russell, 1981; Solomon, Duveen, Scot, & McCarthy, 1992; Şeker & Welsh, 2006; Türkmen & Yalçın, 2001; Yalaki & Çakmakcı, 2010).

Through activities performed with similar materials, students may be able to achieve learning via an enjoyable process in which they can participate actively. It is expected that students who meet and know the science, scientists, and scientific process through documentaries would be motivated to learn more, and therefore will wonder about the life stories of different scientists and develop awareness on this issue. Therefore, more visual materials, such as movies, documentaries, and animation should be analyzed, and their associations with the lessons, topics, or gains should be revealed. In addition, some criteria should be developed about the examination of the films. Films, differentiating in terms of various aspects of scientific knowledge, should be examined and compared.

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Educational progression in Ghana: Gender and spatial variations in longitudinal trajectories of Junior High School Completion rate

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Abstract

Completion of junior high school is a critical milestone in every Ghanaian child's educational trajectory and a critical step toward the transition to higher education. However, the rate of children completing junior high school still lags behind most educational indicators in Ghana. Far more attention is paid to ensuring that students enroll in school, with very little investment or commitment paid toward ensuring that they graduate or complete junior high school. Part of the problem is that there is little to no research on the challenges that children, especially girls, face in completing school. This study aims to bring school completion trends and related challenges to the forefront of research and policy discourse. Thus, the study uses multilevel growth curve modeling, spatial hot spot analysis, and school completion data (from 2009 through 2013) to offer longitudinal insights into (a) the scale and trajectories of junior high school completion in Ghana, and (b) the gender and spatial nuances in the trends. Findings suggest that the completion rate is steadily improving but still low. Findings also reveal unequivocal gender and spatial disparities in the completion rate and the rate's trajectories, although the spatial inequalities between northern and southern Ghana are more severe compared to the gender inequalities. Suggestions for how Ghana's government and its development partners can bridge the gender and spatial gaps are discussed.

Keywords: school completion; gender inequality; spatial disparity; multilevel growth curve modeling; spatial hot spot analysis; Ghana

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Introduction

Education should be a fundamental human right. Access to education benefits individuals and wider society, both socially and economically. Earning an education instills patriotic values, creates a greater sense of community, prevents criminal behaviors, and provides a common language and cultural norms (Gradstein, Justman & Meier, 2004; Ghana News Agency, 2009). Because of substantial interest in the education of all Ghanaian children, successive governments have continually initiated education reforms and policies to ensure that all Ghanaian children have access to a primary education. Between 1996 and 2009, a number of policies and initiatives were introduced to ensure all school-age Ghanaian children had access to a free basic education (CREATE 2008; i.e. Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) policy of 1996; the Capitation Grant of 2004; and the School Feeding Program of 2005). Over the years, these interventions have increased enrollments in basic schools such as primary and junior high school (Ministry of Education, 2010).

The expanded enrollment at the basic school level in Ghana is in line with the country's quest to meet Goal 2 (Achieve universal primary education) of the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals (MDG). Data from the United Nations' Development Program (UNDP) indicate that Ghana is on target to meet this goal of universal primary education (UNDP, 2015). Although the percentage of students who enroll in primary and junior high schools (JHS) remains high (94.9% in primary schools; 80.6% in junior high), the percentage who go on senior high school (SHS) is low (33.9%; World Bank, 2011), suggesting a transition problem for children transitioning between the basic school level and higher levels of education. Furthermore, a GER of 79.5% compared to a JHS completion rate of 66% for the academic year 2009-2010 indicates additional challenges for progress. According to a 2010 study by Sabates, Akyeampong, Westbrook and Hunt, school dropout patterns indicate that the period between JHS 2 and 3 is a critical time when many young people in basic school dropout. Moreover, young people who fail to complete their JHS education are unable to transition into senior high education or tertiary education.

The government of Ghana and education stakeholders are also confronted with concerns about spatial and gender inequalities in JHS completion (Darvas & Balwanz, 2014). For example, during the 2008-2009 academic year, there was a 4.2% gender gap in the primary school GER (male = 97%; female = 92.8%) compared with a wider gap of 6.9% at the SHS level (male = 36.7%; female = 30.8%; World Bank, 2011). These gender gaps suggest that by the time students progress from JHS to SHS, a higher percentage of female students will drop out compared to male students (World Bank, 2011). Data from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) suggests spatial inequality is extreme compared to the gender gap. For instance, between 1993 and 2011, the rural-urban gap in the JHS completion rate fluctuated between 20% and 32%. Over the same period, the disparity in the completion rate between the highest and lowest performing regions ranged between 46% and 54% (Education for All Global Monitoring Report [EFAGMR], n.d.).

Existing studies regarding basic school completion in Ghana are largely confined to selected geographical regions or limited points in time (Ampiah & Adu-Yeboah, 2009; Ananga, 2013; Senadza, 2012). Findings from selected regions and cross-sectional data do not fully reflect the trends in JHS completion across the country over a longer period. Furthermore, current studies do not show the nature and scale of progress or lack of progress in gender disparities at the district level over time.

However, this study conducted a trend analysis of the nature and scale of inequality of JHS completion at the district level in Ghana. Specifically, in addition to investigating national trends, this study aims to bridge the gap in the limited knowledge regarding gender and spatial trajectories of the JHS completion rate in Ghana. By helping to expand the current body of knowledge, this study can inform policies on where intervention should be focused.

Why basic school completion matters

Young people with education beyond basic school are better equipped with abstract and problem-solving skills to be self-dependent and to compete within the job market (Ajayi, 2012). Thus, high completion rates at the basic and higher levels of schooling are important for the country of Ghana to develop a capable workforce to achieve its middle-income status target by 2020 (Akyeampong, 2010). In other words, basic school education should be the bare minimum level of education required for very young Ghanaian.

From the economic theory of education perspective, the value of education particularly beyond basic school is derived from its ability to (a) build human skills and capacity to enhance productivity, (b) offer an alternative screening mechanism to identify ability, (c) instill societal norms of behavior to build social capital, and (d) develop one's performance value (Gradstein, Justman, & Meier, 2004). Analysis that focuses on the role of education in building human capital views education as an investment that yields future returns (Gradstein, Justman & Meier, 2004). As such, the public and parents should view young people's transition from JHS to higher levels of education as an investment that will yield future benefits. Indeed, empirical literature shows evidence of an increase in returns to education in Ghana from 1987 through 1999 (Ackah, Adjasi, Thurkson, & Acquah, 2014; Canagarajah & Thomas, 1997; Sackey, 2008). The benefits of education more than triples as young Ghanaians progress from basic to higher levels of schooling (Ackah, et al, 2014). Furthermore, Ghanaians with an education beyond JHS earn 80% more compared to those with no education or JHS education (Ackah, et al, 2014).

There is also an incentive for investing in education of all children without regard to gender. As Psacharopoulos and Patrinos' (2002) analysis suggests, women receive higher returns for their schooling investments compared to men. Similar findings from a global study of developed and developing economies, including Ghana, show that the average rate of return to secondary schooling is 8.7% for females compared to 7.1% for males (Montenegro & Patrinos, 2014). Additional evidence specifically from Ghana also shows that, although females generally earn less than males, educated female workers in the public sector earn 13% more in monthly wages compared to their male counterparts (Ackah et al., 2014). Thus, despite cultural challenges that hamper a girl's education, there is good reason to invest in their schooling beyond JHS because as current evidence suggests, education investment beyond basic school level yields returns for all genders but most especially for girls.

The view that holds education as a screening device suggests that education helps employers to identify the potential productivity of prospective employees (Gradstein, Justman, & Meier, 2004). Ghana's education system is designed so that students begin to acquire advanced knowledge, specialized skills, and competencies at the SHS level, all of which are often critical to the hiring needs of most employers in the formal sector. Thus, young people who are unable to acquire advanced knowledge and skills through SHS education are at a higher risk of being screened out by many employers. Indeed, a 2007 job tracking survey showed that more than 80% of available jobs in Ghana's formal employment sector were open only to individuals who had at least a SHS education (Akyeampong, Djangmah, Oduro, Seidu, & Hunt, 2007).

Analyses that focus on the role of education in building social capital emphasize the social returns of education. The education of Ghanaian children results in a host of benefits including: instilling patriotic values in children; developing a sense of community; hindering criminal and other antisocial behaviors, and providing a common language and cultural norms that improve the efficiency of communication (Krueger & Lindahl, 2001; Maliyamkono & Ogbu, 1999). The last analyses focus on the product of education, that is, the educated individual will be valued by society because of the knowledge and experience obtained through education. The educated individual becomes equipped with the relevant knowledge and experience to contribute to the socioeconomic development of the country.

Given the known returns to education across developed and developing economies, the important question is, how has Ghana acted to guarantee education for all? To understand Ghana's level of commitment to education, we must review a history of educational development in the country dating back to the pre-colonial period.

Historical background of education in Ghana

The development of education in Ghana began when the country was colonized by Britain. Before formal education was introduced in Ghana, parents and elders served as teachers within the community and were the primary informal structures that prepared Ghanaian members for citizenship (Eyiah, 2004). Under colonial leadership, the first education ordinance was passed in 1852 in Ghana to provide for the education of the inhabitants of the forts and settlements in southern Ghana. The ordinance did not achieve its intended objectives primarily because people refused to pay the hefty poll tax for education funding. A second education ordinance in 1882 brought two types of primary school into the country: government-run schools and sponsored schools managed by non-governmental organizations (Eyiah, 2004). For the most part, the colonial administration confined educational development to the southern territory until missionaries expanded their activities to the northern territory (Thomas, 1974). This era marked the beginning of serious spatial disparities in educational development that favored the southern part of Ghana. Later in the 1920s, the colonial government established the Educationists Committee and its recommendations saw tremendous expansion to the education system. Two decades later, the colonial government mooted the Accelerated Development Plan for Education, which was the earliest precursor to compulsory basic education in Ghana (Eyiah, 2004).

After Ghana attained independence in 1957, education became a high priority on the government's agenda. The government initiated policies on tuition-free primary and middle school education and pursued programs of teacher training, free textbooks for students, and overhauled education management by creating local education authorities with obligations for buildings, equipment, and maintenance grants for basic schools (Akrofi, 1982). Consequently, the number of primary and middle schools increased dramatically in the 1960s (Eyiah, 2004). Because of the significant investment in the education sector and its successes, the Ghana education system became one of the finest in Africa (Osei, 2012).

However, in the 1970s, Ghana experienced incessant political instability with its resulting poor management, corruption, and general macroeconomic turmoil (Mfum-Mensah, 1998, as cited in Eyiah, 2004). These problems had significant negative implications on education in Ghana to the point where the educational system became dysfunctional by the 1980s. In 1988, the military government of President Rawlings implemented wide-ranging reforms that touched all levels of Ghana's education system and attempted to tackle the periodic issues affecting the education system. The reforms reduced pre-university education in Ghana from 17 years to 12 years (i.e., 6 years of primary school and 6 years of secondary school). There was also a national literacy campaign offered as part of a non-formal education program for children who dropped out of school and for adult learners. In 1996, the Rawlings administration implemented the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE), which focused on basic education access and quality through improving the quality of teaching and learning, efficiency in management, and increasing access and local participation (Eyiah, 2004).

The next administration under President Kufuor launched major reforms in the education sector in 2007, introducing the new structure of JHS and SHS; JHS was no longer seen as a terminal point but a gateway to entering SHS and the tertiary level. Important components of the reform efforts were (a) the modernization of technical and vocational courses at the JHS level to make the courses relevant, and (b) the introduction of support and access programs for females at all levels to promote gender parity (MacBeath, 2010). The next government under President John Evans Atta-Mills continued with the education reforms initiated under President Kufuor (Seshie-Vanderpuije, 2011).

After over a century of educational development and reforms targeted at primary and secondary education, Ghana has made much educational progress, particularly in increasing the number of children who enroll in basic education. Nevertheless, Ghana is still beset with high dropout rates and numerous other challenges, including inequalities related to geography and gender.

Geographic inequality in Ghana

One of the goals of this study is to investigate the spatial inequalities in the JHS completion rate in Ghana. It is worthy of note that access to life-enhancing resources in Ghana is unequally divided along the Northern and Southern sectors of the country (Varley et al., 2014). The incidence of extreme poverty in Ghana is more focused in the Northern Savannah Regions (i.e., Northern = 38.7%, Upper East = 60.1, and Upper West = 79%) compared to the other regions in the middle and southern part of the country (i.e., ranging from 6.2% in Greater Accra to 15.2% in Volta; NDPC & UNDP, 2012).

Apart from the economic inequalities between the northern and southern sectors, economic inequalities are also manifested in terms of rural versus urban areas of Ghana. In 2006, the incidence of extreme poverty in rural areas (25.6%) was nearly 5 times that of urban areas (5.7%; NDPC & UNDP, 2012). Rural areas within the Northern Savannah Regions were reported as the poorest zone, with current studies approximating that 90% of the population is now poor. Factors such as child-under nutrition, adult literacy rates and illiteracy levels are highest in the rural Savannah, and thus pointing to the degree of poverty and underdevelopment within the area (Ghana Statistical Service, 2000, 2005).

The economic inequalities in Ghana based on a southern versus northern divide and based on a rural versus urban divide is manifested in students' academic performance, with the poorest performing schools mostly found in rural and economically disadvantaged areas (Norviewu-Mortty, 2012). The low academic performance of students, particularly at the JHS level, appears to be more pronounced in some geographic parts of the country, especially in rural and disadvantaged areas (Ansong, Ansong, Ampomah, & Adjabeng, 2015; Senadza, 2012). The results of the 2013 National Education Assessment showed the percentage of students who achieved proficiency in math and English was 3 times greater in the Greater Accra region (in the Southern sector) than in the Northern regions (Varley, 2014). In 2007, 48% of the 320,235 JHS students who wrote the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) failed to obtain sufficient grades to qualify for SHS, with the majority of the students who failed in the BECE coming from rural and disadvantaged areas of Ghana (Norviewu-Mortty, 2012).

Education practices in the northern part of Ghana present many inequalities and disparities of the system of education that the country inherited from the British colonial government. Educational development in the northern part of Ghana is very recent compared to the southern half of the country. In addition, people in northern Ghana are underserved by Ghana's educational system. Northern Ghana receives a fraction of education expenditure compared to other regions (Akyeampong, 2004). The northern part of Ghana has fewer schools than its southern counterpart, especially when compared to the number of school-age children (Mfum-Mensah, 2002). Moreover, the northern part has a high pupil-to-teacher ratio, teachers who lack pre-service training, and comparatively poor school infrastructure (Eyiah, 2004).

The inequalities in economic well-being and academic performance in Ghana is suggestive of spatial disparity in other economic and social development indicators (Ansong & Chowa, 2013). However, existing empirical evidence is not emphatic about possible inequalities in specific educational outcomes such as JHS completion rate and its longitudinal dimension. There is a vital need to fill the gap in literature around the JHS completion rate, especially in reference to the southern versus northern divide and the rural versus urban divide.

Gender inequality in Ghana

Besides examining the national and spatial trends in school completion, this study also aims to investigate the gender dimension of JHS completion rate in Ghana. While gender inequality in Ghana has received much attention from researchers, few empirically driven analyses have been conducted of gender-time trends as it relates specifically to the JHS completion rate. One study by Ntim (2013) examined the cause of the mismatch in academic progression from JHS to SHS between boys and girls in the Ashanti and Brong Ahafo regions of Ghana. The study focuses on the factors that enable students, especially young girls, to leave school early. The study did not address the gender trajectory of the JHS completion rate of students across all regions of Ghana. Gender also interacts with geographical location to affect educational outcomes. Girls who live in rural areas and northern Ghana are more disadvantaged in comparison to girls living in urban and southern areas of the country (Akyeampong, Djangmah, Oduro, Seidu, & Hunt, 2007; Campaign for Female Education [Camfed], 2012). For instance, the number of girls who have never attended school is disproportionately higher in rural Ghana compared to urban Ghana (Akyeampong, 2007).

There are indications that the introduction of education policies such as FCUBE, Capitation Grant, and the 1997 establishment of the Girls' Education Unit (GEU) have narrowed the gender gap in enrollment (Camfed, 2012), although the extent of the gender gap in school completion is still unknown. In 2001, the GEU set a target that no more than 15% of girls would drop out of school, but there are indications of persistent high dropout rate among girls (Sutherland-Addy, 2008).

Method

Data source and sample

The study used district level longitudinal data from the Education Management Information System (EMIS) of the Ghana Education Service (GES). The data provided five years of JHS completion data (from 2009 through 2013) for the administrative districts in Ghana. The analytic sample for the study ranged from 142 districts in 2009 to 169 in 2013. The increasing sample size is due to periodic redistricting exercises to reflect growing population trends. We used multilevel growth curve modeling and spatial hot spots analysis to address the following three research questions: (a) What is the estimated annual growth curves for JHS completion rate for each district? (b) Do girls and boys have equivalent school completion trajectories, and (c) Are the districts experiencing significantly lower school completion rates spatially clustered and during what periods have completion rates plummeted?

Analytical strategy

Multilevel growth curve modeling of change in completion rate. Multilevel growth curve modeling (MGCM) with maximum likelihood estimation method was used to estimate the growth curves of school completion because it handles unbalanced sample sizes efficiently (Luke, 2004). Specifically, the study modeled the process of change in the JHS completion rate over time (i.e., from 2009 through 2013).

The time variable is the academic year (*Year*), which indicates the measurement occasion for each of the five annual data points on JHS completion rate. The main dependent variable, *JHS completion rate*, is a measure of the ratio of the total number of students graduating from the last year of JHS in a given year to the total number of students of official enrollment age in the population. The study examined the moderating effects of two time-invariant variables: *rural* and *south*. *Rural* is a binary measure of whether a district is classified by the GES as rural (deprived) or urban (not deprived). The study included this variable to test for rural-urban variation in school completion rates. *South* is a binary measure of whether a district is located in the northern or southern sector of the country. The northern sector comprises of the three northern regions in Ghana namely, Upper East,

Upper West, and Northern region. The Southern regions are Greater Accra, Eastern, Western, Central, Brong Ahafo, Ashanti, and Volta.

The study used a multigroup approach to compare rural and urban districts, as well as northern and southern districts. Gender differences were assessed by replicating all models with three separate samples: (a) full sample, (b) boys-only sample, and (c) girls-only sample. SPSS version 22 was used to conduct all analyses.

The MGCM was conducted in four steps. The first model (i.e., unconditional model) estimated the inter-district variations in school completion rate and the amount of variance accounted for by the inter-district differences and differences between years. The second model (i.e., unconditional linear growth curve model or the baseline model) examined significant differences in the districts' trajectory over time. The third model examined the higher-order change trajectories by adding a quadratic term ($Year^2$) to examine the rate of acceleration or deceleration in the school completion rate over time. The last model examined the moderating effects of a district's status as either predominantly rural or urban or spatial status as a northern or southern district. In other words, this model tested whether the change trajectories were statistically the same for rural and urban districts as well as northern and southern districts. The formal model is described as follows:

$$\text{Level 1: } Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(\text{Year})_{ij} + \beta_{2j}(\text{Year}^2)_{ij} + r_{ij}$$

$$\text{Level 2: } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(\text{South})_j + \gamma_{02}(\text{Rural})_j + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}(\text{South})_j + \gamma_{12}(\text{Rural})_j + u_{1j}$$

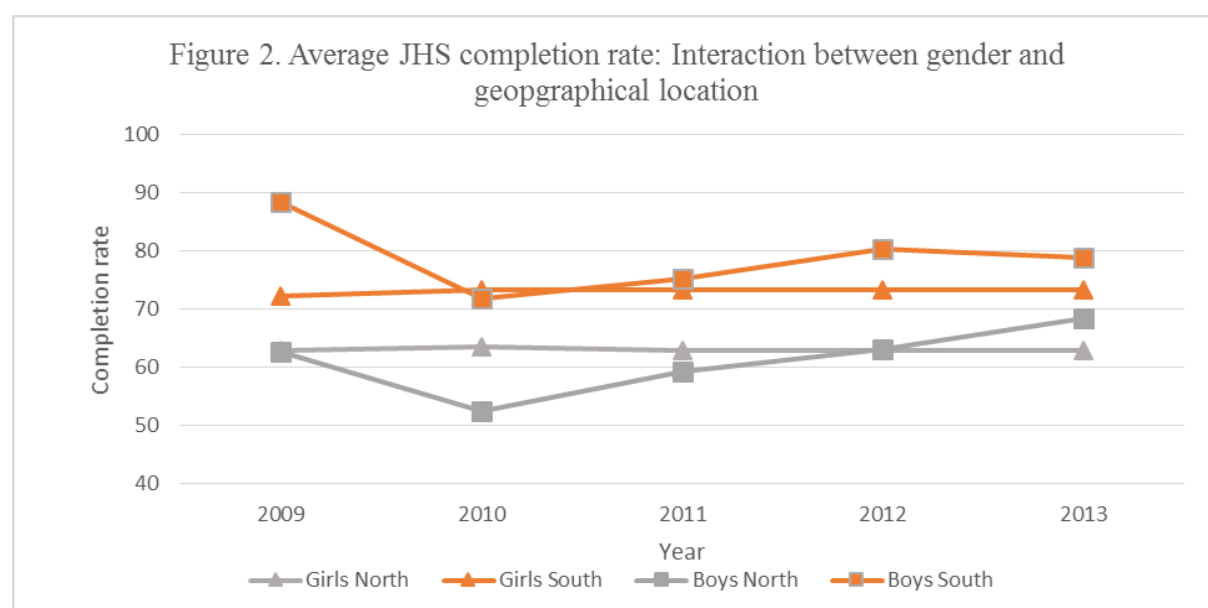
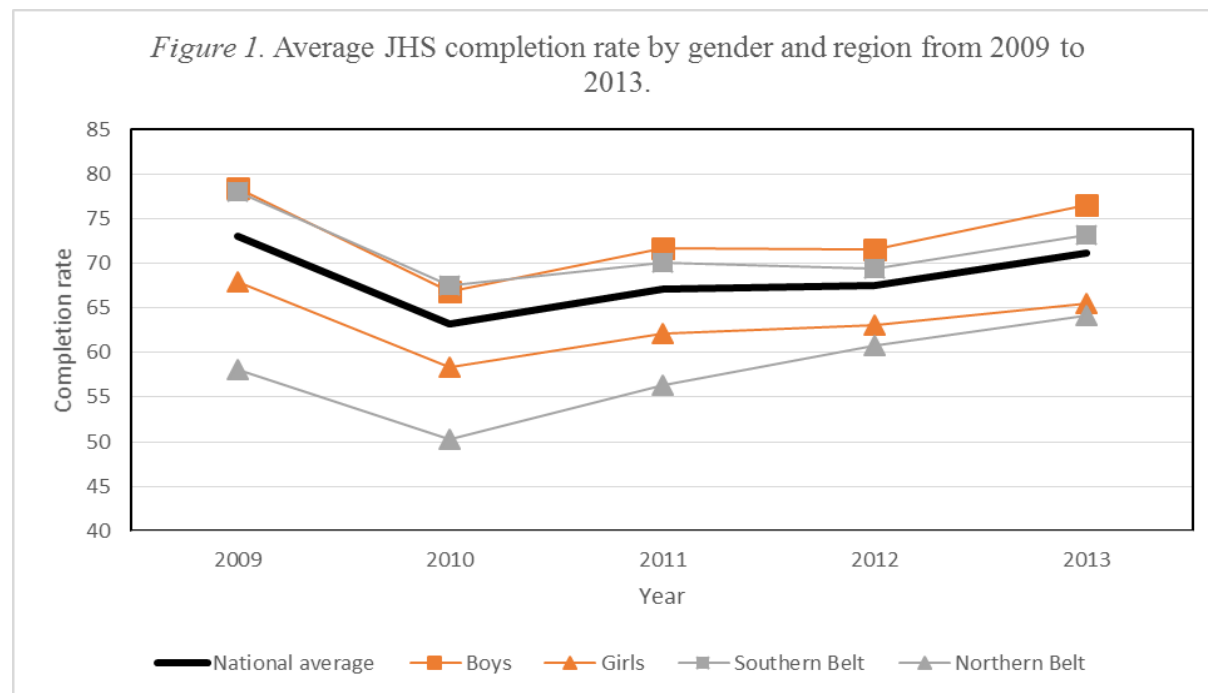
$$\beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + \gamma_{21}(\text{South})_j + \gamma_{22}(\text{Rural})_j$$

Spatial hot spot analysis. The study conducted hot spot analysis to examine the spatial variations in completion rate. Specifically, the Getis-Ord G_i^* statistic tool in ArcGIS was used to conduct the hot spot analysis to identify spatial clusters of statistically significant high or low rates of JHS completion. Geographically referenced district level data on JHS completion rate were weighted and used to define spatial clusters of districts with higher than average completion rate (classified as hot spots) and clusters of lower than expected completion rates (classified as cold spots).

Results

Descriptive results

Figure 1 presents trends of the JHS completion rate from 2009 through 2013. As depicted in the figure, the somewhat v-shaped nonlinear growth curve for the national averages is similar to the trends in the boys-only and girls-only samples, as well as the Southern and Northern districts. In other words, across all districts, the completion rate decreased sharply from 2009 to 2010 and then increased steadily for the remainder of the observation period. This nonlinear trend is consistent with the justification for modeling quadratic slopes ($Year^2$) to account for possible nonlinear individual growth trajectories of districts in Ghana. Figure 2 presents the interaction between gender and geographical location in the trends of the JHS completion rate. As the trend line indicates, boys have had a more erratic completion rate compared to girls. There is also evidence that girls across the North and South outperformed their male counterparts at one point (in 2010). It is also important to note that on average, compared to boys in the South, boys in the North have had a more consistent recovery since the sharp drop in 2010.



Multilevel Growth Curve of JHS completion rate

As shown in Table 1, results of the baseline models indicate high intraclass correlations (ICCs) for the full sample [i.e., $308.61/(308.61 + 156.94) = .66$]; boys-only sample [i.e., $317.67/(317.67 + 181.36) = .64$]; and girls-only sample [i.e., $315.95/(315.95 + 147.72) = 0.68$]. This is an indication that approximately two-thirds of the total variation in the completion rate for all three samples can be attributed to district differences.

In the full sample, the grand mean completion rate in year 2009 (initial status) was 76.74 ($\beta = 76.74$, $p < .001$) but there was a statistically significant linear decrease in the overall completion rate after 2009 ($\beta = -13.53$, $p < .01$) revealing that the rate of linear growth decreased over time. The significant quadratic effect was positive ($\beta = 2.77$, $p < .001$), showing that the rate of growth increased over the long term. This means the decreasing effect gradually diminished after 2009. Compared to the linear change trajectory (-13.53), the rate of quadratic growth (2.77) was small. In

other words, the completion rate for the full sample decreased at the beginning (-13.53), but the downward trajectory slowed later (2.77).

The model using the boys-only sample revealed a trend similar to the models with the full sample. The grand mean completion rate in 2009 was 83.84 ($\beta = 83.84, p < .001$), which is higher than the overall average (i.e., full sample average). However, the statistically significant negative linear effect shows that the linear growth in the completion rate after 2009 decreased over time ($\beta = -17.11, p < .01$). The rate of decrease in the linear growth over time was steeper compared to the full sample or the female-only sample. Similar to results from the full sample, the quadratic effect for the boys-only sample was significant and positive ($\beta = 3.37, p < .001$), showing that the rate of growth in the boys' completion rate increased over the long term. In other words, although the completion rate for the boys decreased at the beginning (-17.11), the rate of decrease slowed in subsequent years (3.37).

The overall trend in the girls-only data is consistent with the v-shaped trends for the full sample and the boys-only sample. For girls, the grand mean completion rate in 2009 was 71.20 ($\beta = 71.20, p < .001$), which is lower than the overall average and the boys-only average. Similar to results from the full and boys-only samples, the linear effect in the girls-only sample was statistically significant and negative ($\beta = -10.59, p < .05$) and the quadratic effect was significant and positive ($\beta = 2.2, p < .01$). This means starting from 2009, the completion rate for girls decreased over time (-10.59) but this decrease slowed in the long term (2.2).

Moderation effects of North-South divide

In the full sample, the North-South divide was a significant predictor of the initial status ($\beta = 23.08, p < .001$), but not the linear ($\beta = -3.74, p = .32$) and the quadratic changes ($\beta = .02, p = .97$) in the completion rate of the full sample. That means the Southern Belt had a significantly higher completion rate of the Northern Belt improved by 6.12 points while the Southern Belt decreased by 4.86 points. However, the rate of changes between the two regional belts was not statistically significant.

In the boys-only sample, the North-South divide was a significant predictor of the initial status ($\beta = 23.43, p < .01$) but not the linear ($\beta = -2.44, p = .71$) or the quadratic changes ($\beta = -.21, p = .64$) in the completion rate. That means the boys in Southern Ghana had a significantly higher completion rate in 2009. However, the rate of changes did not vary significantly by the region where the boys were schooled.

For the girls-only sample, the North-South divide was a significant predictor of the initial status ($\beta = 21.49, p < .001$) but not the linear ($\beta = -4.69, p = .19$) or the quadratic changes ($\beta = .25, p = .67$) in the completion rate. That means the girls in the Southern Belt had a significantly higher completion rate in 2009 compared to girls in the Northern Belt. However, the rate of changes in the girls' completion rate was not significantly different between girls in the Northern and Southern belts.

Moderation effects of Rural-Urban divide

In the full sample, the rural-urban divide was a negative predictor of the initial status ($\beta = -17.62, p < 0.01$) and the quadratic change ($\beta = -1.46, p < .05$) but a positive predictor of the quadratic changes ($\beta = 8.09, p < .05$) in the completion rate of the full sample. That means the rural districts had a significantly lower completion rate in 2009. Regarding the linear slope of the completion rate, the rural districts showed a faster rate of change compared with the urban districts. In terms of quadratic growth, the rural district had a slower rate of change in the completion rate when compared with the urban districts.

Similar to the full sample, results from the boys-only sample show that the rural-urban divide was a negative predictor of the initial status ($\beta = -19.15, p < 0.01$) and the quadratic change ($\beta = -1.67, p < .05$) but a positive predictor of the quadratic changes ($\beta = 9.49, p < .05$). That means the rural

districts had a significantly lower completion rate in 2009. Regarding the linear slope of the completion rate, the rural districts showed a faster rate of change compared with the urban district. In terms of quadratic growth, the rural district had a slower rate of change in the completion rate compared with the urban districts.

Within the girls' sample, the rural-urban divide was a negative predictor of the initial status ($\beta = -16.50, p < 0.01$) and the quadratic change ($\beta = -1.22, p < .05$) but not the linear changes ($\beta = 6.47, p = .09$). That means girls in the rural districts had a significantly lower completion rate in 2009 than those in the urban districts. In terms of quadratic growth, the rural district had a slower rate of change in the completion rate compared with the urban districts. Regarding the linear slope of the completion rate, the rural districts did not experience a faster rate of growth than their urban counterparts did.

Moderation role of gender

Overall, the gender comparison reveals that males have consistently had a higher completion rate compared to females. Overall, the magnitude of the gender gap has fluctuated over time. The gender gap was wider in 2013 (i.e., 10.97) compared to the four earlier observation periods in 2012 (i.e., 8.48); 2011 (i.e., 9.55); 2010 (i.e., 8.41); and in 2009 (i.e., 10.44). Neither boys nor girls have fully "recovered" from the huge decline in the completion rate from 2009 to 2010 (boys: -11.43; girls: -9.55). However, between the lowest completion rate in 2010 and the most recent observation period in 2013, boys have regained slightly more (+9.65) compared to girls (+7.09). Overall, boys had the steepest decline and that fastest recovery.

For the full sample, the correlation between the intercept and the linear growth parameter is negative ($\beta = -1.97, p < .001$), which means that districts with a high completion rate had a slower linear decrease, whereas districts with a low completion rate have a faster decrease in linear growth over time. However, this trend does not vary by gender (boys: $\beta = 4.80, p = .64$; girls: ($\beta = -10.29, p = .30$).

Table 1. Multilevel growth curve results of JHS completion rate

	Full sample		Boys sample		Girls sample	
	Model 1a Unconditional mean model	Model 1b Conditional growth model	Model 2a Unconditional mean model	Model 2b Conditional growth model	Model 3a Unconditional mean model	Model 3b Conditional growth model
Fixed effects						
Intercept (γ_{00})	68.59***	76.74***	73.08***	83.84***	63.60***	71.20***
Year (γ_{10})		-13.53**		-17.11**		-10.59*
Year ² (γ_{20})		2.77***		3.37***		2.2**
South (γ_{01})		23.08***		23.43**		21.49***
Rural (γ_{02})		-17.62**		-17.78**		-16.50**
Years * south (γ_{11})		-3.74		-2.44		-4.69
Year ² * south (γ_{21})		.02		-0.21		0.25
Year * rural (γ_{12})		8.09*		8.53*		6.47+
Year ² * rural (γ_{22})		-1.46*		-1.54*		-1.22*

Random effects

Residual (r_{ij})	156.94***	136.22***	181.36***	159.93***	147.72***	124.58***
Intercept (u_{0j})	308.61***	259.69***	317.67***	265.82***	315.95***	301.74***
Year (u_{1j})	-	-1.97	-	.18	-	-10.17

Model Fit

-2LL	6520.80	6428.53	6591.03	6488.03	6477.43	6403.75
AIC	6526.80	6454.52	6597.03	6514.03	6483.43	6429.75
BIC	6540.77	6515.04	6610.99	6574.49	6494.39	6490.27

Evidence of spatial clustering results

Results of the Getis-Ord spatial analysis presented in Table 2 reveals statistically significant patterns of high clustering of the completion rate, particular since 2011 and through 2013. Results show the pattern of clustering is largely progressive from 2009 to 2013. The larger the absolute value of the z-score, the stronger the intensity of the spatial clustering.

Table 2. Results of cluster analysis with the full, boys-only, and girls-only samples

Full sample			Boys-only sample			Girls-only sample			
Year	Observed G	Expected G	Z-score	Observed G	Expected G	Z-score	Observed G	Expected G	Z-score
2009	.087	.079	1.891	.086	.079	1.725	.087	.079	1.92
2010	.089	.079	2.433*	.088	.079	1.997*	.089	.078	2.323*
2011	.094	.079	6.006***	.093	.079	5.747***	.095	.079	6.139***
2012	.092	.079	5.281***	.092	.078	5.258***	.093	.079	5.173***
2013	.091	.079	5.444***	.02 ^{e-4}	.07 ^{e-3}	-2.106*	.093	.079	5.834***

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Figures 3 – 5 graphically illustrate areas with statistically significant clusters of high completion rate (hot spots) and areas with low completion rate (cold spots) in the full, boys-only, and girls-only samples. All 5 panels in Figure 3 show a clear trend of clustering, with the hot spots in the South and the cold spots in the North. This means there is a higher than usual concentration of districts with a low school completion rate in the Northern regions of Ghana compared to other areas of the country. It is also important to note that the contrast between the North and South was more evident, particularly in 2009 and 2013. In other words, the sharp contrast between the North and the South nearly disappeared in 2010 but reemerged increasingly through the rest of the observation.

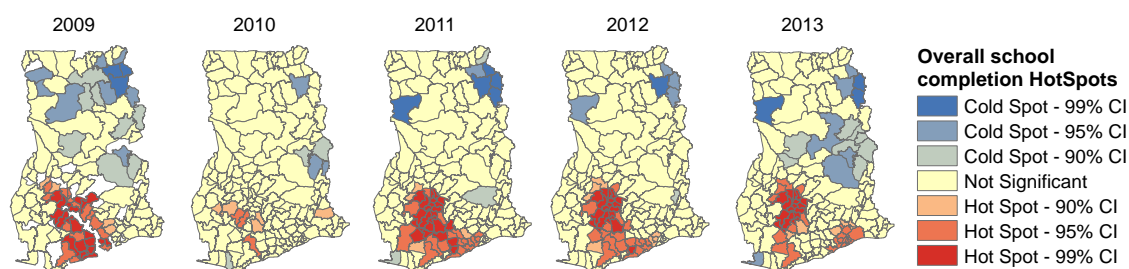


Figure 3. Statistically significant clusters of high (hot spots) and low (cold spot) JHS completion rate (full sample).

Overall, the general trend of North-South divide in the full sample (Figure 3) is similar to the evidence of spatial inequality trends in boys-only (Figure 4) and girls-only samples (Figure 5). However, there is a small exception. The comparison of Figures 4 and 5 reveal an interaction between gender and geographical location. Unlike Figure 4, we begin to see in Figure 5 a limited but statistically significant concentration of districts with high completion rates for girls in the Northern regions from 2011 through 2013.

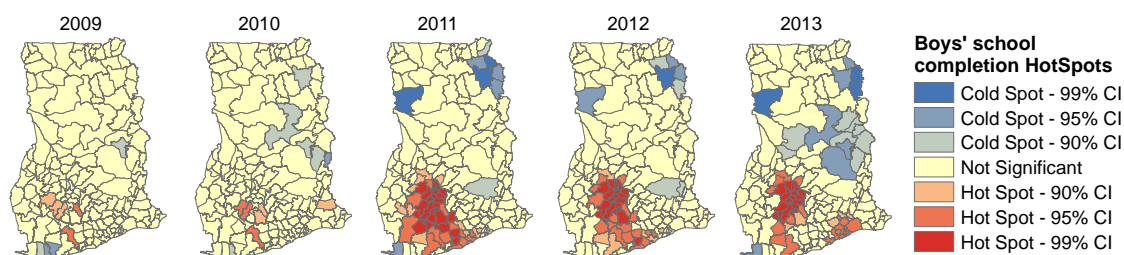


Figure 4. Statistically significant clusters of high (hot spots) and low (cold spot) JHS completion rate (boys-only sample).

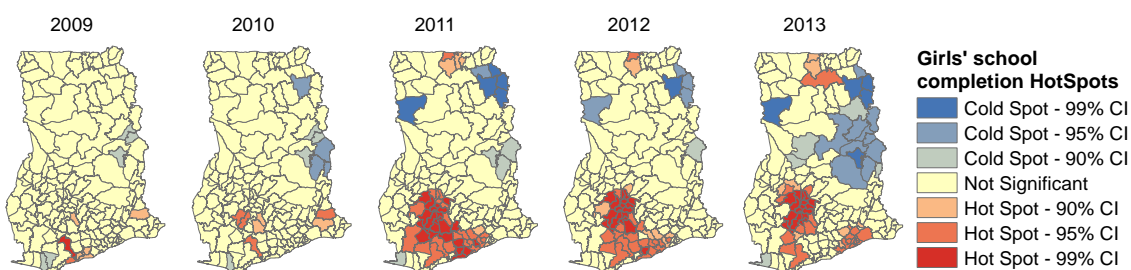


Figure 5. Statistically significant clusters of high (hot spots) and low (cold spot) JHS completion rate (girls-only sample).

Discussion

Completion of basic school is an important milestone in every Ghanaian child's educational trajectory and a critical step toward transition to SHS and beyond. Nonetheless, many young Ghanaians do not reach this feat because they are unable to complete JHS successfully. This study offers longitudinal insights into (a) the scale and trajectories of JHS completion and (b) the gender and spatial nuances in the trends. The study findings suggest that the completion rate is steadily on track to reach the historic level achieved in 2009, although the upward trajectory is sluggish. The findings further reveal unequivocal gender and spatial disparities in the completion rate and its trajectory, although the spatial inequalities are worse compared to the gender inequalities.

As previously mentioned, one major objective of Ghana's school system, as designed by the Education Reform Program of 1987, is to make education more relevant to the socioeconomic realities of the country. Furthermore, the goal of the education sector as indicated in the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II) document is to provide the relevant education for all Ghanaians to enable them to acquire relevant skills to ensure they are functionally literate and productive to help reduce poverty and stimulate wealth creation. Ideally, that means all Ghanaian children need to pursue education beyond the basic school level so that they can acquire specialized skills and competencies that will enhance their chances of living productive and meaningful lives. Results from the current study suggest that the country is slowly headed in the right direction of "universal" JHS completion.

Notwithstanding this commendable trend and the finding that the growth rate of JHS completion may very likely increase over the long term, there are caveats of potential wide fluctuation, which should concern government officials, policymakers, and researchers. Ghana

recorded its highest completion rate in 2009. Interestingly, the country also recorded its lowest completion rate in recent history, barely a year after recording the highest rate. Although the completion rate has since improved steadily, it has yet to catch up to the level attained in 2009. Indeed, it is not surprising for educational indicators to fluctuate, but it is worrisome if the downward swing is so steep that it may take years and a significant amount of resources to recover.

As evident in Ghana's education history reviewed earlier, basic education has always been closely dependent on the political milieu, and so the inception of a new government in 2009 meant changes in policies and leadership of the education sector. This change might have had implications on management, supervision, and morale within the sector. Perhaps more important, this period of wide fluctuation in the completion rate immediately followed the introduction of two initiatives by the new government: free exercise books and uniforms in 2009. Either these interventions generally have no correlation with the JHS completion rate or the initiatives may have been too nascent or preliminary to see short-term positive impacts on JHS completion.

Regardless, the slow recovery of the completion rate suggests that government officials and stakeholders may need to do more to accelerate recent gains in the dropout rate. The longer the rate takes to catch up or surpass the level reached in 2009, the more young people who will be socially excluded and deprived of viable pathways to acquire post-basic education and to become more productive citizens. The government will have to invest additional resources to drastically boost the growth in basic school completion so that children are not only enrolled in school at the basic level but are given support to successfully complete basic education to progress to the senior high level. Fortunately, the Ghana government, policymakers, and the country's development partners have demonstrated the capacity and the will to address arguably more daunting educational challenges. A typical case in point is the success story of remarkable primary school enrollment. The JHS completion challenges can be addressed with similar commitment from the government and from stakeholders.

This study also found that gender and spatial inequalities continue in Ghana's educational system, despite interventions by the government. For instance, the grand mean completion rate in 2009 was 71.20 for girls and 83.84 for boys. As the trend lines in Figure 1 revealed, girls' average completion rates have consistently remained below the boys' average as well as the national average. Over the 5-year observation period of this study, the gender gap in 2009 (i.e., 10.44%) remained relatively unchanged five years later in 2013 (i.e., 10.97%). An encouraging trend in the finding is that the girls' completion rates have shown a robust sign of long-term improvement.

Conversely, one of the worrisome findings of the study is that spatial inequalities of JHS completion, particularly between Northern and Southern Ghana, remains entrenched. The hot spots analysis revealed that although the sharp contrast between the North and the South nearly disappeared in 2010, as shown in Figure 3, the contrast reemerged and grew at an increasing pace through the rest of the observation period. The initial forceful response from the government and stakeholders to bridge the North-South divide may have waned possibly due to complacency, dwindling funding, or a shift in priorities away from spatial disparities.

Given what we know about education as a way out of poverty and a viable path for societal well-being (Eryaman, 2006, 2007; Gradstein, Justman & Meier, 2004; Harper et al., 2003), education in Northern Ghana is imperative for the reduction of poverty in that part of the country. Furthermore, the country must take education of children, particularly in Northern Ghana, seriously. If significant proportions of children in Northern Ghana are unable to complete their education at the basic level, they are shut out of any opportunity to pursue education at the secondary and tertiary level, which will affect their future survival and eventually perpetuate the spatial disparities in the country. To that end, government efforts, such as the establishment of the Savannah Accelerated Development Authority (SADA), to quicken the pace of development in the Northern Savannah ecological zone of Ghana could be instrumental in addressing the unacceptable spatial disparities. However, the educational agenda of SADA has a 90% target for primary school enrollment, but there are no targets for school

completion. Perhaps, there is an erroneous assumption that universal enrollment would necessarily translate into a remarkable completion rate. Thus far, all education data consistently point to wide gaps between gross enrollment rate and completion rate (World Bank, 2011). Moreover, data from UNICEF's Education For All Global Monitoring Report suggest that Ghana is one of the worst performing sub-Saharan African countries in terms of transitioning to upper secondary school. For Ghana to reverse this unenviable record, the government and policymakers must set realistic school completion targets and work toward such targets. Conscious efforts on the part of education development planners is critical for setting school completion and transition targets and for committing to achieving such targets as was done with primary school enrollment.

Lastly, findings from this study show that not only do gender and spatial inequalities of school completion persist, but they also interact. This finding is consistent with what other studies have found about educational indicators, such as school attendance, enrollment, and academic progression (Akyeampong, 2007; Camfed, 2012). Moreover, this finding somewhat favors girls and is more illuminating in the Northern regions. Results from the hot spot analysis reveal a limited but growing cluster of districts with high completion rates for girls (hot spots) in the Northern sector of Ghana, as shown in Figure 4. Thus, although gender inequalities in JHS completion have continued, the risk of girls in some Northern districts dropping out of JHS may have improved slightly. The fact that we do not see identical trends in the boys-only sample in Figure 5 may suggest that programs targeting girls in education in the Northern regions are showing modest improvement. These relatively modest gains may be a reflection of many interventions aimed at supporting education for girls.

Limitations and strengths

Given the exploratory nature of the study, its scope and focus did not permit assessment of factors that may predict school completion trends. Thus, the study offers limited insights into concrete reasons for the nature of school completion. Moreover, because data was unavailable on recently created districts in Ghana, the study does not fully reflect JHS completion trends in the new districts.

Despite these limitations, the study has the potential to advance the existing body of work on JHS completion and its gender and spatial dimensions. The analytical tools and strategies used in the study have a number of benefits. The study's use of multilevel growth curve modeling is more powerful than other analytical approaches used for investigating trajectories of educational indicators, particularly when sample sizes vary by measurement occasion. In addition, mapping hot spots of JHS completion facilitated effective communication of school completion patterns, which could be useful for district education officers and decision makers at the district level in developing and planning JHS dropout prevention strategies. Lastly, the ability to examine 5 years of school completion data is an improvement over existing studies that have mostly relied on cross-sectional data to make inferences about educational trends in Ghana.

Conclusion

The government's expectation that universal access to education will lead to improvement in the socioeconomic lives of the Ghanaian people will not be realized if inequalities and disparities exist in the education sector based on geographical location and access to resources. The state's dominant role in financing, regulating, and providing a basic education (Gradtein, Justman & Meier, 2004) should always reflect the understanding that education is necessary for the well-being of society and all individuals, regardless of gender or geographical location. As the current study found, gender and spatial disparities in JHS completion rate continue to exist. Without targeted interventions to address challenges of educational inequality, many children, particularly young girls and children in Ghana's Northern regions, will continue to fail to complete basic school, become socially excluded and become economic liabilities to their families and the country. Our expectation is that the evidence from this study and other bodies of work about the inequalities in the JHS completion rate will help Ghana's government, the country's development partners, and education stakeholders to make better

decisions about allocating education resources to areas where they are needed the most to address school completion challenges.

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Racializing intimate partner violence among Black, Native American, Asian American and Latina women

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Abstract

Intimate partner violence (IPV) continues to attract much attention and awareness as an increasing social problem in the U.S. While intimate partner violence scholars and experts have developed an inclusive conceptualization of IPV, research highlights the need to construct a framework of IPV incorporating the sociocultural and sociohistorical contexts and narratives unique to racial and ethnic minority women. An inclusive discourse fully examining the complexities of IPV among racial and ethnic minority women is valuable to the development of quality services, interventions and prevention strategies aiming to serve racial and ethnic minority women

Keywords: Intimate Partner Violence, Women, IPV

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Introduction

The framing of intimate partner violence

Intimate partner violence (IPV) also referred to as domestic violence involves the physical, sexual, and/or psychological abuse to an individual perpetrated by a current or former intimate partner (Rodriguez, Bauer, McLoughlin & Grumbach, 1999; McMahon & Armstrong, 2012; National Network to End Domestic Violence, 2010). Definitions of intimate partner violence have expanded to be more inclusive, describing it as past or present violence occurring between former or current partners, intimate partners, relatives or household members. In this context, intimate partners may include individuals who have dated or are currently dating, individuals who have cohabitated in the past, or individuals presently in cohabitation. According to the United States Department of Justice, intimate partner violence encompasses the “physical, sexual, emotional, economic, or psychological actions or threats of actions that influence another person...includes any behaviors that intimidate, manipulate, humiliate, isolate, frighten, terrorize, coerce, threaten, blame, hurt, injure, or wound someone” (2011). Physical, sexual, emotional, economic and psychological abuses are five of the vital components important in understanding intimate partner violence. The definition of intimate partner violence remains fluid, controversial, and shifting. It is, however, vital to recognize the aforementioned forms of abuse when defining and identifying cases of intimate partner violence. Although the Domestic Abuse Intervention Project (2011) noted physical, sexual, emotional, economic and psychological abuse components of intimate partner violence against women within heterosexual relationships, it is imperative to recognize that intimate partner violence is prevalent in all forms of relationships and impacts individuals of all sexualities, ages, races, ethnicities, sexual orientations, genders, religions, socioeconomic statuses and spiritualities. This recognition is important in developing more inclusive therapeutic models for diverse populations.

While intimate partner violence scholars and experts have developed an inclusive definition and conceptualization of intimate partner violence, it is valuable for practitioners and other health care professions to be aware of how such framing of intimate partner violence can become problematic for women of racial and ethnic minority groups. A holistic definition of intimate partner violence must incorporate sociocultural and sociohistorical contexts unique to experiences of racial and ethnic minority women. Research suggests sociocultural experiences of racial and ethnic minority women impacts how intimate partner violence is perceived defined and understood (Garfield, 2001; Sokoloff & Dupont, 2005; Yoshihama, 1999). For instance, women of Japanese descent viewed the act of dousing a woman in water a more severe act of violence than physical acts of pushing, slapping and grabbing (Sokoloff & Dupont, 2005). In Chinese communities domestic violence was perceived as an “acceptable” or “appropriate” act or consequence for women participating in extramarital affairs, demonstrating a lack of emotional control and suggesting masculine gender roles or characteristics (Yick & Agbayani-Siewert 1997; Weil & Lee, 2004). African American women were also less likely to view acts of physical aggression as less severe, when compared to acts of racism (Garfield, 2001). These specific findings indicate the significance of examining the sociocultural and sociohistorical contexts, valuable to understand the framing of intimate partner violence among racial and ethnic minority communities.

Over the past few decades, intimate partner violence has attracted much greater attention and awareness as a social problem, largely as a result of feminist scholarship and advocacy (Kasturirangan, Krishnan & Riger, 2004). Racial and ethnic minority women, however, are often excluded from intimate partner violence discourse and research. Many researchers and practitioners working in the field of intimate partner violence fail to fully incorporate the personal narratives and experiences of racial and ethnic minority women survivors of intimate partner violence into their therapeutic approaches. This lack of incorporation extends to research regarding intimate partner violence, which continues to ignore or overlook racial and ethnic differences in domestic violence experiences by excluding narratives of minority women of various racial and ethnic identities (Jones, 2008; Kasturirangan & Williams, 2003; Vidales, 2010). Ultimately, there continues to be inadequate

therapeutic services, interventions and assessments targeting racial and ethnic minority women who experience IPV.

Although the prevalence of IPV is visible among women of all racial and ethnic populations, racial and ethnic minority women's experiences often differ from the experiences of white women. Minority racial and ethnic women experience higher rates of poverty, discrimination, and social stigma, in addition to the more universal experiences of IPV survivors, which include: low self-esteem, posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), depression, anxiety, substance abuse, and suicidal ideation and attempts (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009). These women commonly mistrust agencies providing services for survivors of IPV. Racial and ethnic minority women also tend to have less awareness and accessibility to resources and services.

Intimate partner violence and its effects among racial and ethnic minority women is compounded by historical experiences of societal trauma such as racism and sexism. Societal trauma is defined as "interpersonal and systemic emotional, verbal, and physical assaults by those with power and privilege against members of marginalized groups...acts, intentional or nonintentional, are often met by society with silence, invisibility, and victim-blaming" (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009). Scholars have identified several unique commonalities which exist for minority racial and ethnic women experiencing IPV: **1.** strong personal identification based on familial structure, cultural identity and patriarchy; **2.** religious beliefs that can enforce victimization and legitimize abusive behaviors; **3.** fear of isolation; **4.** loyalty to immediate and extended family as well as loyalty to racial/ethnic communities and culture; **5.** guarded trust and reluctance to discuss "private matters;" **6.** distrust of law enforcement, which has been historically perceived as sexist and racially and culturally biased; **7.** Distrust in shelter and intervention resources, which are often not culturally competent (Administration for Children and Families, 2001; Women of Color, 2006). Recognition and awareness of historical and societal experiences racial and ethnic minority women populations endure is valuable to understand the contemporary obstacles and struggles racial and ethnic minority women survivors of IPV undergo. Awareness of these commonalities prepares professionals with racial and cultural knowledge to better assess, detect and intervene in issues of IPV among racial and ethnic minority communities.

The Reality of Intimate Partner Violence for Racial and Ethnic Minority Women

Intimate partner violence is a social issue impacting women regardless of racial and ethnic identity. Therefore, it is important to understand the complexity of intimate partner violence among racial and ethnic minority populations, specifically centering on women belonging to Black/African American, Native American, Asian and Latina communities. This article will examine the multiple racial, social, historical, political and economic linkages and distinctions shaping the experiences of intimate partner violence among these distinct racial and ethnic minority groups. While systems and ideologies of patriarchy present various challenges for all racial and ethnic minority women, it is necessary to examine the distinct politics, representations and forms patriarchy creates for different communities of racial and ethnic minority women experiencing IPV. Exploration of these racial communities provides an analysis demonstrating the "unique" lived experiences of IPV survivors and its direct connection to a patriarchal society.

African American women

African American women experience IPV at very alarming rates. According to Bryant-Davis et al. (2009) African American couples reported significantly higher rates of sexual aggression within their relationships compared to White couples. There remains a lack of scholarly research regarding issues of IPV and its impact on African American women. Black feminist scholars such as Davis (2000) and Collins (2002) continue to be prominent figures highlighting the emergent need to develop research, which addresses and explores the narratives and issues of IPV among African American women. African American women experience IPV at a higher rate than white women (Feminist Majority Foundation's Choice, 2011; Rennison & Welchans, 2000; Truman & Morgan, 2014; Women of Color, 2006). Reports indicate approximately 30% of African American women will experience an act of IPV, such as stalking, sexual and/or physical abuse by a partner (Rennison & Welchans, 2000).

African American women also experience a greater risk of being murdered by their partners in such domestic partnerships (Lee, Thompson & Mechanic, 2002; Women of Color, 2006). Despite these startling realities, African American women are less likely than white women to utilize IPV intervention services, resources and shelters due to issues of accessibility, affordability and quality of IPV services and resources.

According to Neville et al.'s (2004) study, African American female college students who have experienced IPV are likely to report lower levels of self-esteem, as a result of self-blaming compared to women of other racial and ethnic identities. Studies indicate African American women exposed to IPV are also at a greater risk of developing PTSD (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009). In particular, Hood and Carter (2008) suggest that African American women survivors of abuse (domestic, childhood and/or sexual) experienced more severe symptoms of PTSD. Research pertaining to African American women survivors of IPV indicates, "...a relationship between trauma and PTSD but that PTSD mediated the relationship between trauma and physical health symptoms" (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009, 334). African American women exposed to IPV also report significant rates of depression. Substance abuse also impacts African American women who have experienced IPV. Research reveals that African American women survivors of IPV reports high rates regarding the usage of alcohol, marijuana and crack cocaine (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009).

Suicidal ideation significantly impacts African American women exposed to IPV as well. Of the few studies conducted about Black women and abuse, most hone in on sexual violence. Historically, domestic abuse, specifically sexual violence in the form of rape, has been a specific tool of domination, disempowerment and oppression among racial and ethnic minority women, particularly African American women. Acts of sexual violence, explicitly rape, functions as a way to oppress and strip survivors of their will to resist, making them submissive and passive to the will of the perpetrator (Collins, 2002). Very limited research exists regarding suicidal ideation among African American women experiencing IPV. One of the few extant studies conducted among 335 African American women reported the women exposed to sexual abuse, one facet of IPV were more likely to experience PTSD, which contributed to higher attempts of suicide (Thompson, Kaslow & Kingree, 2000). Another study indicated sexually abused African American women's suicide attempts increased when factors such as low-income, depression, psychological distress, feelings of hopelessness and substance abuse were involved compared to African American women who did not experience abuse (Kaslow, Thompson, Brooks & Twomey, 2000). Research has also identified several other mental health conditions, which more seriously impact African American women survivors of IPV. One study indicated sexually abused African American women were likely to report significant rates of stress and dissociation (Temple et al., 2007). A second study concluded sexually abused African American women experienced severe symptoms of panic disorder (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009). African American women experiencing a history of sexual abuse are more likely to become vulnerable to risky sexual behaviors including unprotected sex, multiple partners, and increased exposure to infections such as HIV and AIDS. Approximately 40% of sexually abused African American women have contracted HIV (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009). While this area of abuse needs further exploration by scholars and sexual violence advocates, IPV targeting African American women remains largely understudied. Consequently, racially-specific interventions for these women remain scarce.

Native American women

Encounters and experiences of IPV differ for Native American women within distinct tribes, communities and nations. Many scholars identify IPV as a relatively new phenomena occurring in Native American communities. The rise of IPV has been attributed to several factors such as the increased use of alcohol among Native American men, adoption of Christian religious beliefs and assimilation to dominant European beliefs and values (USDOJ, 1999). According to the National Violence Against Women Survey (2000), Native American women reported higher rates of IPV compared to women of other racial and ethnic populations; 37.5% of Native American women are victimized by IPV (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000).

The most prevalent mental health problems Native American women survivors of IPV experience are substance abuse, depression and suicide. Substance abuse among the Native American population has become a serious concern. Many researchers have studied this issue of substance abuse and alcohol dependency among Native Americans. These studies argue that exposure to traumatic life events contributes to dependency on substances and/or alcohol. Native American women IPV survivors are more vulnerable to substance and/or alcohol dependency compared to Native American women who do not experience IPV (Bohn, 2003; Fairchild, Fairchild & Stoner, 1998; Jones, 2008; Mitka, 2002). Research also indicates very high rates of depression and suicide among Native American populations (Johnson & Cameron, 2001). One factor which may contribute to severity of depression is PTSD. For Native American women IPV has become the most significant indicator for PTSD (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009). Native American women also continue to experience very high rates of sexual violence, which Simoni, Sehgal & Walters (2004) reported significantly correlates to the increased rates of HIV amongst Native American women.

Asian American women

According to the Asian & Pacific Islander Institute on Domestic Violence national U.S. survey (2009) approximately 40-60% of Asian American women reported exposure to domestic violence at some points in their lives. A study conducted by Project AWARE's (Asian Women Advocating Respect & Empowerment), showed an estimated 81% of the Asian women surveyed in the U.S. experienced some form of IPV within the time frame of one year (Yoshihama & Dabby, 2009). Although this study may not be representative of the actual rate of Asian women experiencing IPV in the U.S., the study does suggest the pervasiveness of IPV within this group of women. When distinguishing among subgroups within the Asian population, women of particular Asian ethnicities experience higher rates of IPV. Studies unveil that Korean, Cambodian, Chinese and Vietnamese women in the U.S. experience high rates of IPV. According to a survey conducted by Tjaden and Thoennes (2000), 60% of Korean women interviewed experienced IPV. The Asian Task Force Against Domestic Violence in Boston concluded approximately 47% of Cambodian women participants were exposed to domestic violence (Asian Pacifica Islander Institute on Domestic Violence, 2002). Another study conducted in Boston among Vietnamese women revealed an estimate of 47% of Vietnamese women reporting being in a partnership where domestic violence occurred. Domestic violence among Asian American women correlates with substance abuse, suicide and depression similarly to women of other racial and ethnic groups. Asian Americans, however, are more likely to experience severe mental health symptoms associated from feelings of helplessness, embarrassment and shame, resulting from overwhelming cultural expectations and pressure (Luo, 2000). Some Asian American cultures place a high value on a "virgin woman," thus devaluing and labeling women who do not fulfill such expectations as unworthy. These cultural expectations may situate Asian American women in subordinate positions creating feelings of powerlessness.

Latina women

In 2000, the National Violence Against Women Survey (NVAWS) reported approximately 23% of Latina women indicated being victimized within intimate partnerships. The study also concluded Latina women were more likely to experience rape by their partners within these violent relationships (USDOJ, 2000). Another study released in 2000 unveiled that the extent and severity of domestic violence increased significantly for Latina women who immigrated to the U.S. (Dutton, Orloff & Hass, 2000). When distinguishing among Latina subgroups, statistics indicate domestic violence is significantly lower for Cuban women who are pregnant while rates are highest for Puerto Rican who are pregnant (Torres, Campbell, Ryan, King, Price, Stallings, Fuchs & Laude, 2000). Cultural/Ethnic differentiation among Latina subgroups is important for practitioners, advocates, and scholars to note as they strive to better serve Latina survivors of IPV.

Similar to African American, Native American and Asian American women exposed to IPV, Latina Women also report high rates of PTSD, depression and substance and/or alcohol abuse. Although limited research exists on the relationship between Latina women experiencing IPV and the associated mental health conditions, that research does demonstrate Latina women experiencing the highest rates of PTSD when compared to all other racial and ethnic populations of women. Latina

women survivors of domestic violence also frequently struggle with severe eating disorders and headaches (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009).

It is vital for practitioners to recognize and understand the specific mental conditions, which may directly impact the mental health of Latina women experiencing IPV. For instance, “ataques de nervios,” has been identified as a cultural condition occurring solely among Latina women. “Ataques de nervios” is usually associated with the exposure to stressful events such as IPV. Symptoms include “uncontrollable shouting, crying, trembling, palpitations, and aggressiveness” (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 340, 2009). Although “ataques de nervios” significantly impacts Latina women, Puerto Rican women experience higher rates of the mental condition. Women diagnosed with “ataques de nervios” are also likely to suffer from anxiety disorders, PTSD and dissociative disorders. Latina women survivors of IPV also may suffer from “susto,” a mental condition contributing to intense fear. Those within Latino/a communities hold the belief that once the individual develops “susto,” one’s soul exits the body, contributing to one’s experiencing severe unhappiness and feelings of illness (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009). Latina women survivors of IPV may experience these symptoms months or years after the violence has occurred.

The exploration of historical, racial and cultural differences among Black/African American, Native American, Asian and Latina women is essential to further understand the marginalized location racial and ethnic women survivors of domestic violence experience. Recognition and awareness of the historical, racial and cultural distinctions related to domestic violence for women of racial and ethnic minority populations provides professionals with a thorough understanding to better comprehend current dynamics of societal trauma, racial oppression and mistrust further complicating racial and ethnic minority women experiencing IPV.

Understanding Societal Trauma, Racial Oppression & Mistrust

There are numerous factors vital for practitioners to acknowledge and understand when providing services to racial and ethnic minority women exposed to and/or experiencing trauma associated with IPV. Exposure to societal trauma, specifically racial oppression, continues to affect racial and ethnic minority women experiencing IPV. Societal trauma may also impact the coping abilities of these women. Societal trauma may involve physical or verbal “oppressive” interactions with the privileged/dominant population. In particular, racial and ethnic minority women experiencing intimate partner violence are more likely to encounter experiences involving victim-blaming behaviors from health care professionals. Social and health care professionals also tend to display less sympathetic attitudes, minimize the experience of abuse and provide fewer positive comments toward racial and ethnic minority women survivors of domestic violence, in comparison to white women survivors of domestic violence (Hamberger, Ambuel & Guse, 2007; Hamberger, Ambuel, Marbella & Donze, 1998). Such encounters and experiences are influenced by racial and ethnic stereotypes that objectify, oppress and devalue the roles, bodies and experiences of racial minority populations; for instance, the controlling image of the “strong Black woman” complicates the encounters and interactions between Black/African American women and health care professionals. The perception and stereotype of the “strong Black woman” produces health care professionals who are more likely to view Black/African American women as possessing the ability to “...sustain anything, has no fear, and can easily protect herself” (Bent-Goodley, 2004). Controlled images and stereotypes of racial and ethnic minorities further complicate interactions, behaviors and attitudes related to issues of domestic violence. From structural and institutional standpoints, educational, employment, healthcare, and judicial systems continue to construct “oppressive realities,” which racial and ethnic minority women challenge and experience in their daily lives. (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009). Consequently, it is critical for practitioners to acknowledge and concretely comprehend how racial and ethnic minority women experiences with racial oppression and discrimination can be very traumatic, thus contributing to one’s mental health and ability to recover and cope with the traumatic experience of domestic violence. It is also important to further understand the racial and cultural barriers which minority racial and ethnic women have to confront and challenge not only from the “dominant” culture, but within one’s own racial group. Within this context racial and cultural barriers involve negative stereotypes and attitudes or beliefs which contribute to the devaluation, oppression,

inequality and objectification of racial minority women. Negative stereotypes and attitudes and behaviors help to maintain social and institutional structures, which discredit, blame, trivialize and question racial and ethnic minority women's experiences and narratives of IPV.

For instance, the controlled image of the strong Black women continues to shape experiences of African American women survivors of domestic violence. Much of the research among African American domestic violence survivors fails to critically examine the linkages between domestic violence and the existing gender ideologies and norms constructing Black femininity and Black masculinity (Collins, 2002). African American women have historically been viewed through the controlling image of the "strong Black woman," which symbolizes independence, strength and the ability to overcome challenging obstacles in life (Beauboeuf-LaFontant, 2007; Beauboeuf-LaFontant, 2009; Collins, 2005; Wallace, 1990). Traditionally, African American women have also been depicted as the central figures in the structure of the Black family life. It is valuable to recognize and understand the "unique" socio-historical and socio-cultural contexts which shape and influence specific gender roles among African American women and men. An in-depth examination of the "Black Experience," which embodied hundreds of years of enslavement, oppression and inequality is valuable to clearly understand the complexity of gender and racial dynamics and the issue of domestic violence among the Black community. The "Black experience" encompasses several historical periods: post-slavery which introduced distinct social and economic conditions for Blacks; Industrial Revolution, replacing collectivistic values and beliefs of the Black community, later forcing the underpinnings of a capitalistic, individualist culture; and Civil Rights and Feminist Movements, which socially, politically, and economically advanced women and men in the Black community in distinct ways (Abrams, 2010; Collins, 2000; Wallace, 1990). These specific historical events define the "Black Experience" and continue to profoundly construct gender roles, responsibilities, norms and expectations of the Black community.

African American women have occupied and functioned in multiple roles and positions within the Black family, such as: laborers, providing financially for their families; protectors, nurturers, organizers, caretakers of the home, support systems (Abrams, 2010; Trask, 2006; Wallace, 1979). The traditional roles, positions and expectations of Black/African American women have constructed this image of the "Strong Black Woman (SBW)" (Beauboeuf-LaFontant, 2007; Beauboeuf-LaFontant, 2009; Woods-Giscombe, 2010). The controlling image of the SBW presents many complexities and challenges for African American women experiencing domestic violence. The perceived depiction of the SBW shapes how Black/African American women will experience law enforcement services, judicial systems and social services.

The race of the male perpetrator also adds to the complexity of problems for black women experiencing domestic violence. Not only is the woman burdened by the stereotypes assigned to them by the dominant culture, but also by intra-racial stereotypes and stigmas. Bryant-Davis, Chung and Tillman (2009) notes African American women are less likely to report incidents of domestic violence to social support networks and external agencies, as a result of historical "oppressive realities," elicited from educational, social, and judicial institutional structures, continuing to unjustly serve African American men. Consequently, African American women survivors of domestic violence become hesitant to report violence due to feeling pressured and obligated to protect African American men from historically unfair and unjust institutional systems. Further examination of the interlocking system of race, gender and class oppression is valuable to understand contemporary experiences and interactions among Black/African American women and men. Exploring the historical objectification, exploitation and domination of Black/African American women and men provides a holistic analysis important to an understanding of current social positions of individual members of this group. Further analysis is also pertinent in understanding current domestic violence encounters and interactions involving law enforcement, judicial systems and social service professionals. Historical experiences of discrimination, inequality, and mistreatment, contributes to the complexity of domestic violence particularly for Black/African American women survivors.

Culturally, religion has also played a very important role in the African American community. African American women comprise approximately 70% of black Christian congregations, indicating the importance of the church and religion in their lives and communities (Women of Color, 2006). Women committed to their religious beliefs are more likely to live life by following religious doctrines such as Christian ideologies, which create a space in which women fulfill the role of wife and nurturer of the children and home. Women may become placed in a subordinate position in which one may feel less powerful, which can make it more difficult for a woman to report or escape a relationship in which she experiences domestic violence.

Racial and Cultural Barriers

There are various racial and cultural barriers which contribute to the complexity of domestic violence and the under reporting of domestic violence among Native American women. One major factor impacting Native American women's struggle with domestic violence is location. Many Native American women reside on reservations, limiting accessibility to services, assistance, and opportunities to seek help. Research suggests that women residing on reservations are less likely to have access to outside communication, transportation, education, employment, child care, and domestic violence resources (Jones, 2008). Having limited access to external resources such as hospitals, clinics and other service providers contributes to the lack of confidentiality, having fewer healthcare alternatives, a narrower range of services and inadequate screenings and assessment for domestic violence survivors. These women are also more likely to experience poverty, along with failing to develop fluent English speaking skills (Women of Color, 2006). Fully comprehending the racial and cultural barriers Native American women survivors of domestic violence encounter helps professionals to develop accessible resources and services for Native American women, such as cultivating social work professionals familiar with Native American dialect, in order to establish effective communication, exploration and assessment of issues of domestic violence within the Native American communities is essential to practice.

A history of oppressive traumas, such as genocide, and unequal policies and treatment continue to create racial and societal barriers for Native American women facing domestic violence. Studies suggest colonialism, subjugation and racial oppression contributes to disproportional rates of domestic violence among Native American communities (Jones, 2008; Mitka, 2002). Many Native American women do not report domestic violence as a result of being fearful of unjust policies and actions by local and state governmental agencies. Experiences of racism, forcible expulsion from tribal lands and removal of children from homes, adds to Native American women sense of distrust of practitioners and professionals providing services to domestic violence survivors (Jones, 2008). Abused Native American women are often fearful of having their child/children removed or losing legal rights if they report violence (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009). The fear of governmental and policing agencies and institutions is similar to that of African Americans, although rooted in differing historical legacies and contemporary circumstances.

There are also cultural norms, practices and customs which Native American women ascribe to depending on one's tribe, clan, nation, and community. Native American women in domestic violent relationships may develop a fear of being sanctioned from one's tribe or nation, if one decides to seek help or leave a domestic violent partnership.

Religion and spirituality are also important factors in Native American communities. They may become significant factors influencing women's behaviors, attitudes and actions regarding the domestic violence relationship. Religion and spirituality can serve as components of coercion which forces the woman to remain in the domestic violent partnership. Native American communities place a high value on developing community cohesion, which serves as a vital role strengthening religious and spiritual connections among Native American people. The community symbolizes a sacred space for members to feel highly connected, safe and a sense of strong attachment (McBride, 2003). Religious and spiritual beliefs construct rigid roles, values, morals and behaviors of Native American communities, while also serving as forums promoting a sense of community among members. Native American women survivors of domestic violence, however, are challenged with the fear of

obstructing such community cohesion and autonomy, if deciding to report experiences of domestic violence to external agencies or individuals outside of the tribal community.

Women of Asian descent encounter distinct racial and cultural barriers resulting from particular Asian cultural norms, values, beliefs and religion. The majority of Asian American communities are likely to instill values and virtues regarding respect, authority, perseverance, honor, self-blame and acceptance of suffering (Women of Color, 2006; Yoshioka & Dang, 2000; Weil & Lee, 2004). These are important values and traits which define an individual's self-worth and identity. Therefore, communities' assigning high values to these virtues and traits adds to the complexity of domestic violence for women of Asian descent. Asian cultures place high value and worth on the family structure, in which the needs and interests of the family is highly regarded and placed before the individual family member's needs (Yick, 1999; Weil & Lee, 2004). Any internal or external factor such as divorce and specifically domestic violence brings shame and dishonor to the family structure. To avoid shame, guilt and stigmatization of the Asian family seeking external help from community agencies and services is strongly discouraged. Domestic violence is viewed as a private matter; therefore Asian women who report or speak out about domestic violence are often chastised in Asian communities (Ganatra, 2001). As a result, women of Asian descent experiencing domestic violence are more likely to remain in domestic violent relationships to preserve the family structure and worth. The family structure also situates the male in a position of authority, value and respect, placing the woman in a submissive, subordinate and obedient position (Xu, Campbell & Zhu, 2001). Positionality and male privilege further complicates matters for Asian women encountering domestic violence.

Language barriers are another cultural challenge for women of Asian descent, encountering domestic violence. Many Asian women experience difficulty speaking and understanding fluent English (Ganatra, 2001). The ability to speak and understand fluent English is essential to seeking external help and education from community agencies, domestic violence services and law enforcement. Although limited English speaking abilities represents one obstacle impacting whether Asian women report domestic violence to law enforcement, historical community distrust of law enforcement represents another obstacle for Asian women encountering domestic violence. This distrust toward law enforcement emerges from historical experiences with insensitive, discriminative government officials and police officers (Ganatra, 2001; Weil & Lee, 2004). Economic barriers and immigration status add to the complexity of domestic violence for Asian women. Asian women survivors of domestic violence were more likely to be underemployed or unemployed, limiting their access to social mobility. Many Asian women arrive in the U.S. with limited financial resources or education, therefore becoming entirely dependent on their husbands. Immigration status interconnects with economic barriers Asian women face. Immigration status determines authorization to work in the U.S. Asian women within domestic violence partnerships who do not possess legal immigration documentation fear the threat of being deported back to their country (Ganatra, 2001; Weil & Lee, 2004). As a result of such fear, many Asian women continue to endure domestic violence. Additional factors such as non-supportive families and social systems, limited knowledge of domestic violence and cultural stereotypes complicate the issue of domestic violence for women of Asian descent.

Cultural roles, beliefs and values

Distinct roles, beliefs, and values among Latino/a communities also impact the intricacy of domestic violence for Latina women survivors. Many Latino communities place women within restrictive gender roles, which may hinder the ability to leave domestic violent relationships. Catholicism is a strong force defining traditional roles of Latina women and men; it plays a key factor in the construction of values and beliefs within Latino communities. "Marianismo" and "machismo" are two terms deriving from Catholicism, both describing the traditional gender roles, treatment and behavior of women and men in Latino/a communities (Canino & Canino, 1993). "Marianismo" centers on the Catholic worship of the Virgin Mary. The Virgin Mary represents a key figure influencing the roles and behaviors of Latina women. For many Latina women the Virgin Mary symbolizes a spiritual power, enforcing behaviors of servility and modesty, characteristics Latina women should possess (Zavella, 2008). Latina women are expected to fulfill qualities and characteristics similar to the Virgin Mary. Qualities such as being emotional, docile, whimsical,

compliant, unassertive and vulnerable are encouraged among Latina women (Women of Color, 2006). Latina women should also have a strong moral commitment to their religion, while proving ultimate dedication to their family structure by placing the family before the well-being of self (Kasturirangan & Williams, 2003). As a result, Latina women are often restricted to two distinct roles, fulfilling the responsibilities of a wife and nurturer. Women who do not fulfill these roles are likely to become condemned by the community. For example, Latina women regardless of marital status are all deemed socially deviant within many Latino cultures (Wilson, 2005). Latina women are also encouraged to depend financially, emotionally and socially on men, allowing men to fulfill the roles of the decision maker and provider. Conversely, the “machismo” encourages hyper masculine qualities and “traditional” gender roles for Latino men. Latino cultural beliefs and values situate men in roles of dictator and authoritarian possessing power and responsibility over women, their homes and families. An in-depth examination of Latino/a culture and family structure is vital to further understand the traditional gender roles connected to dynamics of domestic violence impacting Latina women. Core beliefs and values of Latino/a culture are established on ideas of familism, which continues to situate Latino women in clearly defined submissive and subordinate gender roles (Kasturirangan & Williams, 2003; Vidales, 2010).

From a societal standpoint, Latina women are likely to be depicted by mainstream or “dominant” culture as “passionate, teasing, hypersexual, and flirtatious” women (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009, p. 342). These stereotypical representations and assumptions from dominant culture contribute to an accepting “culture of rape,” and impact the behaviors and attitudes of abused Latina women. Latina women are less likely to show sympathy towards women experiencing domestic violence, particularly sexual violence (Bryant-Davis, Chung & Tillman, 2009). Stereotypical perceptions held by society may contribute to the reluctance of Latina women to report domestic violence. Latina women who are depicted or portrayed by dominant culture as hypersexual beings and as possessing limited control over their bodies may fear becoming ostracized or doubted by police, therapists, family and friends. Aside from cultural objectification, Latina women also encounter other cultural barriers impacting their experience of domestic violence. Language and financial barriers along with issues of immigration complicates the scope of domestic violence for Latina women (Kasturirangan & Williams, 2003; Sokoloff & Dupont, 2000; Vidales, 2010). Latina women experience difficulty with accessing domestic violence services and interventions due to the inability to communicate in fluent English. Language barriers, along with understanding cultural laws and policies, may also become a challenge for Latina women survivors of domestic violence. There continue to be restrictive laws impacting Latina women unjustly. Many Latina women lack the comprehension or awareness of policies which protect survivors of domestic violence. Lack of income is another barrier for Latino women survivors of domestic violence (Mejivar & Salcido, 2002; Wilson, 2004). Traditional gender roles encouraging Latina women to become financially, physically and emotionally dependent on men create a culture of women lacking education and employment, which makes it very difficult for Latina women to escape a relationship of domestic violence. For instance, when examining factors such as education and socioeconomic status among distinct Latino/a populations, research demonstrates Hispanics and Cubans have higher educational attainment and higher socioeconomic statuses compared to Puerto Ricans and Mexicans (Blendon et al., 2007). Blendon et al. (2007) reports one in four Cubans do not possess a high school diploma compared to two in four Mexicans. Immigration policies and regulations also contribute to Latina women’s experiences of domestic violence. For some Latina women, immigration status becomes another barrier complicating the issue of domestic violence. Latina women may experience feelings of fearfulness at the threat of being deported back to their country of origin, therefore making the decision to remain in domestic violent relationships (Ingram, 2007; Kasturirangan & Williams, 2003).

An in-depth analysis exploring the intersectionality of domestic violence for racial and ethnic minority women is imperative to the development of effective interventions and services. The exploration of the linkages between variables such as race, gender, class, oppression, societal trust, trauma and privilege are essential to development of a holistic understanding of domestic violence among racial and ethnic minority women. Recognizing and understanding the racial realities and narratives of Black, Native American, Asian American and Latina women survivors of domestic

violence will produce skillful and knowledgeable professionals and educators that effectively assess and respond to issues of domestic violence.

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Study of the Factors Affecting the Mathematics Achievement of Turkish Students According to Data from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012

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Abstract

This study attempts to determine the factors affecting the mathematics achievement of students in Turkey based on data from the Programme for International Student Assessment 2012 and the correct classification ratio of the established model. The study used mathematics achievement as a dependent variable while sex, having a study room, preparation for mathematics exams, completing homework on time, interest in mathematics, enjoying mathematics and enjoying reading about mathematics were used as independent variables. The study sample consisted of 4478 students participating in PISA 2012. Probit regression analysis was used to analyse the data. According to the findings, it was determined that there was a positive interaction between the dependent variable and all the independent variables except regularly completing homework and that the correct classification ratio of the model was 58 (44%).

Keywords: Program for International Student Assessment(PISA), Mathematics achievement, Probit regression

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Introduction

In a rapidly changing and globalising world, one of the greatest objectives of education is to make sure that individuals are able to understand information and therefore the world. With advancements in technology, it has become very easy to obtain information and the ability to use information effectively by applying certain processes of the human mind has become more important (Eryaman, 2007). In this sense, there are exams throughout the world that measure the use and interpretation of information by individuals. One of these large scale exams is PISA, which has the highest number of participants and participating countries and is regarded as the most comprehensive education research in the world. It is held every three years by the Organisation for Economic, Co-operation and Development (OECD) and assesses the fields of mathematics, sciences, and reading skills. The main objective of this study is to reveal how successful countries are in developing the human factors required to achieve maximum levels in every aspect. The desirable outcome for PISA is for the countries involved to review their education systems, not to determine the achievement of students. The objective of PISA can be summarised as follows: to compare the knowledge levels of students in countries with leading roles in determining general policies applied throughout the world with students from other countries; thereby increasing the quality of education and revealing the strong and weak elements of the education systems (OECD, 2013a).

PISA focuses on a different field every year; PISA 2000 focused on reading skills, PISA 2003 on mathematics, PISA 2006 on science, PISA 2009 on reading, and PISA 2012 on mathematics (Uysal, 2009).

The majority of mathematics questions in PISA are related to mathematical literacy and problem solving. Therefore, the basic competence measured with PISA is mathematics literacy. This competence involves envisaging a real life problem as a mathematical problem, then solving the problem through mathematical knowledge, process ability, and reasoning and deciding how the obtained result conforms with real life (OECD, 2013a, 2013b; Wood, 2007). PISA mathematics literacy consists of four aspects: space and shape (geometry), change and relationships (algebra), numbers (arithmetic), and certainty (probability). PISA 2012 focused on literacy concepts as well as students' abilities in mathematical modelling and using mathematical materials and computer software in mathematical modelling (OECD, 2013b).

Turkey's PISA 2003 mathematics average was 423 points; the country ranked 34th of the 41 participating countries and 28th of the 29 OECD countries. Turkey's PISA 2006 mathematics average was 424 points; the country ranked 29th of the 30 OECD countries and 43rd of the 57 participating countries. Turkey's mathematics average in PISA 2009 was 445 points; the country ranked 31st of the OECD countries and 41st of all participating countries. In PISA 2003 Turkey's mathematics average had a 25 point increase from 423 to 448. While there has been a general increase in Turkey's performance, its ranking hasn't changed significantly as its PISA 2003 performance was very low and many other countries have improved their results. In PISA 2003, Turkey's results only surpassed those of Mexico among OECD countries while in PISA 2012 it ranked 32nd (third from the bottom) alongside other OECD countries, including newly joined Chile (Anıl, 2009; Dünya Bankası, 2013; OECD, 2006). The overall increase in the mathematical literacy performance of Turkey was mainly caused by the significant leap between 2006 and 2009, but the same acceleration was not achieved after 2009. One of the possible causes of this is that the profile of 15-year-old students in Turkey changed between 2003 and 2013 because more mathematically disadvantaged students began to be included in the education system (Acar 2012; Zopluoğlu, 2014).

A Review of Related Literature

There are many studies in the literature reporting that the achievements of Turkey have been less than those of other OECD countries. Berberoğlu (2007) studied the PISA 2003 results from a Turkish point of view and determined that the 15-year-old Turkish students demonstrated different academic performance in mathematics literacy depending on their region. It was concluded that the

mathematics literacy levels of students in almost all regions were below the international level. Regarding school types, the mathematical levels of the students from private high schools, Anatolian high schools and science high schools were found to be lower than those of other school types.

Yılmaz and Aztekin (2012) found that the mathematics literacy achievement of students was determined by sex; school population; teacher–student ratio; the economic, social and cultural level of the school (ESKD); and by the social and cultural level (ESKD), class, and economic factors of the students. According to the study, the number of mathematics teachers and the adequacy of educational materials did not significantly effect the average scores of schools. In fact, the average mathematics literacy scores of schools were found to decrease as the student–teacher ratio and the school population increased.

Özer and Özberk (2011) used the PISA 2009 Turkish data set in their study and observed that mathematics achievement varied depending on region, school type, and sex. It was concluded that the difference in mathematics literacy was in favour of boys.

Özer and Anıl (2011) used the PISA 2006 Turkish data to determine factors affecting the mathematics and science achievement of students. They found that the most important predictor of mathematics achievement was the time dedicated to learning mathematics. It was determined that the students' knowledge of computers and computer hardware also had a positive effect on their mathematics achievement. Student education material was found to have no effect on mathematics achievement.

In a study of the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study 2011 Turkish sample, Aşkın and Gökalep (2013) attempted to determine the effect of some factors (enjoying learning, appraisal of learning, confidence in mathematics, being bullied at school, occupying oneself with mathematics, home education resources) and the correct classification ratio using both the logistic regression and artificial neural network methods. According to the results of the study, it was concluded that the best predictor of mathematics achievement is confidence in maths, that the correct classification ratio according to the logistic regression method is 78.5% and that the correct classification ratio according to the artificial neural network method is 78.6%.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

The fact that the students of Turkey have performed lower than the desired level in all literacy aspects across all PISA tests has been highlighted by many researchers (Altun, Aydın, Akkaya & Uzel, 2012; Bindak, 2009; Howard, Fleischman, Hopstock, Pelczar & Shelley, 2010; OECD, 2013a, 2013b; Özer & Anıl, 2011; Şirin & Vatanartıran, 2014). Although there are many studies that attempt to determine factors affecting literacy levels in PISA tests, the on-going problems, particularly related to mathematics literacy in Turkey, have caused many researchers to become involved.

The objective of this study is to examine the mathematics literacy levels of the students who constituted the Turkish sample for PISA 2012 with respect to some sociologic and socioeconomic factors, to attempt to reveal the reasons behind the low performance of Turkey in the PISA 2012 mathematics field, and to develop proposals for solutions. The implicit objective of the study is to demonstrate the usability in the education sciences field of the probit regression, which is generally used in health sciences, and to encourage researchers to use the probit regression in works related to education sciences.

Research Questions

To what degree do student factors such as having a study room, sex, preparing for exams, doing homework on time, interest in mathematics, enjoying mathematics, and mathematics related reading predict mathematics literacy?

What is the classification success level of the probit regression model when using dependent

and independent variables?

Methodology

Research Design

The study is a relational one as it attempts to determine the effect of some sociocultural and socioeconomic variables, selected as predictive variables, to classify the possibility of each Turkish participant in PISA 2012 being successful and unsuccessful.

Participants

A student needs to have received a minimum of seven years of education and be 15 years old in order to participate in the PISA test. The age of 15 years is recognised by PISA as the onset of adulthood as students of 15 years old are about to reach the end of the compulsory education period in most countries (Şirin & Vatanartıran, 2014). In 2012, 4,848 students in the 15-year-old age group from 170 schools around Turkey participated in the PISA test. The majority of the students (65.5%) participating were in the 10th grade. The target population of the study consisted of the students who participated in the PISA 2012 test. The sample of the study consisted of the 4,848 students from 170 schools representing Turkey in the test.

Dependent and Independent Variables

PISA estimates academic literacy in mathematics in terms of plausible values (PVMATH). Averages of PVMATH score types or any PVMATH scores can be used as alternative achievement criteria in studies carried out with respect to PISA (Micklewright & Georgina, 2004). For this study, PVMATH score types and the correlation between the averages of these scores were examined separately and it was observed that four correlations were above 0.90. It was decided to use the average score (449) as the cut-off score and individuals with scores below this were coded as unsuccessful (0) while those with scores equal to or greater than the cut-off score were coded as successful (1) and used in this study as the dependent variable. Among the independent variables, sex (0=*girl*, 1=*boy*) and owning a room (0 = *owning*, 1 = *not owning*) were coded with two categories. The remaining independent variables were 4-point Likert items (1=*strongly agree*, 2=*agree*, 3=*disagree*, 4=*strongly disagree*).

Data Analysis

Within the scope of the study, probit regression analysis was used to determine the effect of some sociocultural and socioeconomic predictive variables on the students participating in PISA 2012 being successful or unsuccessful. Probit regression is a type of analysis that is used to reveal the predictor–predicted relationship when the dependent or independent variables have two categories. While the dependent variable selected for probit regression has to have two categories, the type of independent variable is not important. If an attempt is made to explain one or more dependent variables with two categories using the linear regression method, the linearity assumption is breached and some mathematical transformations are used to linearise the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Probit regression is a type of analysis used in these cases. The advantages of probit regression are that it is one of the qualitative preference models; normal probability density function is used more in both theory and practice and cumulative normal distribution function is used in calculation (Agresti, 2007; Cebeci, 2012; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

Before conducting probit regression analysis, the assumptions on probit regression were tested. First, a lost data analysis was conducted. The amount of missing data for each of the independent fields other than sex and having a study room was more than 5%. Garson (2008) states that it is not a problem to assign missing data in the event of having more than 5% missing data with respect to broad samples. The study included more than 5% missing data, mostly independent data, and therefore the data with the highest frequency was assigned as the missing data for each independent variable (Magnani, 2004; Royston, 2004).

Another assumption of probit regression is about there being a multicollinearity problem

between independent variables. The relationships between independent variables within an analysis should not be too strong. If there are very strong relationships between independent variables, there may be incorrect interpretations regarding the regression equation to be set. One of the most frequently used methods to determine multicollinearity is to control the variance inflation factor (VFI). If VFI values are greater than five or 10, then one can talk about multicollinearity (Tabachnick&Fidell, 2014). The VFI of all independent variables in the study was less than five (VIF on sex: 1,020; VIF on having a study room: 1,005; VIF on preparing for exams: 1,432; VIF on doing homework on time: 1,416; VIF on interest in mathematics: 1,982; VIF on enjoying mathematics: 1,764; VIF on enjoying mathematics reading: 1,796).

Findings and Results

Chi-square test is a goodness of fit test. Low values on a chi-square test show that the set model conforms with the observed structure while high values on a chi-square test show nonconformance of the model with the observed structure. As chi-square values are summation statistics, an increase in the number of variables in the set model also increases the chi-square statistic. When the chi-square statistic is high, a chi-square/degree of freedom equation is used. If the relative chi-square statistic is less than five, the goodness of fit of the model is adequate, and when it is less than three, it can be said that the model has a very good fit (Byrne, 1988). This study observed relative chi-square statistics in regard to the model representation of theoretical data (4850,56/4840,56). As the relative chi-square statistic is less than three, the Ho hypothesis of the first hypothesis test set within the scope of the study was accepted (the theoretical model represents the data well).

Table 1. *Statistics on Independent Variables Included in the Model*

	(B)Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Statistics	<i>p</i>
Invariant	-0,432342	0,079321	29,7087	0,000000
X1	-0,159234	0,037339	18,1865	0,000020
X2	0,454361	0,040843	123,7557	0,000000
X3	0,332112	0,035497	87,5333	0,000000
X4	-0,299079	0,033083	81,7269	0,000000
X5	-0,057459	0,035129	2,6753	0,101915
X6	0,154618	0,029977	26,6046	0,000000
X7	0,098807	0,031863	9,6164	0,001929
<i>p</i> <.05				

Note. Abbreviations. X1: sex, X2: having a study room, X3: preparing for mathematics exams, X4: doing homework on time X5: interest in mathematics, X6: enjoying mathematics, X7: enjoying mathematics reading.

Table 1 includes statistics related to independent variables within the probit regression model. Probit models use the Wald criteria which tests the significance of the parameters of the independent variables in the model. The model has one parameter for each independent variable. Agresti (2007) and Polit (1996) have stated that the Wald value is used to test whether the parameters can be considered to be related when independent variables are zero. The Wald test can also be considered as a significant test of the regression coefficient (Field, 2009). If the Wald test

related to the independent variable is significant, it can be concluded that the parameter related to the independent variable is not zero, that the independent variable contributes significantly to the model and that the model should include the independent variable. If the Wald test related to the independent variable is not significant, it is up to the researcher to include the independent variable in the model (Altman, 1991). While the Wald value has to be more than two to be regarded as significant, the probability value decreases as the Wald value increases. The Wald test should only be used in broad samples. If the sample is small the likelihood ratio test used as an alternative to the Wald test provides better results (Agresti, 2007). When we examined the Wald statistics related to the independent variables included in Table 1, all of the independent variables other than the one related to enjoying mathematics had a significant effect on the dependent variable.

When we examined the regression coefficients in Table 1 that show the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable, we concluded that the independent variables other than the one related to interest in mathematics had a significant effect on the dependent variable. The interaction of the dependent variable with the independent variables other than the one related to doing homework on time was positive.

Table 2. *The Ratio of the Observations Correctly Predicted according to the Probit Regression Analysis*

	Expected (Unsuccessful)	Expected (Successful)	Percentage of Correct Prediction
<u>Observed</u>			
Unsuccessful	2144	533	80,08965
Successful	1482	689	31,73653
General Classification Ratio			58.44

When we studied Table 2, the intersection of line 1 and column 1 indicated the number of unsuccessful (0) individuals who were classified by the program as unsuccessful (0). Of the 2677 participants, 2144 were classified correctly in the study and the classification percentage was given as 80.08%. The intersection of line 1 and column 2 indicates the number of unsuccessful individuals (0) who were classified by the program as successful (1). Of the 2677 participants, 533 were classified as successful despite being unsuccessful. Accordingly, the program had incorrect classifications for 20% of the individuals. The general correct classification ratio of the model set for probit regression is 58.4%. That is, by using the independent variables included in the study, it is possible to have a 58.4% correct prediction about whether the mathematics literacy score of the student will be less than the cut-off score or not.

Conclusion and Recommendations

According to the results, Turkey's PISA 2012 mathematics literacy scores varied with respect to sex, in favour of the girls. Based on this result, we can conclude that girls are more successful in maths than boys. Çiftçi (2006) examined some factors affecting Turkish student achievement in the PISA 2003 mathematics subtest results and stated that sex differences were significant only for the students living in the Blacksea region and that the PISA 2003 test was in of favour girls with respect to achievement. According to an OECD (2004) report, mathematics literacy in Ireland was in favour of girls when the PISA 2003 results were taken into consideration. There are other studies indicating that girls generally have better mathematic achievement than boys (Alkhateeb; 2001; Baya'a, 1990; Ma, 1995).

According to the results of the study, there is a negative relationship between doing

homework on time and mathematics achievement. According to the TIMMS 2011 National Mathematics and Science Report of MEB (2014) for the eighth grade students, those who spent more time on mathematics were more successful than those who spent the most time on mathematics homework. Meier and Schmeck (1985) stated in their study that routine practises given to students creates serious boredom and eventually leads to burnout syndrome. They concluded that in the long-term the physical and psychological fatigue of students as a result of excessive homework and having to do homework on time created a feeling of boredom regarding this work, led to the homework being seen as meaningless and caused a drop in achievement. The negative relationship seen in our study may have been caused by the individual qualities of the students in the sample or because of the fact that the survey used in the PISA test was wrongly adapted during interpretation to Turkish (in Turkey, 1 refers to *strongly disagree* while it refers to *strongly agree* in PISA surveys). Asil and Gelbal (2012) examined the intercultural and interlingual equivalence of the survey applied under PISA 2006 by comparing the samples of the United States of America, Australia, New Zealand, and Turkey and concluded that the items of the survey demonstrated bias based on translation and adaptation rather than cultural differences.

According to the results of the study, there is no statistically significant relationship between an interest in mathematics and mathematics achievement. According to the PISA 2012 National Preliminary Report issued by MEB (2013), 48% of the students in Turkey look forward to mathematics lessons. However, while this showed that the students in Turkey have a positive interest in mathematics lessons, it was concluded that one of the basic problems is that this positive interest was not reflected in academic achievement. According to the Turkey PISA 2012 study conducted by Eğitim Reformu Girişimi (2014), Turkish students' interest in and sympathy towards mathematics was above the average of OECD countries. In addition to interest in mathematics, almost half of the students in Turkey (48%) stated that they looked forward to mathematics lessons. In a study by Akarsu (2009), it was concluded that the effect of interest in mathematics on mathematics achievement was not statistically significant. Doğan and Barış (2010) attempted to determine the level of prediction of variables such as attitude, value, and self-efficacy for mathematics achievement and it was concluded that the attitude scores in the TIMSS surveys measuring emotional dimensions had no significant effect on the TIMSS1999 mathematics scores. Çam (2014) administered a shortened version of the PISA 2009 mathematics test to 120 students in ninth grade to determine the factors affecting their PISA mathematics achievement and concluded that positive or negative attitude towards mathematics had no significant effect on mathematics achievement.

According to the results of the study; there is a positive relationship between enjoying mathematics reading and mathematics achievement. According to a report of the Turkish PISA 2012 done by ERG (2014), two types of motivation were measured in the PISA 2012 survey: interior and goal oriented. ERG stated that interior motivation is based on the enjoyment students have for mathematics reading. It was found that 56% of the students stated that they enjoyed mathematics reading; this dropped to 34% in OECD countries in general and interior motivation in the Turkish students was higher than average despite their mathematics literacy performance being lower than all the other countries compared.

The study indicates that mathematics achievement is positively correlated with having a study room, preparing for examinations, enjoying mathematics, and enjoying mathematics reading. These results were expected by the researchers and are somewhat interrelated.

According to the results of the study, the reasons for the lack of some expected relationships include: the sample structure of PISA (some countries only include students with high skills or achievement, while some countries include students with disabilities or learning difficulties); achievement differences (national or international variance differences do not always reveal the achievement and underachievement of students); and language and culture (PISA is prepared in English and French, therefore there are perception differences depending on which test is used by the participating countries for translation and the difficulty level of the questions may change) (Tedmem, 2014). It can be considered that the PISA method also plays a role in results. The Rasch

model is used in the analysis of PISA data. Due to the structure of the Rasch model (validity), all questions in the test should have the same difficulty level. Kreiner (2011) concluded that PISA participants don't answer questions in all fields of mathematics, science and literacy and that the system allocates students possible values and uses the general average to determine country ranking; this ranking is done by using these possible values and therefore country rankings and generalisations are not valid.

According to the results of the study, whether the mathematics literacy score of students will be below the cut-off score can be predicted to 58.4% accuracy by using the independent variables of the model. Gürsakal (2012) examined the factors affecting student achievement levels through regression analysis of the PISA 2009 Turkish sample and concluded that the correct classification percentage of the model with respect to mathematics literacy was 67.1%. Özer and Doğan (2012) used the logistic regression analysis to determine variables that are effective in predicting the reading skills of primary school eighth grade students; they administered the achievement test and a student survey measuring reading literacy skills within the scope of the 2009 PISA test to 3004 students and concluded that the correct classification ratio of the model created by logistic regression was 70.6%. This value may be considered to be relatively sufficient. Taking into consideration the relevant researches, it can be said that the classification percentage observed as a result of this study is relatively sufficient.

According to the results of the study, there is a negative interaction between doing homework on time and mathematics achievement. This situation needs to be seriously considered within our education system. When teachers assign homework to students, they need to give prominence to the quality of the homework, not the quantity. At the same time, teachers should assign homework based on learning rather than repetition and preparation. According to the results of the study, it is concluded that the achievement of girls is generally higher than boys. Teachers have a great role to play in balancing the mathematics achievements of boys and girls. This may involve creating a discussion environment in the classroom. Classroom discussions covering the learning styles, suggestions and ideas of students should be supported. Equal participation of boys and girls in these discussions should be ensured. Particularly, boys should be encouraged to express their ideas about mathematics and mathematics teaching and the teachers should always take these ideas into consideration.

According to the results of the study, it is concluded that there is no significant relationship between interest in mathematics and mathematics achievement. Seminars about fostering mathematics interest could be organised to establish a positive relationship between mathematics interest and mathematics achievement. These seminars could be organised to line up with basic teacher objectives like enjoying mathematics, preferring mathematics, and interior motivation. These mathematics interest development programs should remove the negative conditions that may exist between sex roles and mathematics interest. It should be noted that mathematics related beliefs are effective in creating mathematics interest. Therefore, a change needs to be made in the attitudes of parents and students towards mathematics. In addition, courses may be organised in the fields of mathematics teaching and classroom management for teachers who want to develop the mathematics interests of students.

According to the results of the study, it is concluded that students with a study room are generally more successful in mathematics than students who have not a study room. It is very important for students to have a study room in order to start studying easily, not be distracted, not waste time, and to carry out healthy study habits. Parents should be made aware of the necessity of study rooms and this should be supported by teachers.

According to the results of the study, there was a positive relationship between enjoying mathematics reading and mathematics achievement. In this context, teachers should organise mathematics reading activities in the classroom. Teachers should also inform families of this correlation and encourage them to support their children to see mathematics not only as a subject but

also as practical skills that can be frequently used in real life.

According to the results of the study, it is concluded that there is positive relationship between exam preparation and mathematics achievement. Study time and studying methods have a positive effect on the mathematics achievement of students. Routine repetition should be ensured to safeguard against the possibility of students forgetting the learned subjects. Methods and techniques of study are equally as important as the review of subjects. Teachers and parents should inform the students about methods and technique that provide for effective learning and ensure that they are aware of these factors themselves.

The sample of this study consisted of Turkish students. Similar studies can be repeated in different countries.

This study examined the PISA achievement prediction status of sociocultural and socioeconomic countries involved in PISA testing. There may be studies about how the same variables can predict achievement levels in national examinations and in schools of the students participating in PISA.

The same study can be done by using a different regression method with two categories of independent variable and results can be compared with respect to methods.

Studies on similar subjects can be conducted by using different sociocultural and socioeconomic variables.

Similar studies can be conducted in order to determine the variables that affect the science literacy or reading skills.

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Eflâtun Cem Güney In Terms Of Bibliotheraphic Elements: Once Upon A Timeⁱ

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Abstract

Bibliotherapy is defined as “recovery through books” and can be implemented in various ways, one of them is “developmental bibliotherapy” technique, which can be applied at schools, classrooms or libraries under the guidance of a teacher. The objective of this study is to analyse the tales book called “Evvel Zaman İçinde” by Eflâtun Cem Güney through developmental bibliotherapy technique. The seven stories called “The Brocaded Shoe, The Beaded Quilt, The Three Oranges, Sedef Sister, The Dough Baby, The Haunted Hand, The Golden Forelocked Boy and The Golden Haired Girl” within the folk tales book mentioned here are evaluated upon the basis of points such as not giving up hope, dealing with various problems, benevolence, recognising others and empathy, developing a more positive sense of self, adapting to different and new situations, forgiveness and tolerance. In this study, the descriptive analysis technique, one of the qualitative research methods, is used. At the end of the research, points such as “benevolence and cooperation, recognising others and empathy (social consciousness), developing a more positive sense of self, perseverance, communication skills” which are involved in the folk tales book called ‘Once Upon a Time’ by Eflatun Cem GÜNEY are presented in details and suggestions are made regarding the findings as well.

Keywords: Bibliotherapy, Turkish education, Folk tale, Eflâtun Cem Güney

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Introduction

Definition of Bibliotherapy

Bibliotherapy that is "treatment through books" is a technique based on the use of literature resources under a therapist or the concerned teacher's guidance and intervention in matters necessary for therapy. This method is a process of dynamic interaction between the personality of the reader and literature-an interaction which may be used for personality assessment, adjustment, and growth.

Bibliotherapy, which has been used for treatment in psychology field for a long time, started to be used by teachers and educators within school environments with distinct techniques in recent years (Öncü, 2012:153). Educators and guidance counselors agree upon the bibliotherapy technique which may bring alternative solutions to students' problems. Likewise, books are illustrated among the most efficient tools in solving affective and behavioral problems (Öner, 2007: 136).

The Historical Process, Types and Importance of Bibliotherapy in the Field of Turkish Education

When the historical process of bibliotherapy is looked through, it may be said that the origins of this theory dates back to the saying "the place where human soul is healed" at the entrance of a library at Ancient Greek age. The development of this technique has gained momentum after the First World War. At the beginning of the twentieth century, mental health specialists and librarians have cooperated and used the bibliotherapy technique in the treatment of patients.

Bibliotherapy, with the broadest definition, "individuals" sorting out their problems or getting themselves ready or preparation of an activity" (Bodant, 1980; cited by: Öner and Yeşilyaprak, 2006:559). The purpose of this method is to change the person's wrong attitudes, to encourage him and to manage to come up with alternative ideas with regard to solutions of the problems. In other words, bibliotherapy means "introducing the right person to the right book at right time." (Bulut, 2010: 47).

Bibliotherapy can be analysed in two main groups in terms of implementation areas and shape (Öner, 2007: 140,141):

1. **Clinic bibliotherapy:** This technique, which is employed by psychological counselors and therapists for therapeutic purposes, also includes the bibliotherapy backed with psychological counseling, book prescription and the bibliotherapy techniques that are supported with a telephone and manual book.
2. **Developmental bibliotherapy:** It is the sort of bibliotherapy which can be used by the teacher concerned, librarians and non-experts within the school environment or libraries. As it is not carried out by experts, it is rather advisory. Developmental bibliotherapy may be benefitted in finding solutions to problems that a person may face in his/her daily life as well as to more complicated affective and behavioral problems. In addition to assisting the person to get to know himself better and to find solution to his/her problems, this technique is a beneficial and effective means of communication adopted by parents to recognize and define the properties of puberty age.

"Literature is influential upon both cognitive and affective aspects of man. The reading does not only get them to think, but also touches them." (Öner, 2007: 134).

Books display certain properties such as provoking thoughts, healing and finally assisting in finding solutions to problems. Through what he reads, the person gets the opportunity to witness a number of new lives that he/she cannot experience and reach in his/her real life (Rainfield, 2013; Akt: Öner, 2007: 134).

People may turn to books for various reasons. These reasons can be listed as follows:

- a. Finding an outlet for emotions ,
- b. Dealing with the problems that create fear to be confronted with,
- c. Discovering new lives by getting away from the current state,

- d. Being convinced that others also have problems in their lives, , consolidating the sense of not being alone,
- e. Getting to know himself and his needs,
- f. Developing new perspective regarding to the environment,
- g. Reaching from part to the whole,
- h. Comparing the concepts, problems and sentiments with the other one,
- i. Being able to learn what to pay attention to and beware of.
- j. All the factors mentioned above are the skills regarding his/her life. The reader may compare himself with the events of all kinds of lives which are presented to him/her in the book and with the characters through which he can detect various and strong aspects of his/her nature that he/she couldn't not realize and name up to that time (Öner, 2007: 136). So, the purpose of the use of bibliotherapy is to help the person to gain insight through books while taking pleasure (Öner, 2007: 136).

The basic implementation principles of bibliotherapy are listed below: (Pardeck&Pardeck: 1986; cited by Bulut, 2010: 20):

- a. Assistance needs to be given in the application of the material the individual is familiar with.
- b. The counselor/the teacher concerned needs to pay attention to the length of the reading assignments, and the passages which are irrelevant to the target, complicated and unnecessarily long should not be selected.
- c. The reading comprehension level of the counselee/student should definitely be known and the reading passage should be selected accordingly.
- d. If the counselee/student has difficulty in reading the text or cannot read it, audio books should be selected.
- e. The age and the emotional maturity of the counselee/student should be taken into consideration.
- f. The reading preferences and interests of the counselee/student should be selected as the baseline.
- g. The materials that reflect the emotional state of the counselee / student should be carefully selected.
- h. When the necessary materials are not available; visual and audio resources should be alternatively used.
- i. Even if it is incapable of meeting and covering the counselee/student's problem, the reading passage should be as relevant to it as possible.

To achieve the aim of bibliotherapy, in the process of implementation of the basic principles, the counselor/teacher is required to comply with the steps explained below (Pardeck, 1993; cited by: Bulut, 2010: 22):

1. Determining the behaviour or the ability which is intended to be imparted to students by by the counselor/teacher,
2. Determining the appropriate literature and the resources to be used,
3. Initial reading of the selected text by the counselor/teacher,
4. Making the literature and the books perused,
5. Providing a creative discussion environment after the reading session.

According to Öner and Yeşilyaprak (2006:506), the person upon whom to conduct bibliotherapy should have knowledge and ability with regard to the subject. It is essential that practitioners adhere to the steps mentioned above in order for bibliotherapy to be able to be used as a proper technique in Turkish Education. After the reading process , provision of a proper discussion environment by the teacher is highly important in terms of understanding whether the student has perceived the process correctly or not, determining if his/her behaviours and attitudes have changed or not and whether he/she can come up with solutions to his/her problems.

According to Çetin (2013:141), use of bibliotheraphic may not always be the exact solution. However, applying this method within the scope of Turkish language lessons in the framework of objectives and gains of Turkish language education will definitely contribute to students' personality developments and acquisition of positive behaviours.

With the purpose of offering solutions to person's problems, creating a positive sense of self and building identification, developmental bibliotherapy may be said to emphasize the key points below (Çetin, 2013:138-139; Yılmaz, 2014:176-177) :

1. Communication skills
2. Problem solving skills (developing an insight towards problem solution),
3. Anger, stress and time management (catharsis and release of emotional tension),
4. Forgiveness and tolerance,
5. Perseverance,
6. Benevolence and cooperation,
7. Agreeableness
8. Self-awareness, (self-consciousness- the individual's assessing himself honestly),
9. Recognising others and empathy (social consciousness)
10. Getting to know the environment, society and the world
11. Building a more positive sense of self,
12. Being aware of the fact that others may also face the similar problems as his/her own and feeling that he/she is not alone,
13. Deliberation,
14. Identifying and using the opportunities,
15. Not giving up hope,
16. Motivation and planning the future,
17. Softening stereotypes,
18. Adapting to new and different situations and overcoming adaptation difficulties
19. Developing new values, attitudes and behaviours,
20. Resolving the conflicts between parents and children; recognition of children's developmental needs by parents and responding them

The Importance of the Research

Bibliotherapy is the shape that text and therapy are melted into each other. It is stated that the texts within the textbooks need to be qualified to contribute to students' personality development and enable them to gain aesthetic value.

As it is stated within the overall objectives of the National Education Law numbered 1739, "raising individuals who are physically, mentally and emotionally balanced; own a healthily developed personality and character, a free and scientifically thinking competence, a broad view of the world; respect human rights and appreciate enterprise; have sense of responsibility towards society; constructive, creative and productive (NEM:1)." stands out the key objective. Some of the overall objectives of The Turkish Training Programme of 6-8th grades are students are expected to be "tolerant, respectful to human rights, sensitive to national and global problems and to create solutions (NEM:4)." and under the "basic skills" title of the programme, the qualities "communication, problem solving (NEM: 5)." are included as well. Hence it is estimated that developmental bibliotherapy technique will contribute to educating individuals who own the qualities which are expressed within the overall objectives of Turkish National Education Curriculum and also The Turkish Training Programme of 6-8th grades.

Bibliotherapy technique is a method which includes the education of values and contributes to the student's self-development. Based on fiction, Turkish language course seems to be the most suitable course for this technique. In addition, it may not be incorrect to state that bibliotherapy is a highly influential method for improving literacy skills and inculcate basic language skills in the student's life. One of the literary genres to be utilized in the implementation of bibliotherapy technique is fairy tales.

Fairy tales are of instructive value; to express more explicitly, tales are the literary works that treat children's emotions, thoughts and dreams in a written or oral way and enhance their feelings of beauty and while doing this, in addition to making them gain a national identity, they get them to adopt national and universal values without being aware of it. Helimoğlu Yavuz (1997: 55) uses the following statements about tales:

Throughout the history human beings expressed their expectations from life, and solutions to their daily problems through fairytales events and heroes and in this way they meant to warn, educate and equip new generations against the challenges of life for centuries because a parallelism may be drawn between almost all the problems which the heroes of tales face and the realities of actual life."

In addition to enriching children's world of thought and imagination, tales enable them to gain the virtues such as kindness, honesty, diligence and benevolence within the course of events as well.

Tales may be counted to be the literary genre that reflects the childish sensibility best. They prepare the child for life; that is, for future, through nourishing children's soul and enriching their fantasy world. When extracting the symbolic elements from the tales, the real life is revealed. The child gains the experience to prepare himself/herself for future to some extent through tales which are fiction. The child sees the contradictions in tales.

Tales in which good and evil, right and wrong, pretty and ugly, weak and strong come together and fiercely compete with each other draw for the child a realistic picture of the world.

When examined carefully, it is obviously seen that tales actually reveal human life. That is to say, while people go through real events, they dream and imagine as well. Real life and dreams of people come together in fairy tales. Ordinary and extraordinary events are realistically depicted in tales (Karatay, 2007: 472).

The current study is of importance in terms of making bibliotherapy more widely known, explaining its types, determining its place in Turkish language teaching and the roles of the teachers implementing it and revealing how books, stories and folktales can be analyzed in relation to their bibliotherapeutic elements.

Eflatun Cem Güney compiled many legends, fables and folktales and penned these products of oral literature again with his own style. Also known as "Storyteller Father", Güney invested great efforts to reproduce these works in modern Turkish. Therefore, Eflatun Cem Güney's book of folktales "Evvel Zaman İçinde" was selected as the main source of the current study.

The Purpose of the Research

This research aims to identify the bibliotherapeutic elements of the tales book called "Once Upon a Time" by Eflâton Cem GÜNEY and make suggestions about how to use bibliotherapy technique through this tales book. In addition, emphasizing that this technique contributes to the development of students' literacy skills, helps them to overcome their emotional problems, and to gain positive values is another purpose of the current study.

Technique

Research Model

This study was conducted by using qualitative research method. Qualitative research can be described as research in which qualitative data collection methods such as "observation, interview and document analysis" are used. (Yıldırım&Şimşek, 2005:39). The study relies on "descriptive analysis" which is one of the qualitative research methods. The data obtained out of descriptive analysis are summarised and interpreted according to the themes formerly defined (Yıldırım&Şimşek, 2005:224).

Collection and Analysis of Data

A literature review was initially made to identify the bibliotheraphic elements in the tales book called “Once Upon a Time”, which is the subject of the research similar statements identified are subsumed under a heading and a “table of bibliotheraphic elements” which is made up of 20 headings is created. Based on the table obtained, the tales book “Once Upon a Time” was separately read and analysed by the researchers.

Each bibliotheraphic element identified in the tale is listed right below the related section and is supported by examples through the direct quotations from the book.

The bibliotheraphic elements in the book were separately identified for each tale and the tales were ordered from most to least depending on the number of the bibliotheraphic elements in the book. In addition, these elements within the book were ranged according to frequency of use and tried to be interpreted as well.

Validity and Reliability

According to Yıldırım and Şimşek (2005), one of the paramount criteria in a study where descriptive analysis has been used is to include direct quotations and to explain the results based on these quotations. “The colleague test” is used as another criterion of validity (Merriam, 1998: 204).

After the research findings were interpreted, a colleague test was carried out by consulting an expert in order to determine whether the results were accurately assessed or not. In order to ensure reliability in this research, upon the findings of the research, the comments of both researchers were evaluated together and the differences between them tried to be minimised. Yıldırım and Şimşek (2005: 263) emphasized that the internal reliability may be achieved in a study through comparing the analysis that more than one researcher have performed by using the same data.

Findings and Comments

In this section, the findings obtained with regard to the bibliotheraphic elements within the book “Once Upon a Time” by Eflatun Cem Güney are presented in tables.

Table 1: *The Numeric Data with regard to the bibliotheraphic elements of the book called “Once Upon a Time” by Eflatun Cem GÜNEY*

FOLK TALES	HEROES	SUBJECT	MESSAGE
1. THE BROCADED SHOE	1.The Father	It is narrated in the tale that an orphan girl who has lost her mother at a very young age and so has to live with her stepmother, and despite all, she never gives up benevolence and her kindness is rewarded with a marriage to the prince in the end.	All the good and evil deeds will return one day.
	2.The Stepmother		
	3.The Stepmother’s Daughter		
	4.The Orphan Girl		
	5.Granny Akça		
	6.The Brocaded Yellow Cow		
	7.The Rooster with Earring The Haji Butcher		
	8.The Prince		
	9.The Vizier		
	10. The Ak Aghas		
	11. Yenge Sultan		
2. THE BEADED QUILT	1. The Old Horseshoer	The confrontation of The Old Horseshoer’s three sons with the Giant, the Padishah’s three daughters who are captured by the Giant and rescued by them; Mistik, who is the youngest of the brothers, overcomes the	No matter how challenging the conditions are, people with good intentions certainly receive the reward they deserve in
	2. Mistik		
	3. Mistik’s Two Brothers		
	4. The Giant, The Giant’s Wife		
	5. Padishah		
	6. Padishah’s Three		

	Daughters	Giant with the help of his good faith, courage and wit despite his brothers' evil intentions and he is rewarded with a marriage to the Padishah's youngest daughter in the end.	the end.
3. THREE ORANGES	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.The Padishah 2.The Prince 3.The Chief Astrologer 4.The Black Vizier 5.The White Vizier 6.The Poor Orphan 7.The Giantess 8.The Seven-headed Giant 9.The Orange Beauty 10. The Brunette Girl 11. The Old Lady Hatun 	In the tale it is narrated that upon the poor orphan's curse taking effect, the prince sets out to pursue the three oranges and on his way he falls in love with the girl who gets out of the last orange and the sequence of events until they come together in the end.	We may always confront evil people, but no matter what happens, Well-intentioned people will win in the end for sure.
4. SEDEF BACI	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.The Padishah 2.The Black Vizier 3.The Padishah's Second Wife 4.Padishah's Three Sons 5.Sedef Girl 6.The Prince 	This tale narrates about a padishah's three sons who fall in the hands of the stepmother and the events that befall her only daughter; the sacrifices of Sedef Kız in favor of her brothers and her being rewarded in return for that kindness in the end.	Working in a perseverance and self denial way and not letting evil dwell in the heart are sufficient for the solution of a number of problems.
5. THE DOUGH BABY	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.Hılı 2.Dılı 3.Çitçitil Bey 4.Gülfidan 5.Keloglan Bald Boy 	The content of the tale is that having been married for years yet having no children still, a couple called Hılı and Dılı make a dough baby and break it into pieces as they cannot share it, which made their heart sank. However, God sends Keloglan Bald Boy to be adopted by them.	If something is desired too much, God will not leave it unreciprocated. Hope should not be given up.
6. THE HAUNTED HAND	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.Gül Girl 2.Gül Girl's Husband 3.The Cherub Lady 4.The Ten Fingers Fairy 	The content of the tale is that pitying Gül Girl for not being able to finish the heavy chores on time, a fairy who is a witness of her late mother's kindness places a fairy on Gül's ten fingers and annihilates this problem from which she suffers.	Hope should not be despaired of God.
7. THE BOY WITH GOLDEN FORELOCK AND THE GOLDEN HAired GIRL	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.Bert 2.Ernie 3.Two Cherub Fairies 4.The Forelocked Boy 5.The Golden Haired Girl 6.The Crone 7.Goblins 	In the tale it is narrated that a couple called Bert and Ernie have never given up hope although they have had no children for years and they are rewarded with a very pretty boy and a girl in the end.	Even though it may seem impossible to achieve the desired things, hope should not be given up from God.

In Table 1, the heroes, content and the messages of seven folk tales within the folk tales book called "Once Upon a Time" by Eflatun Cem Güney are presented. As the elements of time and place are rather imprecise and are kept beyond the scope of this study, these factors are not included.

When tales are analysed in relation to the heroes, it is defined that the highest number of characters exist in the first, the third and the seventh tale respectively; and a padishah, a prince, a giant, an orphan and a person who do evil appear in more than half of the tales.

The characters in the tales are analysed in terms of good and evil distinction and the names which are given to them are determined in such a way as to imply the personality features of the characters. While good characters are given good names by "The Orphan Girl, Granny Akça, The

Brocaded Yellow Cow, The Rooster With Earring, The Ak Aghas, The Haji Butcher, The Prince, Yenge Sultan, Padishah, The Old Horseshoer, Mistik, The Padishah's Three Daughters, The White Vizier, The Giantess, The Orange Beauty, The Old Lady Hatun, The Padishah's Three Sons, Sedef Girl, Hılı, Dılı, Keloglan Bald Boy, Gülfidan, The Cherub Lady, Bert, Ernie, Two Cherub Fairies, The Crone ", the evil ones are given bad names "The Stepmother, The Stepmother's Daughter, Mistik's Two Brothers, The Giant, The Giant's Wife, The Black Vizier, The Brunette Girl, The Seven-Headed Giant, The Padishah's Second Wife and The Goblins". In the following samples, it is obviously seen that *The Noble-hearted Vizier* is shown to be a good person ,while The Step Mother is depicted as a wicked person.

"...However, the noble-hearted Vizier was an honourable man." "Your Highness," said he, "I'd beg you to say the sword is not to be raised towards an orphan; instead, what's best is to conquer hearts, make kaabahs, the dome of God." so pray, Majesty, decree a fountain to be built ,yet what a great fountain! Honey shall flow through one chute, and shall cream through the other one. Hereupon, let those orphan and the fatherless come to this amazing fountain; if he desires honey, let him fill in his bucket with honey; or with cream, whatever he wants! If smile does blossom upon those orphans who have gone through hard times since their birth; then fortune shall smile upon our beloved prince, too." (Güney: 2006: 44)

"...The step mother, getting utterly infuriated; ' you orphan brat! said she, what on earth you dare to tell me what I should do? You mind your own damn business! Let me drink her three palms of blood first, then I will make you have a hell of a time!" (Güney, 2006: 14)

When the names are analysed in details, it is seen that "white, yellow, haji, beautiful, devine light, mother, sedef, rose, gülfidan, golden, brocaded, orphan, fatherless" are used to indicate good characters, while the concepts "black, step, giant, goblin, seven-headed giant" are used to indicate the evil characters. In the tales while the giant and the giant's wife represent the evil, the giantess represents the good character. This case is thought to stem from the holiness of "maternity".

In tales, typically a simple hero and the events revolving around him/her are depicted. There is a struggle of heroes who are identified with contradictory concepts like good-evil, justified-unjustified, virtue-unvirtuousness, justice-cruelty, and humility-arrogance. (Karatay, 2007:471). The struggle of "good and evil, beauty and ugliness, wealth and poverty, in other words, the positive and negative is narrated. Save some exceptions, tales finish with a happy ending; the good, the beautiful and the wise win in the end. In fairy tales, misfortune and mishaps come up once or in a row and bound together, which is different from real life. After their resolution, new problems do not appear at all; the crown and marriage that symbolize power, success and happiness are not redamaged." (Günay, 1992:326). In all fairy tales, while the good qualities belong to the beautiful and the strong, defects belong to the ugly and the evil (Tezel, 1985:I). In fairy tales, human types of honest-dishonest, courageous-despicable, brave-coward, smart-fool, just-cruel, lazy-hardworking appear. By means of these good and evil characters, types of behaviours to be taken as a model or to be avoided are introduced. At the end of the tale, the hero representing the good always wins; and the evil one is always punished.

While tales enrich children's world of thought and imagination; they also impart some virtues to them such as kindness, honesty, diligence and benevolence that they are supposed to acquire within the course of events. (Karatay, 2007:471).

The contradictions such as good and evil, right and wrong, just and unjust, virtue and unvirtuousness, justice and cruelty within the folk tales book " are presented through the characters of the tales such as The Stepmother-The Orphan Girl, Mistik- Mistik's Two Brothers /The Giant/The Giant's Wife, The Orange Beauty-The Brunette Girl, Sedef Girl-The Stepmother, The Crone-Goblins.

"... Miss Orange, being quite ignorant of people, how on earth can she know?" As she is the lady of that mountain and the moor, so much does she yearn for it! Yet, it would not be fair

to let her hanker after; perhaps, till my valiant sweetheart returns, for me, it shall become a live festive as well.' thought she, and no sooner did she say: Bend down my branch! Bend down!" than one of the branches would bend down the very bottom upon the earth; and no sooner did it lift the pock-marked girl than it stood up into the air." (Güney,2006: 55)

"...at that moment, somehow, Miss Orange turns into a bird and against the breeze flies she away. At that very moment, the pock-marked girl grins fully:" it is better to have good fortune than own a pretty complexion' said that so-called bird-brained fairy girl . However, saying that 'even if the hell breaks loose, the blind luck shall never come and strike me. Hence, for me, what is best to do is to build my own fortune with my own hands and strike that gold called the Prince. Is there a superb chance better than that! ' did she insert the enchanted needle through her hair; put herself into Miss Orange's shoes and eventually replaced her." (Güney,2006: 56)

The seven tales of the tales book "Once Upon a time" reveal similar characteristics in terms of their subjects. In the first four tales "The Brocaded Shoe, The Beaded Quilt, The Three Oranges and Sedef Sister" the struggle of the good against the evil characters is narrated and in spite of all the injustice that they are exposed to, they do not give up their well- intended behaviours, they go on putting forth efforts to overcome the problems that they confront and get the award that they deserve in the end. In the last three tales "The Dough Baby, The Haunted Hand, The Golden Forelocked Boy and The Golden Haired Girl" it is narrated that the characters desire an object such as a child and a skill that they cannot own in their life or feel the absence of it immensely yet they never despair; do their best to that end and eventually get rewarded with them in the end.

When analyzed in terms of their messages, almost all convey the message that no good deed shall remain unreciprocated; the first three tales emphasize it intensely and in the final three tales, the importance of "no despair" is stressed. In the following extract which is taken from the tale called Sedef Sister, it is stated that, Sedef Girl deserves to be rewarded with marrying the son of the padishah in return of her innumerable favours thus the message that even a slightest favour shall remain unreciprocated is implicitly conveyed.

"... The Padishah, upon discerning that Sedef is much purer than even a pearl, married her to his beloved son. He also gave his three daughters to Sedef Girl's three brothers as wives. While the newly-married couples were enjoying their wedding celebration which lasted for fifty days and forty nights; gosh, in the midst of the festive, what a shock! The rumour that their wicked step mother, the daughter of the Evil Vizier would be harshly castigated between a rock and a hard place. Dee, peace is restored in the end; the biter is bit; and those unwicked are fairly rewarded with a happy ending. Three apples fell from Heaven; to those who avoid to soil others' hands!" (Güney, 2006: 70).

Tales guide to good and beauty and remind us our responsibilities. Being an important education tool, tales indicate the ways and conditions of being in agreement with society. They play a great role in gaining acceptable behaviours and disposing of undesirable ones (Gül, 2013).

When reference books are examined, it is observed that the counselee or the student who is involved in bibliotherapy process has relieved from the heavy stress and pressure resulting from strong emotions, gets to know themselves, gains insight and shows tendency to exhibit positive behaviours by taking the heroes of the book as models. (Öner, 2007: 136).

The findings regarding to bibliotheraphic elements which are defined within seven tales of "Once Upon a Time" by Eflatun Cem Güney are given below.

Table 2: *The Numeric Data with regard to the bibliotheraphic elements of the book called “Once Upon a Time” by Eflatun Cem GÜNEY*

BIBLIOTHERAPHIC ELEMENTS	1st TALE	2nd TALE	3rd TALE	4th TALE	5th TALE	6th TALE	7th TALE	TOTAL	%
1. <i>Benevolence and Cooperation</i>	5	5	12	3	0	2	0	27	12.1
2. <i>Recognising others and empathy (social consciousness)</i>	9	5	2	0	6	1	1	24	10.7
3. <i>Developing a more positive sense of self</i>	6	3	4	2	2	0	0	17	7.6
4. <i>Perseverance</i>	1	4	5	3	1	0	2	16	7.1
5. <i>Communication Skills</i>	2	8	1	1	1	1	1	15	6.7
6. <i>Problem solving skills (developing insight regarding to solutions of problems)</i>	1	7	4	1	1	0	1	15	6.7
7. <i>Developing new values, attitudes and behaviours</i>	4	5	2	1	2	0	0	14	6.2
8. <i>Not Giving up Hope</i>	2	2	1	2	3	1	3	14	6.2
9. <i>Self-awareness, (self-consciousness- the individual's assessing himself honestly)</i>	2	3	2	1	1	2	2	13	5.8
10. <i>Seeing that others may also face the similar problems as his/her own and having the feeling of not being alone</i>	3	2	2	3	1	1	1	13	5.8
11. Softening stereotypes	1	1	4	0	3	0	1	10	4.4
12. Anger, stress and time management(catharsis and release of emotional tension)	0	3	1	0	2	0	2	8	3.5
13. Adapting to different and new situations, overcoming adaptation difficulties	1	1	2	0	2	1	0	7	3.1
14. Agreeableness	1	4	1	0	0	0	1	7	3.1
15. Forgiveness and tolerance	3	1	0	0	0	1	1	6	2.6
16. Diligence	0	2	2	0	1	0	1	6	2.6
17. Being aware of the environment, society and the World	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	6	2.6
18. Motivation and planning the future	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	3	1.3
19. Resolving the conflicts between parents and children; recognition of children's developmental needs by parents and responding them	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.4
20. Identifying and using the opportunities	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.4
TOTAL	44 (19.7 %)	62 (27.8 %)	45 (20.1 %)	17 (7.6 %)	26 (11.6 %)	10 (4.4 %)	19 (8.5 %)	223	100

In the table above, the bibliotheraphic elements detected in the seven tales within the tales book “Once Upon a Time” by Eflatun Cem Güney are ordered from the most frequently encountered ones to the least. Among the elements, the most frequently encountered one is “benevolence and cooperation” (12.1%), and it is followed by “recognising others and empathy (social consciousness)” (10.7%), “building a more positive sense of self” (7.6%), “perseverance” (7.1%), “communication skills” (6.7%), “problem-solving skills (developing an insight towards problem solution)”, “managing to develop new values, attitudes and behaviours” (6.2%) and “not giving up hope” (6.2%) , “self-awareness, (self-consciousness- individual’s assessing himself honestly) (5.8%), “seeing that others

may also face with the similar problems as his/her own and realizing that he/she is not alone", "softening stereotypes" (4.4%), "anger, stress and time management (catharsis and release of emotional tension)" (3.5%), "adapting to new and different situations and overcoming adaptation difficulties", "agreeableness" (3.1%), "forgiveness and tolerance, deliberation, being aware of the environment, society and the world" (2.6%).

In Table 2, it is seen that among the elements that exist within the tales book "Once Upon a Time", "motivation and planning the future" (1.3%) and "defining the opportunities and using them, resolving the conflicts between parents and children; recognition of children's developmental needs by parents and responding them" (0.4%) are the least frequently encountered ones.

When bibliotheraphic elements are evaluated in terms of their presence in the tales, it is found out that the most elements exist in the second tale "The Beaded Quilt" (27.8%) and it is followed by the third tale "The Three Oranges" (20.1%), the first tale "The Brocaded Shoe" (19.7%), the fifth tale "The Dough Baby" (11.6%), the seventh tale "The Golden Forelocked Boy" and "The Golden Haired Girl" (8.5%), the forth tale, Sedef Sister (7.6%), and finally the sixth tale "The Haunted Hand" (4.4%).

Eflatun Cem Güney's tales book "Once Upon A Time" includes implicit messages related to bibliotheraphic elements as well as outstanding explicit messages. These can be exemplified as follows:

Seeing That Others May Confront His/Her Problems As Well

"On that unlucky day when her mummy was dead and buried; a fire fell into her bosom and her face turned to ash pale. Hereupon, could a smile blossom upon the poor orphan's face again? Alas, that father would-be would become a real father and take the poor child under his wings... Before his late wife's soil dried up, her so-called father had left the orphan into a stepmother's hands. Well, if we came to her, to our regret, she had a heart of stone. The stepmother made her own daughter lead a comfortable life whilst she took a hard line with the ill-fated orphan; she set her to all chores; exhaust her going up the hill; if not, she even had her carry water in sifter. Still, no matter what the poor child did; all stood out like a sore thumb to the stepmother." (pg: 7)

"It is inevitable to have a run of bad luck and to suffer all evils in life. If one day those who drop in on a beaten track return and tell their adventures at his bedside, perhaps our beloved prince neglects his own grievances to some extent and hereby feels a bit consoled." (pg:62)

"Her parents didn't have their eyes on her and made her lead a comfortable life; yet alas, damn the cruel fate! Before a nightingale perches upon its branch; the dying hour striked on their door. Far from the hearth, both her parents were taken away within the same wooden coffin from her; that rose-faced maiden girl crashed about her ears. Her lamentation screamed the place down in such a manner that her one eye was running for her mother's sake and the other for her father's; but, it couldn't be helped, nothing more could be said about it. Sorrow of heart was it, would not it be halved nor dressed, but then thank heavens! God gave the patience to endure." (pg:79)

Developing a More Positive Sense of Self

"My girl, Lord only knows who is what. I see the beholder in the point of view he looks at me. As for what I reap and sow; that actually depends on the motive of the heart; I just reap what the other sows." (pg:12)

"...Once upon a time there were a husband and a wife called Hılı and Bıdı. They were as quiet as a mouse both. They wouldn't interfere with anybody's affairs and even forebore to hurt an ant." (pg:71)

Softening Stereotypes

“Her heart sank; for sure; yet upon interpreting her case as such ‘ Every cloud has a silver lining’ she took a load off her mind a bit.” (pg:17)

“Excellency, I wouldn’t like to sound like giving advice to your Highness ,yet what is destined to be will be, we cannot curb it by throwing the stranger a bone; will it happen what is already predestined, there is no remedy rather than show humility to the will of God, I hope all ends well.” (pg:45)

Forgiveness and Tolerance

“And there is also that this is a mother, too; has also a daughter; for me, it’s no use crying over the spilled milk any more, but do not wish it for her, If her mother pays her misdeed for her blood; then alas, the poor girl falls into a stepmother’s hands. Better tell, I refer it to God; hereupon neither the padishah nor his son should know about it, between us let it be a secret!” (pg:23)

“...what else would her husband do! For the sake of not distorting the peace and harmony of the household,had he endured all at his utmost power,he did not even bother to open his mouth once and insinuate anything to his wife !” (pg:80)

Adapting a New Situation, Creating Different Means of Solution

“They were damned if they did, and damned if they didn’t. Whilst they were brooding over, ‘My agha brothers’ said Mistik: It is not for me to say in your presence, but even if we catch lighting in a bottle, it is still far from returning our effort. Better tell, let’s seek our fortune elsewhere. It aint the end of everything!” (pg:24)

Benevolence and Cooperation

“...however, from that day onwards, neither moor nor hill; nor grass nor field; a handful of bay for one of them and a slice bread for the other; so that it tended to run off their feet. Yeah, it really did! The orphan girl wouldn’t eat her bread, but damp it with her tears and give it to her beloved brocaded; in return, the brocaded cow would add honey and cream into her milk and have her poor orphan drink it.” (pg:14)

“Your Highness, I’d beg you to say ‘ the sword is not to be raised towards an orphan; what’s best is to conquer hearts, make kaabahs, the dome of God.’. So please decree a fountain to be built, a great fountain! Honey shall flow through one of its chute, and cream through the other one. Hereupon, let those orphan and the fatherless come to this amazing fountain; if he desires honey, let him fill in his bucket with honey; or with cream, whatever he wants! If smile does blossom upon those orphans who have gone through hard times since their birth; then fortune shall smile upon our beloved prince, too.” (pg:44)

“Sisters are bosom friends, do they ever seperate from each other? At nights they would go into a huddle once and unburden their adventures twice.” (pg:64)

“...If you wanna change your ways, neither yield to your flesh nor from society let yourself detach. Cry with the crying one; laugh with the laughing one. If you are more valiant, build a a tavern to the benefit of everybody. Then shall the earth goes on revolving, will do it out of respect to those.” (pg:77)

Perseverance

“I set my heart on it once, hereforth what’s predestined will be on the scene any way. Well, if you ain’t under the oath, show me the garden of that evil giant, and leave the rest to me.” (pg:47)

“I shall find it roaming the hills and down dale or perish for its sake; I descended to earth and and good God, look what I found!” (pg:65)

Defining The Opportunities and Using Them

“To be frank, were there too many good in the city; but the world is the world of the evil, just to be on the safe side says he; and dips his bread upon salt.” (pg:60)

“As they had their fingers burnt by all the world, they drank even water blowing just in case.” (pg:84)

Not Giving Up Hope

“Do not cry my girl, do not; as you own this diamond and heart at hand; may Lord make you laugh if they do not; now come on, and have a go at washing your face and eyes!” (pg:9)

“Sister, sister; my sister whiter than snow, if Lord, who redeemt you from the wound and bruises of your stepmother now saves you from her quill feathers, henceforth in this emerald palace, we can make merry with roses and wed with nightingales!” (pg:67)

“The Lord I worship, has not bestowed us with a child, yet his almighty is not to be despaired; He, who lets green blood flow through the veils of a dry tree is not omnipotent for something? She kneeled down, and asked”how about saying bismillah; kneading that handful flour and making a dough baby with it? Let us make it, and beg Lord to revive it...” (pg:72)

Seeing the environment, Society and the World

“As they had their fingers burnt by all the world, they even drank the water by blowing just in case.” (pg:84)

Conclusion and Recommendations

Books have assisting properties with regard to the subjects such as making the reader witness a number of lives through the books he/she reads, which he cannot experience and reach in his/her real life, they enable him/her to access new information, catharsis, making him think, recover, and get him/her to gain the ability to create solutions to his/her problems (Rainfield, 2013; cited by Öner, 2007: 134). Briefly, developmental bibliotherapy, one of the two of implementation techniques of bibliotherapy, can be defined as healing through books and constitutes the basis of this study.

Developmental bibliotherapy: It is the sort of bibliotherapy which can be used by the teacher concerned, librarians and non-experts within the school environment or libraries. As it is not carried out by experts, it is rather advisory. Developmental bibliotherapy may be benefitted in finding solutions to problems that a person may face in his/her daily life as well as to more complicated affective and behavioral problems. In addition to assisting the person to get to know himself/herself better and to find solutions to his/her problems, this technique is a beneficial and effective means of communication that can be adopted by parents to recognize and define the properties of puberty age (Öner, 2007: 140-141).

This study was conducted with the purpose of defining bibliotheraphic elements within the folk tales book called “Once Upon a Time” by Eflatun Cem GÜNEY and making recommendations to teachers and students through the findings obtained out of it. The tales book which is mentioned

here is analysed through “descriptive analysis”, which is one of the qualitative research techniques. The findings obtained are presented in tables. The folk tales book “Once Upon a Time” includes seven tales which are “The Brocaded Shoe, The Beaded Quilt, The Three Oranges, Sedef Sister, The Dough Baby, The Haunted Hand, The Golden Forelocked Boy and The Golden Haired Girl” respectively.

It stands out that the names of the fairy tales’ characters which are discussed to make a distinction between good and evil present clues about their nature. The good characters are depicted through the concepts such as “white, yellow, haji, beautiful, devine light, mother, sedef, rose, gulfidan, golden, brocade, orphan, fatherless”, while the evil ones are depicted by “black, step, giant, goblin, seven-headed giant”.

The folk tales carry similarities with regard to their topics and reinforce the elements like “despite the injustice they are exposed to, they do not give up their well-intentioned behaviours; no good deed shall remain unreturned; and they do not despair at all”.

When the messages of the tales book are evaluated in terms of bibliotheraphic elements, it is observed that the elements such as “benevolence and cooperation, recognising others and empathy, developing a more positive sense of self, perseverance, forgiveness and tolerance, not giving up hope” stand out. Moreover, it is thought that these bibliotheprahic elements, which are among our prominent values, may contribute to students’ personality developments as well. Hence it may be recommendable that teachers benefit from this folk tales book and the others as a whole during in-classroom and out-of- classroom activities.

Including the folk tales analysed, the messages within the whole tales match with bibliotheraphic elements directly, which leads to the necessity to emphasize that the “folk tale” genre does not only inculcate the pleasure of reading; but it also heals and guides.

Based on these, the following suggestions can be made:

Considering students' reading levels and personality characteristics, personal reading lists or lists particular to a group or a class can be created.

Bibliotherapy book application can be designed as an event intended to popularize reading. In this case, the book will both guide the students and will be able to improve students' reading skills.

Book and text selection is the key point for bibliotherapy application. For this reason, it is important to introduce students to the right books and texts. In particular, it is expected to benefit from the fairy tales books.

Values education and bibliotherapy are closely related areas. Just like the education of values, bibliotherapic approaches can also be delivered to the students through texts to be selected in textbooks.

It is estimated that the folk tales called “The Brocaded Shoe”, “The Beaded Quilt” and “The Three Oranges” within the folk tales book called “Once Upon a Time” may be effective in imparting significant skills which are included in Turkish Education Curriculum. Besides, these three tales are thought to be influential to the development of important skills such as “benevolence and cooperation”, “recognising others and empathy”, “developing a more positive sense of self”, “perseverance”, “communication skills”, “problem solving”.

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Challenges for Progressive Education in Afghanistan: A History of Oppression and the Rising Threat of ISIS

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Abstract

Afghanistan's public education system has been victimized by the brutal oppression of the Taliban Regime. Schools were destroyed, teachers were executed, and women were prevented from receiving an education. However, the situation has improved in recent years. Public school enrollment rates and educational access for females have substantially increased since the fall of the Taliban Regime. A resurgence of learning is happening throughout the country. Although this resurgence is welcome, it faces unique challenges. This article examines Afghanistan's history of educational oppression, describes post-Taliban educational trends, examines modern challenges facing public education, and provides recommendations for fostering a new hope for educational attainment among the citizens of Afghanistan.

Keywords: Afghanistan, Education, Rising, Oppression, ISIS

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Introduction

The modern era of reconstruction within Afghanistan has been plagued by efforts to thwart progressive advancements in education. Canadians built the Pir Mohammed School in 2005 but Taliban forces ensured its destruction. “They closed the school in 2007, breaking all the windows and furniture, booby-trapping the place, lacing the surrounding area with improvised explosive devices (IEDs), daring the Canadians to reopen it” (Klein, 2010, p. 22). Recently, militants associated with the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (often referred to as ISIS, ISIL, Daesh, IS, or the Islamic State) have begun to exert influence within Afghanistan as evidenced by the forced closing of dozens of schools (Beck, 2015). These stories are all too common within Afghanistan. Few educational systems throughout the world have experienced the severity of educational oppression seen in Afghanistan. Militant forces used violence, intimidation, murder, and radical religious interpretations to bring the educational system to a grinding halt. Schools were burnt, teachers were killed, and virtually all women were denied access to a basic education. However, an enormous resurgence of educational opportunities has emerged after the fall of the Taliban Regime. New schools are being built, literacy rates have improved, and access for women has increased. However, public education is positioned in the center of a storm of daunting challenges to include attempts for the Taliban and ISIS to secure power. To understand these challenges, some researchers have risked their lives to advocate for education within Afghanistan (Azizi, 2008; Benard, 2002; Klein, 2010; Mashriqi, 2016). This essay seeks to paint a vivid picture of Afghanistan’s public education history and explore the modern challenges facing progressive education.

The Historical Context

The 1960’s and 1970’s were the most socially progressive time period within Afghanistan’s history. Vorgetts (2002) noted that women were allowed to pursue education, vote, hold public office, and become legal equals to their male counterparts. Indeed, this era was promising for all fields of education. The leadership within the country was increasingly aware of the importance of education for modernizing the country and all levels of school enrollment were expanding. However, the sociopolitical and educational landscapes changed as a result of the Communist coup in 1978 (Glad, 2009). Afghan nationals, known as the Mujahideen, formed an armed resistance movement against the communists, fighting spread throughout much of the country, and it was largely funded by the United States. The warfare between the Soviets and the Mujahideen resulted in the collapse of the Afghan government, as well as the institutional infrastructures for public education. Some educators were executed by the Mujahideen because the educators were believed to be communist sympathizers. Schools that were suspected of disseminating communist propaganda were often set ablaze. In 1983 the Afghan Foreign Minister notified the U.N. that 50% of the schools in Afghanistan had been destroyed (Glad, 2009). The United States, satisfied with the outcome of the proxy war with the Soviet Union, turned a blind eye to the catastrophic destruction of public education within Afghanistan.

In the mid 1990’s, the Taliban regime secured control of the education sector and imposed a strict interpretation of Islamic law (Matinuddin, 1999). This effort manifested in a violent subjugation of women, especially those who wanted to pursue basic educational opportunities (Glad, 2009; Griffin, 2001; Pont, 2001; Skaine, 2002; Vorgetts, 2002). Virtually every school was affected by Taliban’s oppression with women suffering the most. The Taliban fundamentalist perspective was “premised on the clear supremacy of male over female, and education is one of the means for achieving and demonstrating that superiority” (Benard, 2002, p. 125). The Taliban rewrote basic educational curricula in an effort to focus on the Qur’an, promote their propaganda, and exclude women from the educational system. Skaine (2002) noted “one of the Taliban’s first rulings prohibited girls and women from attending school” (p. 65). Efforts of Afghan women to resist the Taliban were met with unrelenting hostility. “Among the atrocities women have experienced are abduction, rape, being sold into prostitution, taken as wives and being stoned” (Skaine, 2002, p. 85).

This oppression was not received passively. A small number of home schools for girls emerged and received support from Non-Government Organizations (NGO's) and UN agencies (Glad, 2009). Benard (2002) described an underground resistance movement known as the Revolutionary Association of the Women of Afghanistan (RAWA). Their mission was directed toward promoting education for women. The movement remained clandestine during the Taliban rule. The RAWA operated secret schools for women and promoted the transmission of literacy within the confines of their homes. In effect, these schools functioned like the Underground Railroad in the US during the Civil War. Students pursued education in great secrecy and they remained painfully aware of the potential consequences.

The oppression of the Taliban Regime took a large toll on the Afghan education system. Most of the school buildings had been ruined and many of the best qualified teachers fled the country (Ewans, 2002). Only 33% of all Afghan children were attending public school by 2001 and no girls were allowed to attend the existing schools (Ministry of Education, 2004). Most of the existing schools focused on a madrasa type of curricula in which students were indoctrinated and socialized into the Taliban belief system by exposure to propaganda.

The United States launched a military offensive in Afghanistan in 2001. This action was in response to the imminent threat posed by terrorists within the country (Woodward, 2002). The U.S. strategy has been to eradicate Al-Qaeda, dismantle the Taliban, rebuild public infrastructure systems, and provide humanitarian relief. Part of the humanitarian relief mission included building schools, providing access to education, and establishing an environment in which women can attend school without fear of reprisal (Klein, 2010). The U.S. and allied forces are using Provincial Reconstruction Teams to establish security and build schools. Substantial progress has been made in recent years because the Taliban regime has been overthrown and their political power has declined. However, the Taliban still remains a direct threat to Afghan national security and to the education system. Schools are still attacked on a regular basis. The continued violence caused hundreds of schools to close (Glad, 2009). Students remain traumatized by past acts of violence and they remain fearful of future attacks and oppression. Indeed, the decades of violence have manifested within the educational system as evidenced by high instances of mental illness, to include post-traumatic stress disorder, associated with victims of violence (Babury & Hayward, 2013). The country has been war-ravaged to the extent that educational programs have emerged to provide guidance to children on ways to properly deal with land mines (Horsley, 2015).

Post Taliban Educational Trends

Foreign aid, support from non-government organizations, and the efforts of the Ministry of Education have had a positive impact on educational opportunities in Afghanistan. "The main international aid agencies involved in the education sector in the country are Aga Khan Development Network (AKDN), BRAC, CARE, Catholic Relief Service (CRS), International Rescue Committee (IRC), Save the Children Alliance Sweden-Norway, Swedish Committee for Afghanistan and UNICEF" (Glad, 2009, p. 24). The actions of these organizations and many others have substantially increased access, enrollment, and literacy.

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) serves as the chief U.S. government organization responsible for distributing funding and providing resources for educational advancements within Afghanistan. The U.S. has used monetary funding for education as part of the overall strategy directed toward winning the hearts and minds of Afghan nationals (U.S. Army, 2009) by contributing millions of dollars in support of educational projects in Afghanistan since the fall of the Taliban regime.

Non-government organizations (NGO's) also have provided substantial educational assistance. The key to succeeding in these efforts is to garner support at the community level for any given project. It is important to bring local elders and tribal leaders onboard with projects spearheaded by outside actors. Indeed, schools that are developed with local community support are attacked less frequently when compared to their national level government-sponsored counterparts (Glad, 2009).

Grass-roots progress has also been made. The formerly clandestine RAWA is now a NGO that is promoting education openly (Brodsky, Portnoy, Scheibler, Welsh, & Talwar, 2012). The ousting of the Taliban regime allowed the RAWA to intensify their educational efforts. Benard (2002) concluded that the RAWA's modern challenge "lies in meeting the demand" (p. 50). Indeed, educational access for women has skyrocketed since the Taliban's fall from power. The Ministry of Education (MoE) did not operate schools for girls during 2001. However, 42% of all MoE schools provided access for girls by 2004 (Ministry of Education, 2004). The situation has improved in recent years but women remain disproportionately illiterate when compared to their male counterparts. The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization Institute for Statistics (2014) reported that 18% of adult women can read and write, compared to 45% for adult men.

The combined efforts of educational and humanitarian support has dramatically increased enrollment for both girls and boys. Schools under the control of the Ministry of Education have increased enrollment from 900,000 in 2001 to more than 6 million by 2008 (Glad, 2009) and efforts to increase enrollment are ongoing. The percentage of female students enrolled in primary education has also dramatically increased. The Afghan educational system is recovering with the assistance of foreign aid, support from non-government organizations, the efforts of the Ministry of Education, and through the unrelenting determination of the Afghan people.

It is important to be mindful that the Afghan educational system is under construction. Educational institutions are reemerging, expanding, and developing in the wake of the Taliban's oppression. The overarching goal of new educational initiatives is to establish basic literacy skills for the new generations of Afghan citizens. Few opportunities exist or students to engage in more comprehensive literacy studies. The Afghan system has adopted a 9-3 model. Primary education encompasses grades 1 through 9 and secondary education includes grades 10 through 12. Virtually all Afghan classes are gender segregated. Most Afghan school buildings house a broad range of grade levels. The schools within rural areas are comparable to the one-room schoolhouses that once dotted the U.S. Tents serve as school structures when buildings are not available. These remote Afghan schools often host students of every grade level within a single classroom. Although many of the educational conditions are not ideal, the overall increase in opportunities represent a progressive step forward when compared to the conditions experienced during the peak of Taliban power.

Modern Challenges for Afghan Education

Afghan students are positioned in the middle of a violent war and they are victims of outside influences. Their security is constantly threatened and they are faced with a wide array of challenges. Some of the most significant challenges include providing universal access, preventing drop outs, increasing enrollment for women, and attacks on schools. The recent emergence of ISIS also threatens the future and stability of public education in Afghanistan. These challenges warrant attention from the international community.

Providing Access

The Afghan government currently lacks the ability to provide universal access to all prospective students. Many school-aged children living in rural areas simply don't have access to any organized educational programs or facilities. Many of the existing schools do not have suitable buildings, safe drinking water, or sanitation facilities. The existing facilities are mostly available to able-bodied individuals. Educational opportunities for individuals with disabilities are virtually non-existent (Trani, Bakhshi, & Nandipati, 2012). The key factor inhibiting the growth of educational infrastructure is funding. The Afghanistan government lacks an effective tax system and the nation is largely impoverished. Internal funding is simply not available for a widespread educational reconstruction effort. However, these challenges should be considered within the broader history and context that is unique to Afghanistan. The public education system is in a state of recovery and substantial progress has been made since the fall of the Taliban Regime. Conditions cannot improve overnight but the recovery effort is on the right track.

The Dropout Phenomena

The drop out rate is a formidable problem for all levels of Afghan education. Students drop out of school for a wide variety of reasons. Some students want to pursue work, avoid attack, get married, or simply become too old to attend school. Mansory (2007) interviewed Afghan students and educators in a study focused on drop out rates. The study examined 72 schools. Fifty percent of male students and 26% of female students indicated they dropped out because they were needed for work at home (Mansory, 2007). Three percent of male students and 15% of female students indicated they dropped out due to lack of family support, early marriage, being overage, security problems, or other reasons (Mansory, 2007). It was reported that some Afghan parents, especially fathers, were still reluctant to send their daughters to school due to the social pressure and threat of violence exerted by the Taliban. Female students must typically secure permission from their fathers to attend school and such permission is subject to change at the whim of the parent. Maintaining permission from parental figures for educational endeavors can be a formidable challenge within Afghanistan's sociopolitical landscape (Glad, 2009; Mashriqi, 2016).

Many girls marry at a very early age. Afghan women can marry during the onset of puberty and most young married women do not attend school. Thus, early marriage is responsible for a portion of female dropouts (Shayan, 2015). Additionally, some students reach adulthood before completing the primary or secondary education levels. This is especially a problem for students who began primary education at an older age. Many students enter the system for the first time at a very late age. It is not uncommon for an 11-year-old student, with no prior educational experience, to enroll in first grade. This causes a substantial age variation throughout the primary and secondary grade levels.

Access for Women

Females face 2 main barriers to accessing basic educational opportunities. First, schools simply don't exist in many rural areas. Second, many of the existing schools do not allow female students to attend classes. Equal access to education between males and females is a progressive idea in modern Afghanistan. Women have been historically marginalized since the Taliban secured power and this marginalization has evolved into a social norm. However, progressive educational efforts are beginning to challenge the status quo. Most of the existing primary and secondary schools that do allow females to attend courses are geared toward establishing basic literacy skills. Indeed, only 8% of adult women can read and write, compared to 45% of adult men (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization Institute for Statistics. (2014).

It is important to consider the context of women's education in Afghanistan. A study by Brodsky, Portnoy, Scheibler, Welsh, and Talwar (2012) found the meaning associated with Afghan education is "qualitatively different from that in the United States, where, for example, children are required to attend formal classes and laws and standardized tests mandate specific content outcomes in specific subjects at specific ages" (p. 176). The industrialized educational models associated with developed nations are rarely adopted in Afghanistan and such models would not serve the needs of the people. The ages of students attending any given class or students in any given grade level will vary and public education is not directed toward building competency for future employment. Afghanistan is an impoverished nation undergoing reconstruction while simultaneously undergoing a cultural transformation of women's rights. Although little social mobility and few employment opportunities exist for women in Afghanistan, the educational opportunities afforded to women are directed toward progressive social changes. Women's education in Afghanistan is "not focused solely on individual learners or their credentials, but on the needs of the organization, society, and their vision for social change" (Brodsky, Portnoy, Scheibler, Welsh, & Talwar, 2012, p. 176). Therefore, women who participate in educational initiatives find themselves positioned on the front lines of progressive social transformation and they remain susceptible to violent attempts to thwart their progress.

Attacks on Schools

Progressive educational efforts are consistently challenged by violence against the educational system. Schools, educators, and students are attacked on a regular basis. The primary attack methods

include arson, armed assault, and the use of improvised explosive devices. “Grenades have been thrown in school windows and rockets fired at schools. Tents used for classes have been burnt down and children have been killed on their way home from school” (Glad, 2009, p. 2). Members of the Taliban or other criminal elements perpetrate these attacks. A total of 1,153 attacks were carried out against schools, educators, and students between January of 2006 and December of 2008 (Glad, 2009, p. 2). Hundreds of people have died and many others were injured as a result of these violent acts. Students facing such threats often believe that the risk of attending school is too great. This factor is responsible for many of the dropouts across the educational spectrum (Mansory, 2007). Security is a major concern for all students. However, female students have suffered the most. Girls’ schools account for 40% of all schools attacks, mixed schools account for 32% and boys’ schools account for 28% (Glad, 2009). “There are, however, less than half the number of girls’ schools than boys’ schools in the country which clearly signals a gender bias in the attacks” (Glad, 2009, p. 2).

The Rise of ISIS

ISIS has emerged as a new threat within Afghanistan and the public education system is ground-zero for radical indoctrination processes. Members of ISIS have closed a large number of schools (Beck, 2015) and established control of key areas within the Nangarhar and Kunar provinces (Quraishi, 2015). This group operates with a radical goal of apocalyptic Jihad aimed at converting all of humanity into followers of their particular brand of religion. Members of ISIS have entered Afghanistan, began to seize power, and launched aggressive recruiting efforts. They have employed a variety of tactics to facilitate their goals. Sometimes they fight the Taliban, sometimes they assassinate key leaders, and sometimes they partner with the Taliban to secure power. This situation is a disaster for progressive educational efforts within Afghanistan. History is beginning to repeat itself through the ISIS subjugation of women, education, and freedom. Armed ISIS militates have begun to operate their own schools where young children are educated on topics ranging from the principles of jihad to operating firearms (Quraishi, 2015). Such educational initiatives threaten to reverse the progress made during the last decade.

The rise of ISIS as an international terrorist organization has resulted in a multinational military response to include an array of bombing missions and special operations activities aimed at containing the threat. The series of coordinated attacks by ISIS in Paris, France on November 13, 2015 and the subsequent ISIS inspired attacks perpetrated by a married couple in San Bernardino, California on December 2, 2015 have increased the multinational resolve to combat ISIS. This resolve has the potential to affect the Afghanistan educational system in negative ways. As the public sentiment against Islamic militants grows, there is a potential for a reduced funding of educational projects. Foreign governments and non-government organizations exert considerable influence within Afghanistan. The aid from these entities has shaped the educational landscape by providing funding and material resources for rebuilding the educational infrastructure. This type of aid is welcome but it is delivered with moral, financial, and logistical support of entities outside of Afghanistan and the recent series of terrorist attacks may sway public opinion away from supporting future educational initiatives.

Recommendations for Future Research

Media outlets frequently report the progress and challenges associated with new school construction, women being allowed to attend school, and attacks on schools. However, there is a growing need for data that is more in-depth than basic media coverage. Traditional quantitative studies have been conducted with varied degrees of success. The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Culture Organization Institute for Statistics (2014) provides some data regarding the literacy rates for the Afghan population. Their data are derived largely from self-reporting by the Afghan government. However, there are some gaps in the information reported. This is due, in part, to the difficulty of gathering such data especially in rural areas and places emerged in conflict. Researchers are left with a fragmented picture with an arguably low level of statistical validity. The greatest limitation for quantitative studies is that researchers do not have a way to get randomized samples that represent the Afghan population. Quantitative approaches are best suited for developed nations because of their ability to acquire random samples through the use of telephones, email, postal

mail, and other methods. However, Afghanistan is a developing nation without the technological infrastructure in place to facilitate the robust survey sampling associated with the developed nations. The efforts to gather statistical data in Afghanistan are laudable. Even though the sampling may not represent the country as a whole, it is the best quantitative information presently available.

Given the daunting challenges associated with gathering statistically valid data, researchers can turn to qualitative and ethnographic methods to gain a better understanding of public education within Afghanistan. Research methods aimed at developing an understanding of cultural phenomena are the best tools available to provide valuable insight that can inform foreign policy decisions. Moreover, information about how Afghans want to proceed should be considered. Additional research will be needed to address these concerns. When weighing the options for research methods, ethnographic and qualitative methods are best suited for gaining an understanding of public education within Afghanistan. These types of in-depth studies are needed to better understand what has happened, what is working, and what can be improved.

Conclusions

The Taliban have historically served as an oppressive force for education in Afghanistan. They have lost political control over the country but they are vehemently trying to regain it. Terrorists associated with ISIS have also launched a campaign to secure power. This is not simply a militant struggle. It is a violent ideological struggle with the educational system caught in the crossfire. Afghan schools are attacked on a regular basis and students continue to experience oppression. The international community should continue to work with the Afghan government to establish peace and security. Substantial improvements have been made for public education and a resurgence of learning is underway. Although the current situation remains extremely volatile, the future for public education in Afghanistan can be promising if the international community works with local Afghan leaders to fund and promote education. Moreover, the act of promoting progressive educational activities in Afghanistan can be understood as a weapon to fight terrorism. Education is a transformative process and individuals who gain literacy, multicultural understanding, and critical thinking skills will be better equipped to respond to the challenges of rebuilding Afghan society.

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Application of Sociology of Education on Early Childhood Curriculum and Pedagogic Practices in Hong Kong: insight from David Riesman

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Abstract

This paper will present multiple themes that are intermingled with one another, aiming to bring an overview of sociology of education and its application in the Hong Kong situation. One of the themes concerns how sociology of education has intertwined with the socio-political aspect of Hong Kong before and after year 1997 resulting in different educational modes following the change of time. The other theme relates the social aspect of young children in school on the issue of 'loneliness' and 'friendship'. These aspects would then be exemplified and studied through the inspirational writings of David Riesman for identifying the cause of their loneliness under the sociological lens. A corresponding mode of curriculum and pedagogic practices had been identified with the different types of personalities mentioned in Riesman's book for the readers to reflect on.

Keywords: Sociology of Education, Early Childhood Education, David Riesman, Curriculum and Pedagogic practices, Hong Kong.

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Introduction

Human are social beings that require the support and companionship of others throughout their lives. The good life of man would mean he is surrounded by good friends and to enjoy their companionship. This kind of thinking is equally applicable to children of younger age. Children become aware of their social nature early in life. However, it is only until recently, sociology has paid relatively little attention to children and childhood. The socialization process begins under the guidance of teachers in school and family members at home. In Hong Kong, however, it is being observed that the prevalent practice of many pre-schools teachers are practicing “counter-social growth” direction. It is not uncommon for the author of this paper to observe that quite a number of young children in the kindergartens’ classroom were found being socially “excluded” by their fellow classmates in group play, even though their teachers have taken note of this situation.

According to the prevalent trend of early childhood education in Hong Kong, the neglect or marginalization of children in sociology is clearly related to traditional views of socialization, which relegate children to a primarily passive role. A popular theme that lends itself to social growth in early childhood education is that of friendship (Gordon & Williams-Browne, 1995). For some children, gaining friendship might be a difficult task in a traditional classroom which requires the individual to hold responsible for his [sic] own learning (Morris & Adamson, 2010). An individual in order to ensure his/her own success in studies, he/she is prepared to sacrifice his/her relationship with their peers. This practice has indicated the pragmatic advancement of one’s success in life at the expense of jeopardizing the growth of friendship among peers. These socially ‘deprived’ young children who have experienced ‘loneliness’ despite that they are staying in a crowd—in a congested big class (Riesman, 1960). In short, according to the opponents of traditional education, unhealthy competition in school is associated with the traditional mode of teaching and learning, which will inevitably prohibit healthy childhood friendship to flourish and create loneliness among young children.

In this paper, we have attempted firstly to give an account of how Sociology of Education was reflected in the education mode in Hong Kong before and after year 1997. Secondly, we explore how Sociology of Education could be applied in the realm of early childhood education in Hong Kong via the sociological lens of “loneliness” through the insights gained in Riesman, Glazer, and Denney (2001). It is hoped that with an understanding of the different types of personalities identified by David Riesman, a matching curriculum and pedagogic practices parallel to the types of personalities with its socio-philosophical origins could be visualized. Theoretically speaking, educators could apply or avoid adopting curriculum and pedagogies that would align with the specific type of personalities as their choice in practice. To achieve this end, Riesman’s masterpiece, “*The Lonely Crowd*” was explored. Before then, the concept of sociology of education and how it is related to the realm of education were discussed.

Concept of Sociology of Education

The sociology of education is the study of educational structures, processes, and practices from a sociological perspective. This means that the theories, methods and the appropriate sociological questions are used to better understand the relationship between educational institutions and society, both at the micro and macro levels (Saha, 2011).

The sociology of education is a core field within the discipline of sociology though it is also considered as part of the discipline of education. Within sociology, the sociology of education overlaps with many other subfields, such as social stratification, race and ethnicity, and religion. Because of the broad range of topics within the sociology of education, there is hardly a subfield in sociology in which it does not have something to contribute (Saha, 2011).

In the United Kingdom, the sociology of education became identified with political arithmetic and thrived in the use of surveys and statistical analyses to learn how education was related to occupational attainment and career mobility (Floud, Halsey, & Martin 1957). Some argued that the

first use of the sociology of education more closely reflected a Durkheimian approach in which education was seen in functional terms in the maintenance of social order (Saha, 2011). To this ends, the maintenance of social order is unavoidably politically and economically linked. Henceforth, to a large extent, the employment of education curriculum and pedagogy before and after the return of Hong Kong to China in 1997 is also an echo to the political and socio-economical agenda of that period.

A review on how Sociology of Education manifested its historical educational mode in Hong Kong before 1997

For nearly 150 years, Hong Kong was governed as a colony of Great Britain. Similar to all British colonies and colonies of other imperial powers in the 18th and 19th centuries, education was deployed as a means to inculcate in the locals the culture of the sovereign masters (Lau, 2012). As a paternalistic colonial ruler, the government had a lofty objective of promoting vernacular education and helping to preserve the Chinese culture. But this had to be done under the premise that in so doing, it would not become a threat to the colonial rule. As a result, education played an important but unpublished role of cultivating and training local talents who would be trusted with sharing the responsibility to govern the colony (Bray & Koo, 2004; Lau, 2012).

Morris & Adamson (2010) elucidates that with regard to the curriculum, the government took little interest until the late 1940s, when the Chinese Communist Party and the Kuomintang began to use the curriculum of schools to directly promote their political viewpoints. This resulted in the government taking a more active interest in the curriculum and a section in the Education Department was established to produce module syllabuses and textbooks. The attempt to avoid sensitive political and social issues encouraged the development of a curriculum strongly based on traditional academic subjects (Morris & Adamson, 2010). In other words, the curriculum developers had designed curriculum and pedagogy which could match with the prevalent political climate at that time. In practice, educational methods are noted for their stress on following a well-charted, but demanding course of study. Ultimately the individual is responsible for his [sic] own learning, although he is made aware of role models who have followed the same path, he is placed under the strict authority of the teacher, and he is mastering the basics in concert with numerous students throughout his country. The classroom is a potent force for combining performance with conformity (Morris & Adamson, 2010)

During the 1980s, there were some attempts to change the early childhood curriculum to a more progressive direction (Education Department, 1981). The attempted change though was unsuccessful yet was deemed as preparing Hong Kong for the smooth transition to China, as China was adopting the open policy for economic reasons decreed by Deng Xiao-ping in the late 1970's (Lau, 2005; Lau & Ho, 2010).

The situation in Hong Kong after 1997

Following Hong Kong's return to China in 1997, there has been growing interaction and communication between the two societies including academic exchanges. The rapid and progressive changes happening in Mainland China naturally and inevitably have an impact on Hong Kong's educational thinking. It is found that since the handover of Hong Kong in 1997 and up until 2015, policymaking reflects a new set of political concerns. One of the first tasks of the new SAR was to review the education system and to work out a long-term plan.

The reform proposals advocated in 1999 and 2000 stressed the building up of an education system conducive to lifelong learning and all-round development (Education Commission, 2000). Education was to provide the favorable conditions necessary for Hong Kong to become a diverse, democratic, civilized, tolerant, dynamic, and cultured cosmopolitan city (Chan & Chan, 2002). A change of the government's attitude towards education can be seen in the Consultation Document on Reform Proposals *Excel and Growth: Review of the Education System in May 2000*, which then followed by *Learning for Life, Learning through Life*, and the *Learning to learn: the way forward in curriculum development* (Education Commission, 2000). Together with the *Early Childhood*

Curriculum Guide 2006 (Education Bureau, 2006) which is to replace the 1996 version, these documents seek to launch for a change from the traditional didactic teacher-centre curriculum to a progressive child-centred balanced curriculum and is supposed to foster the “whole person” development of young children, which is a socially-based curriculum. As can be seen, the change in educational mode is a respond to match with the changing socio-economical and political climate in time.

Early childhood education was given a status for the first time in education reform, with the role of early childhood education acknowledged as the foundation for lifelong learning. The Education Commission proposed to focus the education reform of early childhood services on five main areas: reforming the monitoring mechanisms; enhancing the quality assurance mechanism; enhancing professional competence; strengthening the interface between early childhood education and primary education; and promoting parent education and participation (Chan & Chan, 2002).

Since the early childhood education reform in 2006, the humanistic ideology of child-centre has been stressed, which is a reiteration and an extension in practice of the 1996 Reform. A review of literature on the child-centre curriculum practice has shown that it focuses on the needs and growth of individual children (Morris & Adamson, 2010).

The notion of child-centre is associated with progressive education whereby firstly, there is the assumption that children are naturally predisposed to learn, grow and develop. Growth and learning occur more readily and easily when their interests and needs are supported and upheld and when they are actively and willingly engaged in the learning process. Secondly, man is by nature a social being, much of his learning occurs through social interaction, imitation and cooperation. The school should therefore be a community for learning and social growth (Barton, 2007).

Correspondingly, of the three types of curriculum design lamented by Morris & Adamson (2010), “sociology of education could be one of the types to be considered by the educators in Hong Kong for designing the curriculum and pedagogy”. Sociology of Education, to be precise, is concerned with the studies of a society and its cultures, and the curriculum if geared towards this design will enforce social interaction among young children in the classroom as its prime concern.

Nevertheless, although Hong Kong with its new SAR Government has tried to implement the humanistic-progressive child-centre curriculum and pedagogy in the early childhood education agenda, it has nevertheless not been entirely succeeded its transformational change. It is found that, “a range of methods which are difficult to categorize as wholly progressive or traditional” was used instead. In the observation of Morris & Adamson (2010, cover page), the phenomenon was owned to the “complexities of Hong Kong as a society—one that has witnessed major political and economic changes over the past 150 years. The dynamics produce an intricate interplay of innovation and conservatism, globalization and localization, liberalism and authoritarianism, devolution and centralization and many other tensions.” These inherit dilemmas, social-political and economical complexities have manifested in the curriculum, which is unique and is in different degree of ‘hybrid’ forms (Lau, 2012).

The form of hybrid curriculum has matched with Riesman’s the other-directed type and the autonomous type of personality, an area which we are going to explore in the subsequent paragraphs.

A shared ‘Loneliness’ phenomenon in the post-modern life of the Hong Kong citizens with the American citizens in Riesman’s time

King (2012) in his article lamented that “Loneliness” had been a normal part of the American landscape of dreams and reality for a long time. This is an echo of what Riesman observed in 1954 when he said, “What is feared as failure in American society is, above all, aloneness” (Riesman, 1954, p.38).

It is said that *The Lonely Crowd* had been perfect for the "age of anxiety", the decade or so after the outbreak of the cold war when the benefits of the Second World War effort materialised in individual private prosperity, but were scarcely realised in other hoped-for ways (Guardian news, author unknown, 2002). At the outset, most of the critics suggested that loneliness was seen as the yearning for satisfaction by means of material consumption in the commercialized world for most of the people at that time. Even for Irving Howe, who was Riesman's admirer, was said to read *The Lonely Crowd* as a condemnation of consumerist passivity. In order to combat the suffering of loneliness, people wish to be loved. "The other-directed personality type wants to be loved rather than esteemed; he wants not to gull or impress, let alone oppress, others but, in the current phrase, to relate to them; he seeks less a snobbish status in the eyes of others than assurance of being emotionally in tune with them (Riesman, 1960, cited in King, 2012).

Similar to the American citizens living in the post-industrial time and after the cold war---a time when consumerism flourished, people in Hong Kong were prone to live in a condition of similar circumstances---on which capitalism flourished. This was the case when the sovereignty of Hong Kong returned to the People Republic of China at a time when the latter employed the 'open-door' policy to spur economy. To keep in line with its Motherland's drive for economic advancement through industrialization and commercialization, Hong Kong had maintained its status as one of the commercialized Asian countries in the world. As everything had its pros and cons, the 'goodness' of capitalism and commercialization would have its counter effects. The problem of indulgences in material consumption had inevitably shared by the citizens both in Hong Kong since the 1980's and in the United States in the 1950s.

To go with the problem of indulgences in material consumption which manifest the pursuit of private interest rather than public interest, Riesman did show concerns over the fate of the public world. The following is a review of how Riesman attempted to tackle the issue of loneliness in both the private and public realm of human condition.

Using the three types of personalities to explain the phenomenon

For Riesman as mentioned in the *Lonely Crowd*, every developed society carried a mixture of "inner-directed", "other-directed" and "tradition-directed" individuals.

The characteristics of the "tradition-directed" type of personalities

The regime of the tradition-direction, is no match for the dynamic capitalist world, whose social forms are highly fluid and changeable, and whose mechanisms of social and moral formation must therefore be designed to equip the individual with a dramatically different kind of social character—a portable and internalized equivalent of the pervasive checks and guideposts of traditional society (McClay, 2008).

The characteristics of the "inner-directed" personality type

These men resemble a staid, hard-driving (Victorian) businessman are guided by gyroscope, a navigational device directed entirely by its own internal compass, without recourse to external referents (McClay, 2008).

The characteristics of the "other-directed" personality type

These men (who resemble an overly friendly, glad-handing salesman) are guided by a radar dish, entirely oriented to external referents, which bounces electromagnetic pulses off "others" to ascertain where the man is standing and where he should go next (McClay, 2008).

Both inner-and other-direction stood in sharp contrast to "tradition-direction," the form of social character that had been generated by older, pre-modern, static, highly inscriptive social order. Such unchanging order encountered little difficulty in transmitting the correct patterns of thought and behaviour to their members (McClay, 2008).

In Riesman's understanding, the craving for acceptance has marked the "other-directed" personality. The socio-economical background is said to be responsible for inculcating such type of personality. Riesman and his colleagues observed that, 'Population growth prompted the emphasis of one over the other types, as when the Middle Ages of stable population and little change placed traditionalists at the centre. Population surges and technological explosion, notably in the Renaissance and the 19th century, inspired the "inner-directed" to quest for fame, power, truth and beauty beyond previous definitions' and thus Un-dynamic eras, as Riesman and his colleagues interpreted the present, emphasized the psychological mechanisms of conformity, and the craving for acceptance that marked the "other-directed" personality' (Guardian news, author unknown, 2002).

According to a letter written by Hannah Arendt to David Riesman, Arendt asserted that the situation of mass-men in Europe bore similarity with the situation in America. Arendt wrote, "What struck me in your paper is that people are not (even if they say so) satisfied with respect in their community, that they want more; they want here again the impossible, they want the active approval, amounting to friendship, of exactly everybody. And, of course, make friendship impossible because of this." (King, 2012) In the observation of Riesman and Arendt, the impossibility of friendship and 'loneliness' are the bi-products of living in the modern world where everybody is heavy loaded with material consumption.

The significance of Riesman's attempts to tackle the problem of loneliness

In our understanding, Riesman, other than initiating his famous terminology of 'other-directed man', practically, did nothing more but to provoke the thoughts of the intellectual to exercise their free will so as to stay aloof from the social behaviors, say the consumerism in universities.

A review of literature of David Riesman's *The Lonely Crowd* suggested that Riesman had not much intention to provide an answer to tackle the issue of loneliness in the modern world, which was unfortunate. What he succeeded indeed was to provoke his readers to think on this issue. I would consider Riesman's approach to his readers in this issue is rather gentle, leaving much room for his readers to act upon. Having said that, a reviewer of Riesman's book like King (2012) did believe that Riesman had indeed prefer the 'other-directed' personality type, thinking that this type of people could gain social acceptance by conforming them to the mass practice in the materialistic world, thereby lessening the degree of their loneliness. King wrote, "Many of the reader of Riesman assumed that Riesman's *The Lonely Crowd* has a clear indictment of 'other direction', and thus a condemnation of the alleged conformity of American life and of the loneliness that came from the failure to achieve the approval of others".

The Other-directed personality type in Riesman's *the Lonely Crowd* is passive in action

Riesman's other-directed type is said to be passive in politics. McClay (2008) wrote that, "The other-directed type, approached political life with the attitude of a consumer rather than a producer, which meant that he tended to be passive, disengaged, or indifferent.....Indeed, in the age of other-direction, the dominant political force had become not the corporate chieftains and other highly networked elites but the increasingly powerful 'veto groups' whose main purpose in life was negative; preventing unwanted or undesirable things from happening, rather than initiating policy changes that took a more generous or ambitious view of the aims of political society."

If *The Lonely Crowd* is being interpreted in this way, then one might understand that Riesman did accept the passivity to resist change through the effort of an individual. The passive personality type in politics, however, has always longed for personal relations amidst his loneliness. This paradoxical situation captured so compelling in the title "*The Lonely Crowd*", in a crowd yet lonely--a teeming throng whose individual members nevertheless feel themselves to be helplessly alone, empty, devoid of purpose or independent meaning (McClay, 2008).

The paradoxical situation of the Other-directed type

The paradoxical situation of the other-directed type might suggest that this type of personality is perplexed by standing in the middle-of-the road situation, just as the situation mentioned by Brett and McKay (2012) before which shows the blurring of the boundaries among the three types of personalities. The fact that the three types of personalities do not have walls to separate one and the other, they can freely migrate from one type to another type is suffice to validate the mobility as 'action' already. If this argument could be established, then Riesman's other-directed type is the type of men that could effect political change (as change is associated with action which is mobile) than one would suppose he is incapable of.

Although the other-directed type is said by the critics to belong to the politically indifferent type, we do not think that they are introvert at the same time. Our observation might be confirmed by their constant yearning for social acceptance of others in society. This type of people fit well into the commercial world where their effort spent in gaining social acceptance in society becomes their norm of life. There is a need for them to gain social acceptance if they are to survive in this mode of life. On the other hand, this type of personality might feel at ease by conformity, though not in a political sense. They just want to live a comfortable life without political upheaval to disturb their peace of living in the society. No wonder it is generally accepted that merchants are usually politically indifferent. All they want is a safe and friendly environment where business could flourish in a law-abiding society.

However, on the other hand, the Other-directed type has got the potential for revolutionary action. If speaking in the contemporary societal human condition, the call for revolutionary action is made possible through the media devices. The silent nature of these devices might validate what Arendt has meant it for violence in the semiotic term. It is because by location, they are (in mass) freely come and go or doing the mix and match within the different types of personalities.

An example to quote is that through much of his career, Riesman strongly identified with civil libertarian causes, and urged students to take risks in tackling world crises. This incident might suggest that Riesman has a hidden notion of "action" carries in his book. In this point, McClay (2008) stated that, "*The Lonely Crowd* was almost universally misread as paean to inner-direction, and hence a lament upon the decline of the independent American spirit." As could be seen in the sayings just quote from McClay (2008), Riesman was not advocating the Inner-directed type but the Other-directed type instead. We suspect that the implicit intention for Riesman could be to arouse men with different personalities in the mass culture to conform the pursuit of political action. There is no wonder that an unknown author (2002) in the Guardian news once described Riesman as a liberal academic instead of a traditionally minded scholar, who is otherwise a shadow of his father.

The Monster of the Other-directed type and the fourth type of personality—The Autonomous

Riesman predicted that the other-directed type would continue to expand and become the country's dominant mechanism of social character. Perhaps what Riesman had not anticipated was the potential danger of the migration across types of personalities as he argued that societies tend to move from tradition-directed, to inner-directed, to other directed as they develop.

In today's society, other-direction represents the chief mode of conformity and pulls at us in ways that Riesman could not have imagined, especially with the advent of the social media, sites like Facebook, Whatsapps all count. An example written by Brett and McKay (2012) might provide a gist of the situation.

"In a largely other-directed society, training in etiquette is replaced with training in consumer taste. Other-directed individuals define themselves by their taste in music, food, travel, and so on, and find marginal differences between their own tastes and the tastes of others in order to differentiate themselves from their peers. Socialization among the other-directed centers on 'feeling out with skill and sensitivity the probable tastes of the others and then swapping mutual likes and dislikes to maneuver intimacy.' Did you like that movie? Have you heard of this band? Do you like this restaurant? Have you seen this funny YouTube clip?"

Brett and McKay (2012) pointed out that what Riesman had actually brought out in his book was a type of people instead of individuals. Following on this point, Brett and McKay argued that in all societies, there existed a mixture of types of people. This mixture of type is the fourth personality type mentioned by Riesman at the end of *The Lonely Crowd*. The fourth type of personality: the autonomous (see fig 1), is said to be the ideal type which Riesman strived for. Brett & McKay (2012) wrote,

“The autonomous has ‘clear cut, internalized goals,’ but unlike the inner-directed, he chooses those goals for himself; his ‘goals, and the drive toward them, are rational and no – authoritarian and not compulsive.’ He can cooperate with others like the other-directed, but ‘maintains the right of private judgment.’ He’s involved in his world, but his ‘acceptance of social and political authority’ is always conditional. Essentially, the autonomous ‘are those who on the whole are capable of conforming to the behavioral norms of their society....but are free to choose whether to conform or not.’ The autonomous stands outside and above the other types, he understands them, can reflect on them, and then can freely choose when and if to resist them or act in accordance with them. He is able to transcend his culture---by turns overruling it and joining in with it as he himself chooses in order to further his goals. The autonomous man is both idealistic and pragmatic.”

Fig. 1

Traditional-type-----→ Inner-directed type>----<---→Other-directed type

The Autonomous

The arrow running from the traditional type indicates the possibility that the traditional type of personality can turn into the inner-directed type of personality following the socio-cultural changes. On the other hand, the Inner-directed type of personalities and the other- directed type of personalities can migrate to each other’s position following the socio-cultural changes. The pointing arrows have indicated the flow of direction that the concerned types have undertaken.

The autonomous type of personality is the most mobile and flexible type of personality as the unique features of each type of personality can mix and match with each other and become the autonomous type.

Riesman was alarmed by the appearance of the anti-war movement and the related student uprisings in the mid-1960s. Joining other noted intellectuals of the cold war years, he insisted that student radicals had gone too far in their criticism of society, threatening the delicate balance of private interests and public policy (Guardian news, author unknown, 2002). The comments made by Riesman could be a critique on his own writing on the unsuitability of having no boundary for each type of personalities but allow flexibility for them to freely mix.

In such a way, we would like to argue that Riesman although seemed to have no intention for the other-directed type, who was said to be passive in politics and to [initiate action for political change], Riesman indeed showed the way how people could transgress their boundaries, without even knowing it, to initiate socio-political changes.

If viewing *The Lonely Crowd* in the above mentioned way, it bears the effects of the practice of the other-directed type have had on society for change. For Riesman, political action would be made possible for an autonomous mixing of the type of personality, which means the breaking of boundaries. “Action” is meant to be part-take by all types of people with different intelligent and of

different walks of life since different types of people are allowed to move freely across boundaries in Riesman's *The Lonely Crowd*.

In our understanding, Riesman's form of transgression is quite dangerous if coupled with the nature of action which is unpredictable and boundlessness. In Canovan's words (2000), the boundlessness of action is one of the most potentially destructive features. When an action is boundless, it has an inherent tendency to break through the limitations –such as laws and traditions. The situation would be intensified if the participants are rascals or even a mixture of them. Henceforth, action if collectively initiated for propelling political agenda would be better made by intellectuals after an exchange of brilliant ideas. It is not surprising why some educators in Hong Kong had tried to associate the incident happened in “the Umbrella Revolution” in the later half of year 2014 with the kind of curriculum and pedagogies used in Hong Kong since its reform.

Neither Riesman nor his readers wish the uprising of liberals in the seemingly peaceful commercialized societies to take place, he should have set firm the boundary for the three types of personalities in his book instead providing/suggesting the transgression of their boundaries. With an understanding of Riesman's writings on the three types of personalities, the respective matching curriculum and pedagogic modes are formulated below accordingly.

The first corresponding educational mode to Riesman's traditional type of personality

What Morris & Adamson (2010) described below is essentially the features of the traditional curriculum which corresponds to Riesman's mode of education in which the traditional-directed type of people is shaped.

Morris & Adamson (2010) wrote, “to some degree, all school curricula focus on teaching students about the aspects of their own society, including its culture, the nation's history and geography, and its young into the beliefs of a given religion (e.g. Catholicism or Islam) or of a political ideology (e.g. Nazism or Communism). The goal is to shape the views of the young so that they match those of the prevailing orthodoxy”.

Orthodoxies, by definition, believe in fixed answers to relevant questions and the task of the schools is to ensure that pupils know those answers. Pupils are not encouraged to consider alternatives. The problem with this viewpoint is that if the curriculum promotes orthodoxy uncritically then this assumes that the status quo does not require change or improvement. The primary aim is to shape the view of children so that they match the prevailing or orthodox views in society. As Eisner (1992) explained, orthodoxies were not essentially about doubts, but about certainities. Indeed, to become orthodox is to become a true believer (Morris & Adamson, 2010).

Perhaps the advocator of liberation theologian and renounced Brazilian educator Paulo Freire (1970) might well describe the features of the traditional curriculum and its pedagogy:

- (a) The teacher teaches and the students are taught [this is to assume that the teacher knows everything and the students know nothing. It is the teacher (who) thinks and the students are thought about].
- (b) The teacher talks and the students listen---meekly.
- (c) The teacher disciplines and the students are disciplined.
- (d) The teacher chooses and enforces his choice, and the students comply.
- (e) The teacher acts and the students have the illusion of acting through the action of the teacher.

Regarding the curriculum construction, it is the teacher who chooses the program content, and the students (who are not consulted) adapt to it.

This teaching pedagogy could best be represented in the highly structured, academically oriented classes as observed and being criticized in many of the kindergartens most commonly found before the educational reform in Hong Kong before the 1990s.

Aligning the teacher-directed pedagogy with the structured curriculum in a teacher-centred classroom, the teacher might be able to play a strong role in trying to induct a political ideology or to induct the young into the beliefs of a given religion [or politics] (Lau & Ho, 2013).

The second type: The aspiration of the inner-directed type in Riesman's typology and its matching curriculum and pedagogic mode

Riesman, with his background upbringing knew very well that he himself belonged to the inner-directed type of personality in that he was greatly influenced by his father's inner-directed ideal. In that sense, same as his contemporary friends did in the 19th century, Riesman did not think that genuine individualism existed in that era (McClay, 2008). In order to transit from the inner- to other-direction, so as to live fully the ideal of an autonomous person, Riesman rejected the cultural priority given to the work ethic, arguing instead that "play" was the only sphere of modern life "in which there is still room left for the would-be autonomous man to reclaim his individual character from the pervasive demands of his social character." (ibid.)

A review of literature suggests that "play" is a good tool to foster as a mode of curriculum in a democratic classroom since play itself is an action, which also involves experience (Fein, 1986). Since there is no universal consensus on play by its complexity and ambiguity, what is considered play or work really depends on the extent to which the child feels free to follow one's initial ideas or the extent to which this self is subordinated to the authority of the teacher.

Fein (1986) also highlighted the complex nature of play:

"How can something so elusive be studied? Why should an apparently aimless activity be taken seriously? Perhaps the concept of play is too global, too murky, or too encumbered by excess meaning to permit rigorous investigation."

Sutton-Smith (1997) told us the ambiguity nature of play. As far as education in early childhood education is concerned, our understanding on the ambiguity nature of play, by its boundless nature, matches well with Riesman's intention as not to set a wall against his three types of personality, namely the traditional-directed, the inner-directed and the other-directed type. In a similar vein, the paradoxical nature of play might well represent the start off point where "action" has already began its power in the process of transgression in the first three types in Riesman's classification. The full intensity of action, which gives power for action rested in Riesman's identification of the fourth type of autonomous personality. In order to materialize the democratic quest for power through education, the mode of education must be carefully designed. In Dewey's words, "democracies could be achieved through wholly democratic methods" (Gordon & Williams-Browne, 2001)--and henceforth, autonomous free play is the perfect method to foster the spirit of democracy while people are still in their tender young age.

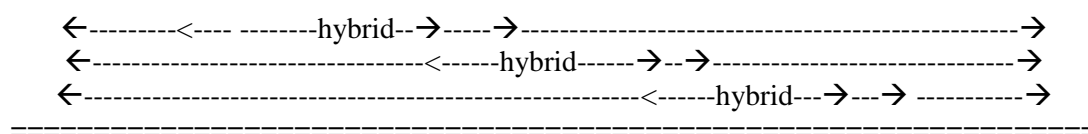
The pre-requisite for facilitating play is to ask the teacher to abandon their authority and their 'teacherly' efforts and to turn to the child as a person---an individual in his/her own right.

The third form of educational mode—the hybrid-autonomous mode

The third form of education mode refers to all the in-between modes lying in the chain of practices between the traditional and democratic mode (see fig 2)

Fig. 2 Different forms of hybrid mode

Traditional form of education	-Democratic form of education
Solitary study (Student will study alone and without interaction with peers)	Co-operative study
Didactic teaching of subject matters by the authoritative teacher	Co-operative and participatory learning through play
Teacher as authority	Share authority among peers



It is a fact that both the democratic mode and the hybrid mode do promote collaborative learning, though varying in degree for their intensity, they share the consequential ‘problem’ of showing disrespect and challenge the authority of adults.

Theoretically speaking, the hybrid mode, due to its flexibility and its boundless-mobile nature, is also accountable to causing action for a change. The hybrid mode is identified with Riesman’s mixing different types of personalities as long as they are not confined in their respective atypical type of boundaries.

The corresponding mode of education for this hybrid mode is the different combination of the traditional work curriculum and the play curriculum, allowing within which different degree of autonomy to foster action. But will action bring forth goodness to society? The question is still open to debate.

With reference to Riesman’s teaching, a corresponding form of education would be an application of Dewey’s ‘learning by doing’ as pedagogic practices in a socially constructed classroom in the hybrid classroom. At times, Vygotsky’s social constructivist form of scaffolding technique ¹ could be used as supplement to the learning by doing pedagogy.

Pedagogical recommendations for social constructivism ² (Lau, Chung & Chan, 2011) can be shown by the example below,

1. Learning should take place in authentic and real-world environments.
2. Learning should involve social negotiation and mediation.
3. Content and skills should be made relevant to the learner.
4. Content and skills should be understood within the framework of the learner’s prior knowledge.
5. Children should be assessed formatively, serving to inform future learning experiences.
6. Children should be encouraged to become self-regulatory, self-mediated, and self-aware.
7. Teachers serve primarily as guides and facilitators of learning, not instructors.
8. Teachers should provide for and encourage multiple perspectives and representations of content.

Education is based in experience and that educational institutions should therefore honor and build on children’s experience (Dewey, 1938). A socially constructed classroom is a kind of classroom which could foster the shared culture of peers and is relevant to Riesman’s other-directed type of personality. But will this kind of shared culture prepare the idealistic form of living for men?

Corsaro (2011) suggested a negative response to the question raised. It is said that universal aspect of children’s peer culture is children’s tendency to challenge adult authority. Schwartzman (1978) argued that children not only experiment with and refine aspects of the adult world in play but also used play as an ‘arena for comment and criticism’.

On the other hand, from the perspective of child's development and a socially constructed classroom under the interpretation of Sociology of Education, the challenges to adult's authority is deemed not a bad thing as some of us might have thought of. To this end, Rizzo (1989) described that, "numerous friendship disputes are commonly found in first-grade young children.....such disputes not only helped the children obtain a better understanding of what they could expect from each other as friends but also brought about interpersonal reflection, resulting in the children's development of unique insight into their own actions and roles as friends".

Children responded differently on the topic of friendship as shown in a research conducted in a Hong Kong Religious affiliated Preschool in Hong Kong

In a recent research conducted by Lau and Tai (2014), it was found that even within the topic of "friendship", young children of aged 5 were found expressing the notion differently when they were being situated in the didactic teaching whole class teaching environment or when they could express themselves freely in the pair work communicative environment. It was found that in the didactic -whole class teaching environment, children tended to echo with what the teachers had said of 'friendship' should be like, such as good friend would be treated as if she is another self, who would help each other and forgive each others for their wrongs. On the other hand, when young children were left to express their own idea on friendship in the pair work activity, their idea on friendship would become more pragmatic, say one would hesitate to continue her friendship with a good friend or to continue paying a visit to her friend's home if her friend has removed the 'kitchen toys' which she likes to play on. The child, therefore, in order to secure her friendship with her good friend, would never remove the kitchen toys from her home. The researcher thus realized that young children if not taught by the teacher, would prefer to build their friendship bond on materialistic things. It seems to echo with what Riesman had trying to say in the materialistic world. People would try to avoid loneliness by making friends with people through the material means. However, if friendship is built on material things and not on genuine love, it will fall prey to a relativity situation.

Question to ponder

Just as there are moral relativists who think that there are no universal moral facts, so there are epistemic relativists who think that there are no universal epistemic facts, those facts about what belief is justified by a given item of evidence can vary from community to community (Boghossian, 2007), the living human condition will turn to a chaos. Similarly, when the society is formed by a different combination of autonomous person, it is anticipated that the society will become a chaos due to their different degree of relativism. One might refer to the following quotation for an explanation of the situation.

Lau, Chung and Chan (2011) wrote,

"When knowledge is accepted as being socially constructed, and as knowledge is produced collaboratively by members of a social group, it will turn out that different social groups might have different social needs and interests. (The situation will account for relativism to take place)."

Play in this sense could be the means and ends in an action, though the means and ends in action³ is said to be intermingled and interchanged. Action is praxis.⁴ It is just like the 'autonomous type—the fourth type' which is a mixture of types and its combination is flexible. Henceforth, together with the indefinite boundary among the three types of personalities, the boundless nature of the fourth type is increasingly responsible for causing relativism in the human affairs.

Having said that, we remain optimistic about the condition of human in this era. This is based on our belief that despite that there is inevitably depressing condition in human life, there is the presence of the enigma which will fix things right again.

After all, authors like Brett & McKay (2012) did suggest that the other-direction was not necessarily a bad thing. The point is rather that we need to understand its pull so that instead of

letting it dominate our life, we are able to transcend and rise above it. Only by understanding something, can we free ourselves from it. Then, from this position of freedom and autonomy, we are able to choose when to conform on our terms and when to resist. Education is never neutral, as Karl Marx and Paulo Freire have said so, with an understanding of the implications of the curriculum and pedagogies one might have used, one could have the freedom to adopt a curriculum and its aligned pedagogies that could match with one's upheld ideological ideals. After all, the choice is always rested with the judgements of the practitioners in the modern times (Gasset, 1996).

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Endnote:

1. The meaning of Scaffolding and its techniques

The concept of scaffolding was popularized by Bruner (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976) and is grounded in the developmental theories of Vygotsky (1978), who proposed that adult guidance could help children to develop higher psychological functioning. Ideally, scaffolding should take place in a convivial, collaborative environment, where children's contributions are accepted as worthy of consideration and where their understanding is frequently assessed.

A scaffold is a support, such as the temporary framework that supports workers during the construction of a building. As it relates to intelligent behaviour, scaffolding refers to the supportive situations adults create to help children extend current skills and knowledge to a higher level of competence (Rogoff, 1990). It is support at the edge of a child's competence. The ultimate role of teachers as facilitators is to allow the children to question and to think for themselves. It is important to hold back from correcting children's statements, however tempting it may be. The key thing about the process of dialogue through questioning is that children are allowed to develop thinking strategies for complex questions.

A teacher who stops by a children's desk to ask questions to determine her progress, and then provides hints, subtle suggestions, and guidance to move the children along, is using instructional scaffolding. Scaffolding means providing support to allow a child to think for him or herself. The more advanced partner, or scaffolder, is supportive without being overly directive. A good scaffolder looks for the point where a child can go it alone, and allows the individual to proceed on his or her own initiative.

The understanding of teachers to employ the 'genuine' questioning skills to scaffold children so as to push for depth of thinking is important. Teacher must ensure herself that instead of applying the untimely direct interruption while the children are at play, she has to facilitate children's learning through play.

As the child grows in competence, there is a gradual withdrawal of support, and the child takes on more responsibility for completing the task. As children differ in their understanding of the nature of things, teacher who scaffolds children in a whole class classroom organization (in a small class teaching environment with children of around 7 to 15) must ensure that every single opinion of different children must be valued. In a **social constructivist** classroom where teacher is scaffolding the whole class simultaneously, she must be attentive to the different opinion given by each children and then to facilitate the inter-change of ideas among the children. The decision derived ultimately and is supported by the majority is then accepted as the norm of practice in the **social constructivist** classroom. In the process, the teacher should not exert her pre-set outcome of learning and by no means fostering it onto the young children. The teacher, as does her young children, could equally express her opinion in the joint process of learning.

2. Theory of social constructivism

Constructivism is a theory of learning that has roots in both philosophy and psychology. Ordinarily, to say that something is constructed is to say that it was not there simply to be found or discovered, but rather that it was built, brought into being by some person's intentional activity at a given point in time. Henceforth, when it is said that something was socially constructed is to add that it was built by a society, by a group of people organized in a particular way, with particular values, interests and needs (Boghossian, 2007). In this way, the essential core of constructivism is that learners actively construct their own knowledge and meaning from their experiences (Fosnot, 1996; Steffe & Gale, 1995).

The principle of Social constructivism maintains the social nature of knowledge, and the belief that knowledge is the result of social interaction and semiotic usage, and thus is a shared, rather than an individual, experience (Prawatt & Floden, 1994).

A typical social construction claim will involve not merely the claim that a particular fact was built by a social group, but that it was constructed in a way that reflects their contingent needs and interests, so that had they not had those needs and interests they might well not have constructed that fact (Boghossian, 2007, p.17-18). Social

construction theory is different from the Kantian radical root construction theory (c.f. in page five). According to Immanuel Kant, the world we experience is constructed by our minds to obey certain fundamental laws, among them the laws of geometry and arithmetic. But Kant did not think we were free to do otherwise. On the contrary, he thought that any conscious mind was constrained to construct a world which obeys these laws (Kant, 1929, cited in Boghossian, 2007, p.59)

3. Means and ends of action in play

In a strictly utilitarian world (like the case in Riesman's other-directed world and Arendt's dissolution in the realm of labor and work), all ends are bound to be of a short duration and to be transformed into means for some further ends (153-154) [due to its mobile nature]. Although Arendt wrote in *The Human Condition* to refer this means and ends notion under the boundary of labor and work, I would think that the unending means and ends chain could refer to the realm of action or whenever there is a break of boundary among the typology of labor, work and action. This 'unending chain of means and ends' (154) erodes the supposedly firm boundary between labor and work, infusing work with a vicious circularity that mimics the natural circularity of biological life (Arendt, 1958).

4. The meaning of Praxis

Praxis is concerned with a different kind of end, the ethical action. The end or telos of praxis is not an end in the usual sense at all, but some morally worthwhile good that cannot be determined in advance, but must be discovered in particular contexts and situations. Praxis involves acting appropriately to lead a good life, meshing ends and means since the 'discernment of the 'good' that constitutes its ends is inseparable from a discernment of its mode of expression (Carr, 1987, p.169). Arendt's analysis of Nazism and Stalinism leads her to re-conceive Aristotelian praxis as 'action', which is aimed at different purposes and has different characteristics from labour and work (Coulter, 2011, p.198).

The determinants of the types of selves in relation to foreign language teachers

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Abstract

In the field of Modern Higher Education, the background of teachers as native or non-native speakers of the language they teach is of major concern in the field of teacher education. First things first, in teacher education each teacher has an ideal self of her or his own as non-native English-speaking teachers of English, as a second or foreign language, or English as an additional language. Teachers perceive differences between their teaching [styles/approaches] and how this perception influences the teaching behavior and attitudes of the non-native speaking teachers matters a lot. The question is: Should they develop and enhance rather than merely maintain in a static self their proficiency level? This question is also related with the self of the foreign language teacher. A foreign language teacher should never say this: “As a non-native teacher, I can never truly master the target language.” Conversely, a non-native foreign language teacher should not articulate the following statement, which is contrary to professional self: “I have near-native proficiency, but I can’t aspire to mastery of the language.” All of this boils down to mean that the teacher has weak professional self which indicates the immatured self-fulfillment in efficiency in the target language.

Keywords: Determinant, Ideal Self, Ought-To Self, Feared Teacher Self, Professional Self

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Introduction

The place of nonnative speakers as teachers of English has always been a controversial issue from the moment English language began to be taught as a foreign language, second language, an additional language, and in second language acquisition. By nature, the field of foreign language teaching is a sensitive area because by being both teachers and learners of the same subject, we are necessarily driven into a constant state of schizophrenia (Medgyes, 1983:1). In the field of teacher training, what exactly should the role of native-speaking teachers be? What about the role of non-native teachers? Should there be a difference at all? There are some types of foreign language teachers possessing different selves while teaching foreign languages. The selves of foreign language teachers inevitably influence their teaching methods and techniques in all of their foreign language teaching careers.

In addition to the self types of non-native teachers, there are self types of languages themselves. To begin with, as indicated by **Acoustic Phonetics**, there is a physical self of any language, which is composed of sounds in forms of sound waves, words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. In addition, it is a well-known fact that, as denoted by the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, different cultures structure the world differently, and that these divergences are necessarily reflected in their linguistic systems (Medgyes, 1983:4). Any language has a physical mathematical nature; its speech is transmission of language expressions, long or short, by sound waves in air.

According to **Acoustic Theory of Speech Perception** (Stevens, 2000), language sounds, which are measured by means of Hertz (Hz), occupy a wide band of frequencies between a few hundred and some thousands of hertz. Language is physical in form of sound waves and a product of the physical and social nature of humans with the speed, rhythm, and tone of voice. Speech sounds carry acoustic-phonetic qualities whose emphasis is tied up to voice quality as an index to biological, psychological and social characteristics of the speakers.

The perception of the sounds of some languages in relation to some sort of beauty contest of languages, as aggressive, hard, soft, beautiful, vivid, ugly, mellifluousness, decent, terrible, whiny, obnoxious, elegant, harmonious, sophisticated, stilted, poetic, masculine, feminine, romantic, and/or aesthetic in quality is purely and entirely subjective, and presumptuous. Such adjectives point to learned attributive behavior of speakers that has physically to do very little with the acoustics of the language. It is true to say that languages that, articulatorily speaking, harbor guttural, pharyngeal, and laryngeal sounds in relation places and manners of articulation with phono-acoustic superiority, do sound harsh and hard. Such languages run a greater risk of sounding less pleasant to many speakers of other languages, who do not have these sound in their languages. By concentrating purely on sound and intonational backgrounds, some languages are labeled as harsh, soft, and musical. German, Polish and Russian are described as harsh languages, compared to French or Italian. Italian and Spanish are labeled as a musical language. Arabic and Hebrew sound pretty hard and unyielding. In terms of accents, languages are classified as hard and soft. Soft accent languages are English, French, Latin, Portuguese, Chinese, Hindi, Hebrew, Portuguese, Korean, Finnish, Turkish, Romanian, Estonian, Thai, Laotian, Tibetan, Cambodian, Guarani, and Quechua. Hard accent languages are Bulgarian, Czech, Slovak, Serbo-Croatian, Ukrainian, Russian, German, Dutch/Afrikaans, Gaelic, Japanese, Spanish, Italian Scandinavian (Swedish, Jewish, Norwegian, Danish, Icelandic), Slovenian, and Welsh.

Review of literature

Most of the ideas mentioned here belong to foreign language education in the fields of EFL, ESL, EAL, and SLA. The other side of the medallion is the education of non-native speaking teachers as language teachers about which very few ideas and points are formulated.

Llurda, E. (2004) and Cook (2005) mention the supremacy of the native speakers in the fields of ELT, EFL; EAL, and SLA. The “native speaker fallacy” introduced the concept that (Phillipson,

1992, 1996) native speakers were ideal teachers. Sommers (2005) stressed the point that native English speakers taught more effectively as they are better at four language abilities. In addition, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) found that native English speakers are perceived to be more accurate in pronunciation and intonation, totally fluent in conversational and connected speech. Medgyes (2001) admitted that they are more innovative in teaching English as a foreign language. Sommers (2005) defended the ideas on the supremacy of skills of native speaker teachers on oral skills, fluency, meaning and colloquial English.

Specification of the determinants of self types of non-native teachers rests on their common qualities with native and non-native teachers. Previous studies and research on teachers' attitudes toward their selves yielded mixed results. Medgyes (1983, 1992) has explored the features of non-native speaking teachers. Coppieters (1987) analyzed the competence difference between native and near-native speakers. Paikeday (1985) researched to unearth whether the native speaker issue is dead or not in the teaching profession. Medgyes (1992) looked into the matter to find out the worth of Native or non-native foreign language teachers. Reves and Medgyes (1994) described the non-native English speaking EFL/ESL teacher's self-image. Horwitz (1996) investigated the anxiety experienced by nonnative foreign language teachers and a group of teacher trainees so as to determine how non-native can influence the teaching/learning process. Liu (1999) worked on the impact of non-native ESL professionals on their students. Árvá and Medgyes (2000) analyzed this issue in relation to teachers in the classroom. Matsuda and Matsuda (2001) related this topic to autonomy and collaboration in teacher education.

Maum (2002) investigated it in terms of non-native-English-speaking teachers in the English teaching profession. Paikday (2003) claims that the concept of native speaker is dead. But native speakers are often limited to their own local dialects and accents, and may not be fully competent and aware of vocational and international usages. Demirezen (2008a) unearthed the types of identity problems. Kohler (2015) stressed their type as mediators in the foreign language classroom. Cook (2003) asserted that it is impossible for an L2 user to become a native speaker.

Related theories on self in relation to foreign language teachers

Teachers have a multiplicity of self-states. They are also students in the foreign language teaching profession (Medgyes, 1983) because they still learn new information every day. One of the theories of Selves is **Possible Selves Theory**, which is an extension of Self-Concept Theory. The special contribution of Possible Selves theory is its focus on the motivational power of students' views, opinions, and professional targets of themselves in the future. Students' views of the selves that they would hope to become, fear they will become, and expect to become can be powerful motivators for present school behavior. As Markus and Nurius (1986: 954) indicate:

"Possible selves are the ideal selves that we would very much like to become. They are also the selves that we could become and are afraid of becoming. The possible selves that are hoped for might include the successful self, the creative self, the rich self, the thin self, or the loved and admired self; whereas, the dreaded possible selves could be the alone self, the depressed self, the incompetent self, the alcoholic self, the unemployed self, or the bag lady self."

It must be stressed that the self is one of the most complex issues of psychology, one of the most longstanding puzzles of human psychology. Self-theory is a personality theory that uses one's self-concept in connection to personality. **Self-Concept Theory** lies in the background of self, originated by Rene Descartes first and later promoted by Sigmund Freud. Self-Concept Theory holds the totality of our beliefs, preferences, and opinions in our personal existence, designed by ourselves in connection to our social lives. It denotes how we see and think of ourselves in different situations to adjust our behaviors so as to act out our various life and professional roles. We tend to let go of the things, beliefs, and ideas that are not congruent to our self-concept and world view. We hold on to those which are beneficial for us in building a more favorable perception of our personal, social, and professional existence.

The **ideal self**, being a deeply personal image, includes components of education in the family and at school, what s/he admires in others and her/his targeted future plans (Dörnyei 2005; 2013; Rowe & Sikes (1989); Higgins, et al. (1994). The ideal self might be someone who excels in the science of foreign language teaching subjects, who spends a lot of time studying and researching on these issues so as to be a model foreign language teacher. If the real self is far from the idealized and targeted image that is planned for yourself, then you might feel dissatisfied with your life, can be a burnout in your job, leading to consider yourself a failure. Self-actualization brings in a state of congruence. The closer our self-image and ideal self are to each other, the more consistent or congruent we are and the higher our sense of self-worth (Rogers, 1961). Therefore, there are multi-leveled intimate relationships between self-image, ego-ideal and self-esteem. If there is a mismatch between one's self image and her/his ideal self, then this is likely to affect how much s/he values her/his self. Ideal self represents hopes and wishes. The ideal self guides us to pay attention to cues for achievement and successful goal pursuit. This is what Higgins labels a "promotion focus" (Higgins, 2012).

If the real or **ideal self** of someone is properly aligned with the way of personality, then a feeling of a sense of mental well-being or peace of mind emerges. To achieve self-actualization brings in a state of congruence. Any incongruence, or lack of alignment, will result in personality problems, mental distress, and anxiety in life and job affairs. The greater the level of incongruence between the ideal self or real self, the greater the level of resulting incongruences in almost every aspect of life, from job possibilities to plans for the future, comes up. The **Self-Discrepancy Theory**, which was developed by Higgins (1989), provides a platform to understand different types of discrepancies between representations of the self emotional discomforts and vulnerabilities (Higgins, 1989; Boldero et al, 2005: 139; Phillips, 2005: 703; Hardin and Lakin, 2009: 245). In real self, everyone wants to adjust his/her life and themselves and their family in a way that is aligned with their plans, dreams and aspirations. The difference between the actual and ideal self can cause feelings of fear, dejection, anxiety, sadness, frustration, and shame. Our sense of ideal self is also shaped deeply by others.

The **ought-to self** as a concept points to what qualities the teachers ought to possess in connection to national, social and cultural obligations, responsibilities, or morals. **The ought-self**, which boils down to mean what others want us to be or to achieve, is determined through obligation and sense of duty. Ought self is our understanding of what others want us to be or what we ought to be and do in life (Higgins, 1989, 2012). It is the green-eyed monster of our ideal self because it may require impossible demands and ideals. Ideal self and ought self act as self guides or standards with which the actual self aspires to be aligned. Ought-to self denotes that the actual attributes of a person should meet the expectations of the ones which they ought to possess (Higgins et al., 1994). In contrast to ideal self, the "prevention focus" is defined by ought self to which we pay attention in order to avoid harm, which is also true of the motivational properties of the undesired self. We work to avoid this self via the prevention focus (Higgins, 1989). In the field teacher training, the possession of faulty pronunciation and intonation of non-native teachers of English come in right at this stage because the emotions associated with this ought to self discrepancy, namely agitation, dissatisfaction, fear, procrastination, guilt, burnout, anger, resentment, frustration, and anxiety, may create anomalies in the job of teachers. This means that their ought selves are far off from their real and ideal selves. The weight of ought self in developing their teaching job in terms of professional pronunciation and intonation in teacher education is what is expected of them. What they ought to be doing does not mean what they're actually doing.

Living the life of ought-to self may be physically and emotionally exhausting due to emerging discrepancies that could be a cause of a lot of depressed emotions. **The experience of discrepancy** from an ought-to-self incites a negative effect, which is highly unpleasant; therefore, individuals generally want to avoid it. Higgins et al. (1994) found that individuals concerned with ought selves tend to use avoidance strategies in the process of self-regulation.

So, **ought-to-self** refers to the attributes of a teacher believes s/he ought to possess, in terms of using the foreign language (Dörnyei 2005, 2013). So this self type relates to someone else's

demands and vision, institution, organization, worth ethics or Ministry of Education, with regard to a learner's foreign language usage and teaching job. Academically, ought-self is how we perceive what other people, or administrators, or academic ethics, head colleagues, superintendents, inspectors, and administrators, want us to be, which pushes us officially to be the best we can be in our field. Professionally speaking, ought self isn't something completely unattainable.

Feared foreign language teacher self

In the feared foreign language teacher self, there are many lurking problems. Non-native teachers of English invariably feel unsafe about using the language they have to teach (Megyes, 1983: 1). Primarily, there are big gaps in the vocational training of non-native foreign language teachers. Their worst fears relating to their selves are worries, intimidation, anxiety, irritation, guilt, frustration, burnout, etc., which all lead to a shattered self-confidence. A harrowing sense of guilt gives them **Schizophrenia** (Megyes, 1983: 5; Merino, 1997: 69-79). Schizophrenia, which is a mental illness, occurs when the parts of the brain that control emotion and sensation stop working properly. Affected people may have difficulty deciding what is real and what is not, as mostly is the case of non-native speaking teachers with their shattered selves. In addition, they also fear that once their students have access to English spoken by native-speakers, they will no longer appreciate their teachers' strongly accented variant (Megyes, 1983: 3).

For these teachers of English there are conflicts between a teacher role, L1 identity, and the desire to be at least near native-like, being conscious of their limitations. Their focus on pronunciation and intonation towards at least being native-like in terms of accuracy, fluency and in mutual intelligibility are not their first priorities. Since there is a deep-seated trauma stemming from a sense of being a non-native speaker, lurking anywhere in their ideal, ought to, and professional selves, most non-native speaking teachers of English have split personalities (Megyes, 1983). This type of self, which also exposes **foreign accent syndrome**, a talent-bending fear, can create a subtle level of tension at work, at home, in social and vocational relations, because such teachers have a fear of not being understood by native speakers, non-native speakers, and other colleagues, whom they dread to running into. Their faulty pronunciation and intonation are their weakest sides and require additional self-regulation. The non-native teacher's shattered self-confidence must be restored. Otherwise, teachers having a feared language self will definitely be harmful to their students because such teachers might mitigate already existing skills of students.

In the case of careers, Self-theory states that people may become more adaptable if they focus on their short-term rather than long-term decisions. Hence, ought-self may be further developed via lifelong learning. Non-native speaking teachers should not give up hope; still they can get rid of the feared self by means of further experience and education in teaching. According to Dweck & Molden, (2006: 192-203), if they apply a self-theory of malleability (my personal qualities can be changed) rather than fixedness, the mastery of profession can be a final destination. Non-native teachers via professional self-improvement will conceive of their selves as patterns of normalized and improved professional behavior through time. So, non-native speaking teachers can have evolved selves, beginning with a feared self to ideal or real self, then to ought-to self, and then move towards a professional self within self-continuity across time.

Medgyes (1983) points out those non-native speaking teachers usually feel unsafe using the target language they have to teach. Similarly, Kachru and Nelson (1992: 71-102) point out, non-native speakers of English have a fear of linguistic insecurity that provokes a prescriptive and intolerant attitude. Due to fear and intense worries, they tend to adopt two kinds of attitudes: They mask their fears in pessimistic or aggressive attitudes in their foreign language classes; it is as if they teach in a climate of fear. Medgyes (1983) and Selinker (1972) believe that a non-native speaker's competence is limited, and that only a reduced group can reach near-native speaker's competence.

The fear of failure begins in non-native teachers when they fear that they will make mistakes and errors of pronunciation intonation, being unable to produce the near native-like pitch patterns of intonation that give their speech strong overtones of *foreigner talk* in vocabulary as well as grammar. As Widdowson (1992:333-339) states, no one can learn a language without learning its grammar.

Similarly, according to Kachru (1982), non-native teachers of English have fears in linguistic insecurity in terms of vocabulary, semantics, and pragmatics that provoke a prescriptive and intolerant attitude in classroom management. Such a conduct calls in a bad personality and a neurotic personality. Many fears will persist due to the attacks of attentive students, which makes the situation worse and worse. The cost of fear is catastrophic, in that students lose respect for foreign language teachers, who then lose respect for the students. In the meantime, due to fear acting as a great corrupter, foreign language learning and teaching lose their potency: This is how fear works; turning the non-native teachers into teaching victims, totally influencing their teaching skills. Fear of being evaluated by principals, administrators, superintendents, inspectors and native speakers, appear to be the causes of stress, anxiety, and feelings of job insecurity

There is a fear of fight or confrontation in the self and personality of the non-native teachers. The feared teacher self puts the non-native speaking teachers in a default zone by giving into the fear, in which there's no growing or changing into any better. Sometimes, their fears frustrate them by giving them a deep sense of guilt. Even though they are able to be self-aware about their fears or can identify them, they persist: This is the dilemma. Although it can be so uncomfortable, fears can be their best teachers after some years of careful teaching experience.

Another cause of fear comes from the inadequate use of technological developments. Many non-natives are reluctant to use technology out of the fear of what lurks on the Internet. In many countries students know more than teachers about computer technology. As a teacher, the primary goal of native or non-native teachers of English is to use technology to supplement the foreign language learning process. The use of computers and Internet technology is part of the natural learning process. Teachers must seek out appropriate software applications and insert technology in the classroom where it enhances student learning and facilitates foreign language teaching.

Teachers, due to loss of confidence because of their foreign-language originated fears, lose joy of teaching and may enter into a burnout period which can harm personality variables. Foreign language teachers coming to work every day with fear in their bellies, who thus teach in fear? This is unthinkable. Many of the reasons cited above may make the foreign language teaching profession seem intimidating to non-native speaking teachers, but it remains one of the most rewarding professions to aspire to.

Professional language teacher self

Professional language teacher self, which is directly opposite of feared foreign language teacher self, answers the question, "What does it mean to be a professional teacher?" and points to crucial types of competencies while performing the foreign language teaching profession effectively. It is the core of the profession. To begin with, student teachers undergo an official training, and then complete the obligatory vocational educational part. This is just academic or theoretical knowledge and is not enough, and Wallace (1991: 58) calls such professional capability "initial competence," which must be used as a touchstone for further development of professional competence via experiential knowledge connected to teaching activities, along with skills that are based on that knowledge and can thus be developed through practice and reflection in accordance with teachers' personal qualities. All of these ideas boil down to mean that native teachers are not worth more than non-natives, but only non-natives with near-native proficiency and fluency are not harmful to the students in the language teaching profession.

So teachers generally do what they are trained to do, which may not be sufficient in the forthcoming years. Hence, they must renew themselves and pursue professional development. If they continue with their practice in accent neutralization, tonal quality, differentiation in American, Canadian, Australian, and British English, voice modulation, pitch and tone training, they will enhance their perspective on the different facets of the language and the cultural nuances attached to the language they teach. Such will give them a great sense of achievement in assisting them to eradicate their accented speech. An efficient knowledge and practice of target language as a foreign language for the non-native speaking teacher is an indispensable condition of professionalism.

Model teachers and self-relations: Native or non-native teachers?

It goes without saying that the most appropriate teaching models come from teachers who have English as a native language. However, it can be claimed that being a native speaker is no guarantee of being a good foreign language teacher simply because a native speaker is by nature, merely alleged, to be the best person to teach his/her foreign language. This prejudiced assumption leaves little room for non-native teachers as foreign language teachers. Referring to a native-speaker myth (Phillips on, 1992; Pakir, 1999), many non-native English-speaking educators, administrators, superintendents, inspectors, experts of the national education ministries, teachers on-the-job and learners today still prefer a “native speaker” model with unaccented English. This sort of preference is only true for teacher training programs wherein professionally-oriented training of students majoring in teaching English as a foreign language take place. A foreign language teacher with an unaccented model is not highly viewed much in EFL, ESL and SLA because such a distinction is not accepted by TESOL (2006) issue:

For decades there has been a long-standing fallacy in the field of English language teaching that native English speakers are the preferred teachers because they are perceived to speak “unaccented” English, understand and use idiomatic expressions fluently, and completely navigate the culture of at least one English-dominant society, and thus they will make better English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers than nonnative English speakers. As a result, nonnative English-speaking educators have found themselves often implicitly, and sometimes explicitly, discriminated against in hiring practices or in receiving working assignments in the field of teaching ESL or EFL. (<http://www.tesol.org/docs/pdf/5889.pdf?sfvrsn=2>, retrieved in 02 September, 2015).

Generally, native speaking teachers seem to be inherently better suited for training of non-native students as prospective teachers. Around the world today, the native speaker authority is still common and the native speaker teacher model has serious impacts on foreign language teaching policies and teacher education in the world (Jenkins, 2005; Philipson, 1992). According to Foley, (2007), there is still a strong tendency to view native-speaker teachers as the sole and authentically-oriented authority in relation to appropriate use of the English language in teacher education. The issue of using more native speaking educators is more rampant in foreign language teacher education. But native speakers are often limited to their own local dialect and may not be aware of international usages. Brutt-Griffler & Samimy (2001), Piller (2002), Kirkpatrick (2010), Modiano (1999), Leung et al. (1997); and Rampton (1990) argue that phonologically proficient non-native speakers may be more intelligible and better models for L2 learners than a native English speaker who speaks a local variety of English with a strong regional accent. It matters not if the teacher is native or non-native because all teachers must possess “professional competence,” which Wallace (1991:58) sees as “a moving target or a horizon, towards which professionals travel all their professional life but which is never finally attained”. So, no native foreign language and professional foreign language teacher is perfect.

Foreign language proficiency skills among non-teachers vary greatly, and more often than not, they are far from proficient. It must be borne in mind that there are “failed natives” (Cook, 1999: 196) in being a native foreign language teacher. This type requires not an ordinary non-native teacher of English but a teaching professional which necessitates professional credentials attendant to the ability to speak a standard dialect of English and the ability to teach English, both of which require a professional foreign language teacher self. Professional foreign language teacher is what Jenkins calls (2007: 129) “expert speaker of English.” It is safe to say that non-native teachers of English must, by definition, be proficient, expert, and very successful in teaching English as a foreign language. For these teachers of English there is no conflict between a teacher role and L1 identity. They have no fears whatsoever, and there is no conflict between a teacher role and external pressure to conform to a native speaker model and their own L1 identities since they are driven by the desire to be native-like.

Conclusion

Feared language teacher self directly entails ideal self and ought-to self. Feared teacher self is not a wanted self type, but is commonly encountered in the non-native speaking teachers of the world, including Turkish teachers of English. There are strong links between the teacher's sense of fear and teacher evaluation by administrative authority in terms of focus of control, which comes up as a potential moderator of the relationship between teacher role fear and work outcomes. Feared teacher self makes the teachers low-achieving teachers. Controlling fear requires identifying its sources. Feared teacher self houses two major fears: internally-oriented and externally-oriented fears, mainly giving them anxiety, stress, and dread, which seriously harm their aspirations.

In internally-oriented fear, non-native teachers' acquire their educational background in pursuit of their BA, MA, or PhD studies. But teachers should not be left to sink or swim on their own. Teachers continuous professional development in language proficiency, command of subject matter knowledge, sharing of knowledge and good practices with others, and dissemination of teaching strategies and skills will be contributions to teachers 'professional development while they are on the job. There should not be a characterization of teaching as a semi-profession in their foreign language teaching.

In externally-oriented fear, there are teachers' fears of being evaluated by administrators, principals, head of the schools, etc. Teachers say they fear what might happen to them when the principal visits certain classrooms, illustrating the fear of consequences of evaluation results. The psychological uncertainty of fear caused by evaluation is an upsetting emotion that is marked by apprehensiveness, isolation, and discouragement about the future, fear of uncertainties, fearing the consequences of evaluation results, and fearing to endanger professional status, which may be harmful to teacher satisfaction. It must be noted that fair and effective teacher evaluation systems would provide for both teacher accountability and teacher personal growth (Stronge and Ostrander, 1997: 1-2). Topping the list of fears in the profession is the threat of job security by the feared self of the non-native teachers.

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An Art Educator's Journey of Becoming a Researcher: A Self-Reflective Auto-Ethnography of Identity Construction and Personal Growth

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Abstract

In this self-reflective auto-ethnographic research, the author shares her experiences of introspection, change and professional growth as an art educator in an international context. Auto-ethnography is an approach to qualitative inquiry in which the researcher employs self-reflection to explore her personal experiences and connect these auto-biographical experiences to wider socio-cultural and political issues in society. This study recollects stories of the author's personal journey as an Austrian art educator in the United States from a critical pedagogy perspective. Thereby, these stories present personalized narratives of moments of vulnerability, and the challenges of transforming traditional understandings of research and teaching into critical and participatory art pedagogies and practices. This self-reflective approach provides the author an opportunity to speak from the inside out as a researcher and educator having experienced a deeper understanding of "self" and to explore the changes that taken place in her activities along her journey of challenging the status quo in teaching and doing research.

Keywords: Auto-ethnography, identity construction, self-reflection, art education, critical pedagogy, participatory art

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Introduction: The Self as a Subject of Study

This auto-ethnographic research based on a self-reflective critical approach is concerned with my identities as teacher and researcher. Thereby, it shares various accounts that do not essentially result into a complete biography. It rather is a collection of narratives and significant stories that are one way of exploring the self through meta-narratives of community and historical context (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). These short stories describe some of my processes of identity construction and personal growth of being and becoming an art educator and researcher. I use the term *identity* to refer to our understanding of who we are and what we want to become. Many aspects of our identity, our “selves,” play an important role in developing our understanding of who we are: race, class, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, profession, age, etc (Eryaman, 2007; 2008). Which part becomes a significant attribute of our identity depends on the historical and socio-cultural context (McNamara, 1997). In this particular study, I am concerned with parts of our identities that are related to art, education, research and culture. Drawing on poststructuralist theories, especially Weedon (1987) and Norton Peirce (1995) conceptualized “the individual as diverse, contradictory, and dynamic; multiple rather than unitary, decentered rather than centered” (p. 15). For Norton, socio-cultural identity is not something that belongs to a person but emerges out of the individual’s interaction with the cultural context. In addition to the concept of identity in the field of art education, my understanding of identity is also informed by the perspective stemming from the fields of sociology and anthropology that have much to say about issues of identity: A self-reflective auto-ethnography. A key philosophical concept behind auto-ethnography is that individuals experience their lives and identities in narrative form (Bruner, 1987, 1990; MacIntyre, 1981; Polkinghorne, 1988).

Two aspects of self-reflective auto-ethnography as a medium of identity are particularly important in the context of this study. What attracts me about a self-reflective view of identity above all is that it allows us to think of identity in flux: “Viewing the self as a narrative or story, rather than as a substance, brings to light the temporal and developmental dimension of human existence” (Polkinghorne, 1991, p. 135). The plot of one’s life story is in constant change as new and unexpected events occur that transform our perception of past events in a new self understanding (Linde, 1993). Another important aspect of auto-ethnography is that it conveys the narrator’s own voice. First-person narratives present learners’ perspectives—their side of the story.

In summary, in this study I take the position that identities of educational researchers are multiple, hybrid, and changing. Although I expect educational researchers to be subject to ideologies and power relations that constrain the range of identities available to them, I believe that within these constraints, and sometimes against these constraints, the individuals exercise agency to choose where and how they position themselves among multiple cultures and languages. What I am looking for here are my self-identity narratives that reflect the ways in which I negotiate my agency to choose where and how I position themselves within various communities and reconcile my multiple interactions with languages and cultures. Next, I describe the methodological process in which I reconstructed my identity narratives.

Auto-ethnography as a Research Method

Auto-ethnography is an approach to qualitative inquiry in which the researcher is the subject of the inquiry and the narratives of her experiences are the data source (Ellis & Bochner, 2000). The epistemological framework for this auto-ethnographic study centers around the literature on teacher-researcher identity construction as it relates to the identity theory. Diaries, reflective journals, and self-recordings serve as supplementary data sources to turn stories into thickly described research narratives.

Auto-ethnography aims to provide alternative perspectives to the reader and researcher in understanding the process of identity formation (Barone & Eisner, 1997; Bochner & Ellis, 2002). Ellis & Bochner (2000) further argue that “an autobiographical genre of writing and research displays multiple layers of consciousness, connecting the personal to cultural” (p. 739). Auto-ethnography is a

way of self-understanding that encourages the researcher unpack her story in order to connect it to wider socio-cultural and political issues in society (Ellis, 2004). As the researcher looks backward, she expands her horizon to map a future direction.

This study recollects the stories of my personal journey as an Austrian art educator in the United States from a socio-cultural and critical perspective. These stories present my personalized narratives of moments of vulnerability, and the challenges that I faced to transform the traditional understandings of research and teaching into critical and participatory art pedagogies and practices. This self-reflective standpoint provides me with an opportunity to speak from the inside out as a researcher and educator having experienced a deeper understanding of “self”.

From My-Self to Multiple Selves: Leaving my Comfort Zone as an Educator in New York City

Over a decade ago, I left Vienna with a recently acquired master’s degree as a secondary school art teacher from the Academy of Fine Arts Vienna. During the last few weeks of anxiously writing my master’s thesis, I spotted a job advertising in the *New York Times*, a compelling-sounding call to adventure: “Make a Difference,” it said; “Teach New York.” In addition to my fascination for New York City, I saw this American opportunity as a way to deepen my knowledge and understanding of social, political and cultural contexts that influence education in another country. Therefore, in 2001, I accepted a fine arts teaching position in a public high school in Brooklyn. I arrived in the United States with just two pieces of luggage, stuffed with the essentials to embark on my new life with. As a new university graduate, I also arrived with a somewhat naive concept of what I perceived as right and wrong in educational theory and practice. I had a vague idea of what my epistemology was, though I would soon realize that very little I had learned seemed to support my concepts of knowledge construction in my new surroundings.

My first disorienting experience of the United States’ sense of identity enwrapped me almost immediately. Besides a sensation of relief as though I had shed my past and who I had been before by leaving all my material goods behind, this new situation quickly resulted in some bewilderment. The fragmentation of identity that I experienced, was determined by “the absence of navigational principles” (Rogoff, 2000, p. 3). Losing my sense of belonging, I found the wave of American patriotism following September 2001 overwhelming; never before had I seen a nationwide display of flags in every possible spot or encountered phrases like “united we stand” or “these colors don’t run” as Americans expressed pride in being American. How had my sense of national identity developed as I grew to adulthood in Austria?

Simultaneously, the next entanglement occurred in the classroom. I started teaching (in a language not my own) at high school two weeks after my arrival. My students came from Russia, Poland, Ukraine, China, Brazil, Mexico, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Iran, Croatia, Puerto Rico, Jamaica, and the Dominican Republic. There were also Italian American students from the school’s immediate neighbourhood, and African Americans from other districts in Brooklyn. I had never taught students from such diverse racial, ethnic, and social class groups. Additionally, many emotional encounters within my classroom setting triggered by the tragic events of 9/11 and the tensions around my students’ socio cultural differences became apparent.

Ignoring some students’ biting remarks during class made me complicit with the seemingly everyday discriminating attitudes. However, at this point, I was not able to reasonably use my authority without silencing my students’ voices. After all those years in art school, I began to doubt that teaching was the right profession for me. Disconnected from my students’ reality, had I just had some romantic ideas about being a cultural ambassador from the old world? I felt an urgent need to learn how to remain ahead of my students, so I could be prepared enough to anticipate some of the disputes my students and I were facing.

Several times a week my assistant principal, a confident veteran teacher of over twenty years, and I reflected on my students' experiences and assessed the relationship between methods I used in the classroom and the preferred learning and interaction styles in my students' communities. These conversations soon revealed my self-protective split of personhood from practice. In an attempt to reduce my vulnerability and conceal my confusion, I wore my brave face and nicely play-acted my teacher's part. To move beyond some of those earlier paralyzing moments and as a way to clarify my thinking, my mentor also encouraged me to write a journal on this daunting journey, questioning my own practice and particularly paying attention "not only to what is included in a world view but also what is left out and silenced" (Giroux, 1984, p. 35). Re-reading my entries was painful, but at the same time let me gain self-knowledge which ultimately was crucial for developing my identity as teacher. Within the safe space of this trusting relationship, I increasingly examined my attitudes toward other ethno cultural groups. I was not looking for any immediate solutions, but my mentor carefully taught me the dynamics of prejudice and racism and model-taught through his everyday practice how to address them in the classroom. I knew my subject—although in a rather modernist way—but I did not know my students. Whose culture and knowledge was I conveying? As a young white female, who practiced a pedagogical model that was dismissed largely by my students, I gradually learned to renegotiate my understanding of power in everyday life in school. After an unsettling beginning, it first was frustrating to acknowledge that my Austrian, Eurocentric art curriculum revolved around me instead of making my students' multiple cultures central to the class and more importantly, and thereby legitimizing the knowledge and experiences these teenagers brought to school. I learned first hand what learning in collaboration meant as we—with my mentor and with my students—exchanged experiences and opinions that were essential to enrich our understanding of otherness and to embrace collective creativity. It was years later that I came to realize how formative these events were on my cultural and professional identity as educator and more importantly, as a person, accepting the otherness in myself.

Reflecting on my Early Austrian Self: Remembering and Forgetting

In 2006, the restitution of Gustav Klimt's portrait *Adele Bloch-Bauer I* (1907) caused a public outcry in Austria. By that time, I was living in Illinois and could only listen to my Austrian friends' sentimental telephone accounts of bidding farewell to the *Golden Adele* (as the painting is also known in Austria), baffled at the bonds that even people who rarely visit museums seemingly had developed with Klimt's artwork. On the Adele's last day of public display in Vienna, the Belvedere Museum faced an unexpected stampede of over 4,000 visitors ("Ansturm auf Klimt-Bilder," 2006). In general, art seemingly plays a somewhat marginal role in the lives of many. Like the countless monuments, multifaceted buildings, landscapes, streets, and artwork of Vienna is not always consciously looked at; it is simply there and taken for granted. However, as in this case, when an artwork disappears, it arouses greater interest. This incident raised an important question in my mind: What shapes the basis of Austrian cultural identity with its troubled past (Riedler, 2012)? The Austrian Wunderkind Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756-1791) figures prominently in international as well as national ideas about Austria. However, at no point in his life was "Mozart considered Austrian in a contemporary sense" (Wagner, 1991, p. 19): geographically, in Mozart's day, his birthplace, Salzburg, was part of Germany not Austria. Nonetheless, in an attempt to emphasize a continuous linear progression of national history, Austrians adopted him. In fact, it is remarkable how many Austrians of the past who are celebrated today, do not actually fit the profile of the typical Austrian, whether geographically or ideologically. For instance, Prince Eugene of Savoy (1663-1736), lauded in Austrian songs as 'the noble knight' and revered as an Austrian hero (who defeat the Muslim Ottomans, which ultimately turned him into a saviour and protector of Christianity), could hardly speak German let alone write it. And yet in one particular way he can be conceived of as typical of the capital's inhabitants: "with his 256 traceable ancestors (ranging from Spanish to Bulgarian and from Czech to Italian), he was the noble apotheosis" of an "intricately intertwined" European citizen (Brook-Shepherd, 1996, p. 22). Indeed, beyond Klimt and Mozart, Austria's past was so much richer than today's small republic seemingly reflects. As a result, it is difficult to agree on a "uniting Austrian myth" without any contradictions or suppressions (Bruckmüller, 2003, p. 11). In general, as a teenager, I considered myself lucky to be part of such a culture-rich country, an accolade with which most Austrians would

agree—and an attribute it has in common with many other nations. (Bruckmüller, 2003). I had never questioned my sense of cultural identity until I lived in New York City.

Opening New Doors

Through learning more about myself as a teacher, gaining insights about myself, and investigating these connections with my personal growth, I have also found an increasing interest in many additional activities outside my school context in Manhattan. I took advantage of every opportunity to learn more about contemporary art practices in New York City's innovative art scene, galleries, non-profit art organizations, and its fascinating museums. Following a brief internship, I became an associate educator with the adult interpretive programs at the Solomon R. Guggenheim Museum in Manhattan. Acquainting myself with international museum education literature, I devoured John Falk and Lynn Dierking's (2000) explanations of the nature and process of learning within the museum context, George Hein's (1998) model of the constructivist museum, Eilean Hooper-Greenhill's (1999) collection of articles on the relationships of museums and galleries to their audiences, Lisa Roberts' (1997) descriptions of museum educators' activist role in effecting fundamental changes in exhibit planning and development, and Nicholas Serota's (2000) account of the changing attitudes regarding how works are presented in museums of modern art. Again, it was vigilant colleagues who shared their personal involvement and nurtured my development through questions and conversations on the re-evaluation of existing definitions of art, and thereby took me in the "right" directions of a more vital, interactive art context with its antispectatorial character.

At this point of my growth as an educator, the defining factor of cooperative art and participatory activism of creating a relationship with the public domain was most insightful, as the artistic, experiential process of that social art form serves "to engage at least a portion of its audience at the core of its own experience, and at the same time to extend that experience" (Lippard, 1984, p. 38). John Dewey's progressive education and understanding of art is likewise social: he rejects the notion of an artwork as isolated and existing outside the flow of social life and contemporary context (1934). "Neither should art be segregated in museums away from the everyday life, nor is the aesthetic sphere limited to fine art" (Finkelpearl, 2013, p. 345). In feminist writer's Suzanne Lacy's *Mapping the Terrain: New Genre Public Art* (1995), authors (among them Lucy Lippard, Arlene Raven, Suzi Gablik and Guillermo Gomez-Pena) espouse continuity and responsibility through community-based public art works, collaborative practices among artists and their audiences, and the engagement of multiple audiences through empathy and appreciation—also common traits of school settings (formal learning sites versus informal learning) that participate in social change endeavors, as I began to realize.

As part of the adult education program, I was involved in coordinating the Guggenheim internship program that is international in scope and known for offering a college-level museum studies seminar as one of its components. For these weekly daylong seminars interns met with museum staff to discuss current topics related to museums and with many other active actors of the New York art world. Most memorable were the studio visits with New York based artists.

In fall 2002, we visited Marina Abramović's truly transformative *House with the Ocean View* installation at a Chelsea Gallery (Kelly & Iles, 2004). For twelve days she lived in full view on a shelf in the gallery. Abramović showered, drank water, sat on a toilet, brushed her hair, but mostly sat and looked at the people who came to see her living installation. She was fasting for the duration and said later that this increased her sensitivity and connection to the audience (Anderson, 2003, ¶ 5). When we went to see her there I experienced a powerful wordless and spiritual encounter. Spirituality was not something I would have expected in a New York art gallery.

Through examples of his earlier performance work, Vito Acconci emphasized dismissing traditional art conventions and hierarchies, and how this process eventually led him to re-envision both interior and public spaces and collaboratively develop installations and architectural pieces (also as part of urban renewal projects), like the interactive sculpture *Murinsel* in Graz (Austria) which is a

floating platform for concerts, theatre performance and a Café in the middle of the Mur river. What stood out to me was, in examining the role of the artist, how fervently Acconci pointed out the interdisciplinary collaborative effort of his studio that works best with a mix of thinkers, gender, nationalities, and age groups.

Explaining the intriguing project and intervention *Volksboutique*, Christine Hill shared her understanding of art making to be more about closely paying attention to and realignment of existing things and related processes (www.volksboutique.org). *Volksboutique* began as a thrift store and sculptural installation in Berlin in the 1990s. Visitors would come to her underground shop, drank tea as they looked at cheap clothes. People basically congregated to discuss topics ranging from identity and self-presentation to the effect of tourism on the neighbourhood (Berger & Steiner, 2003). Christine Hill pointed viewers' attention to specific objects and events in life that risk being overlooked as being too quotidian or too common clothes. Therefore, in a larger frame *Volksboutique* is about examining concepts of value in our culture and re-investing discarded appurtenances with meaning and use (Interview with Christine Hill, 2007, ¶ 2).

Rick Lowe, founder of *Project Row Houses* (<http://projectrowhouses.org>), talked about his understanding of art, referring to participatory projects that display a strong sociological and political bent, often in an effort to draw attention to social ills and conditions and ultimately incite empowerment or change in a community (Miranda, 2014, ¶ 6). In 1993, Rick Lowe renovated a series of nearly two dozen shotgun houses in a depressed area of Houston, making them suitable for tenancy again (Finkelpearl, 2000). *Project Row Houses* can also be viewed through its cultural elements, without even encompassing it as a whole at first. It is a public art program, an artist residency program, a program for young, single women, an architectural restoration and preservation project, a community program, to just name a few (Maloney, 2015, ¶ 7). *Project Row Houses* is practical and symbolic at once: it offers affordable housing and a community centre but also a place of empowerment for and *from* the community. Rick Lowe frames his work within Joseph Beuys's notion of social sculpture and his idea that every person is an artist. Therefore, *Project Row Houses* could also be described as shaping and moulding community into a sculptural form, a social sculpture that lives and breathes through the people within its walls.

When thinking about the process of engaging audiences in various public sites or use public art as an instrument of change, the following guiding questions are vital: Who does it connect? How does it connect them? What makes this a unique experience for those involved? Moving along the blurred lines of art and education as exemplified in the cases above, I gradually connected similarities between the processes and emancipatory social relations of participatory art and education, and that in fact standard constructivist "educational practices, such as active engagement with audiences, inquiry-based methods, collaborative dialogues, and hands-on activities provide an ideal framework for process-based and collaborative art projects" and conceptual practices (Helguera, 2011, p. xi).

Moreover, in addition to the practical and theoretical experience collected during my Guggenheim employment, I also encountered parts of Austria's recent past. Quite a few times I visited the Neue Galerie New York, a museum devoted to German and Austrian art which opened in 2001 on Manhattan's museum mile. The second-floor galleries, dedicated to Viennese art from around 1900 display works by, among others, Gustav Klimt (1862–1918), Egon Schiele (1890–1918), Oskar Kokoschka (1886–1980), Richard Gerstl (1883–1908), and Alfred Kubin (1877–1959). Despite having seen these artists' works on display in Vienna, I was astonished by the deep sense of attachment so many New Yorkers had formed to the Viennese culture of the 1900s. The founders of the Neue Galerie, Ronald Lauder and Serge Sabarsky, have attempted to recover Jewish-owned art that was looted by the Nazi government. Through new acquaintances and their Jewish Austrian heritage, I faced aspects of Austria's past that have often been difficult for many contemporary Austrians to acknowledge; most particularly, the "golden days of Vienna that ended with World War I, that war and its aftermath, and the Hitler years" (Zweig, 1943).

Farther downtown, I witnessed yet another New York City venue that has rekindled interest in Austrian art—the Austrian Cultural Forum, which opened in 2002 and is run by the Austria’s Foreign Ministry. Because Austrian artists like Mozart and Klimt are obviously well represented in mainstream American cultural institutions, the forum’s mission is to focus on later twentieth and twenty-first century culture. Yet the distinctive steel and glass masterpiece of architect Raimund Abraham (1933-2010) became the subject of prolonged debate among Austrian government officials in what amounted to a referendum on national identity: “For a cultural showcase abroad, should Austria project an image of reassurance, an architectural equivalent of Old World charm, or ally itself with the astringent side of the Viennese soul?” (Muschamp, 2002, ¶ 2). Most certainly, the director of the Austrian Cultural Forum Christoph Thun-Hohenstein explained that one goal of this institution “was to expunge the ‘Sound of Music,’ dirndls, and Mozartkugeln image of Austria from the public mind, or at least to supplement that image with contemporary Austrian culture” (Midgette, 2007, ¶ 10). For my fellow native friends and me, this was a place to meet contemporary Austrian artists from the fields of literature, visual arts, music, architecture, and film. It was an attractive place where, as we liked to see it, the young Austrians of New York reconnected with “home.” Associated with this notion of home, however, resurfaced the questions of “Who am I and where do I come from?” (Boylan, 1990, p. 29), for, as Crooke (2001) pointed out, “important to knowing yourself is knowing your history” (Crooke, 2001, p. 119). According to Boylan, institutions like museums play a culturally significant role in answering such fundamental psychological questions. Thus, through my encounters at the Neue Galerie and Austrian Cultural Forum, I came to see that the memorabilia and artefacts in museum collections comprise an essential starting point in the process of discovering identities.

A Practitioner’s Transition to an Academic Researcher Becoming

As I realized over time, my deeply rewarding work experience both in the United States and in Europe, became the solid ground of my academic life, supporting it in concrete ways, shaping it in practical ways and grounding it in an essential way. At that point in my life in New York, however, I noticed the changes of thinking and came to recognize the need for a comprehensive understanding of research methods, curriculum theories, and philosophy in education. Therefore, my return to scholarly research facilitated by doctoral studies at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign as a Fulbright Fellow was motivated by my desire to become a better practitioner fuelled by a deep passion for learning and growth. These two selves, my practitioner self and my researcher self, evolved hand in hand, one informing the other.

During my studies at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, in-depth work on Critical Museum Theory and Practice led me to explore the evolution and cultural function of museums and challenged my understanding of museums and galleries. Through a series of detailed case studies, I investigated how nineteenth and twentieth century museums, fairs, and exhibitions organized both their collections and their visitors. Issues tackled in some of my papers ranged from the ideological underpinnings of collections and displays to the purposes of objects and exhibitions, from the types of people that visit museums to what these people expect. The most fundamental question I asked—what is the purpose of museums?—has become more pressing with changing museum contexts (Riedler, 2010). In 2006, this new knowledge of cultural institutions became of immediate value to me as I followed the debates about Klimt’s *Golden Adele*, the once important centrepiece of the Belvedere collection.

In fall 2005, after a long and difficult court case, the Austrian government finally returned five paintings by Gustav Klimt, among them *Adele Bloch-Bauer I* (1907), to Maria Altmann (1916-2011), the heir of the Bloch-Bauer family who had originally owned them and which had lost them to the Nazis during the Holocaust. However, the Austrian government had the opportunity to buy them back from the rightful owner but cut off negotiations with Maria Altmann at an early stage and failed to purchase the five paintings. “Austria is not aware of what it loses,” art historian Arthur Rosenauer warned the restitution committee (“Klimt: Bilder werden am Montag abgehängt,” 2006), explaining in another interview that “these paintings are patrimony for our republic, just like Velazquez’s *Meninas* for Spain and Rembrandt’s *Night Watch* for the Netherlands” (“Adele, ade!” 2006). In early 2006, the

paintings were taken to Los Angeles, after which, in June 2006, *Adele Bloch-Bauer I* was sold for the record sum of 135 million U.S. dollars to Ronald Lauder's Neue Galerie in New York City, which is often referred to as a bridge between Europe and the United States. Austria's icon of cultural identity had been lost, Adele, "Austria's Mona Lisa," became the centrepiece of Lauder's collection ("Adele, ade!" 2006). The public debates about the repatriation of art confiscated by the Nazis that had found its way into state museums revived questions about Austria's national identity and cultural values. Given that Klimt and other contemporaries were supported by the Austrian Jewry who were forcefully expelled or eliminated, it is unclear "in what way, or even whether, this part of the Austrian heritage really belongs to the current Austrian nation" (Beller, 2006, p. 313). It also raises the question "What is Austrian about Austrian [art and] culture?" (Beller, 2002, p. 25), a query that has remained with me ever since. Recognizing the symbolic role of museums in expressing identity gave me insight into possibilities for my dissertation research on controversies over national heritage.

My endeavors were further encouraged through in-depth study of critical theory and critical pedagogy. I recognized how underrepresented cultures can be made visible in a museum that provides multiple contact points at which different histories, languages, experiences, and voices intermingle with diverse power relationships (Riedler, 2009). At the same time, another professor's perspective on the politics of knowledge and culture pushed me to think outside the box. As part of an Action Research project, I engaged in a collaborative inquiry group with local classroom teachers, and following Dr. Noffke's advice I also dug up my own journal notes which my mentor and critical friend in Brooklyn so fervently urged me to jot down that still provide me with opportunities to reconsider my own positions and ideas. Susan Noffke's exemplary commitment to challenging oppression, and through analyzing my own practice, my struggle as a classroom teacher as well as challenging my traditional art concepts in multicultural New York City, by borrowing her lenses I was slowly able to establish "real live connections" versus gaining knowledge from or producing knowledge for books only. I was able to make sense of my time in New York—both in Brooklyn and later as a museum educator with the Guggenheim—and understand power and privilege, its relation to social justice, and how access to societal resources impacts all of us in our lives and in our classrooms. Another issue here was of moving from consumer of knowledge to producer, and developing an identity and confidence as a writer (and not just a reader). In this transition phase, Sue was a good listener, a challenging conversation partner, and she was able to understand others by their own terms. I came to see that my overall guiding questions, both in my role as educator and researcher, can be described by what Jordan and Weedon (1995) term cultural politics:

Whose culture shall be the official one and whose shall be subordinated? What cultures shall be regarded as worthy of display and which shall be hidden? Whose history shall be remembered and whose marginalized? What images of social life shall be projected and which shall be marginalized? What voices shall be heard on what basis? How can marginalized and oppressed people be empowered to change their social position? (Jordan & Weedon, p. 4)

Conclusion

A self-reflective auto-ethnographic inquiry has been the tool that has helped me understand my story in the broader context of identity formation, constructivist teaching and learning, and participatory art and activism. As I began writing this paper and therefore reliving my stories as an international educator and graduate student in the United States who more recently became a researcher and teacher educator in Turkey, I recognize the many strong and elusive threads of history, life stories and research that finally resulted in a sometimes loosely assembled and sometimes tightly woven fabric of where I find myself today: Questioning the official hegemonic agenda, I wrestle with my role in relation to others. Now the challenge is to untie the strands of this newly developed identity so that I can collaboratively, with my Turkish students, learn of what is involved in the process of becoming a good art teacher for constructing their identities and empowering their voices in and across social and cultural contexts.

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ICT Integration of Turkish Teachers: An Analysis within TPACK-Practical Modelⁱ

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Abstract

The aim of the study is to analyze Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) integration of Turkish teachers using various variables within the context of Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK). These variables were indicated as the gender of teachers, the implementation status of FATİH project at their schools, school types that the teachers were commissioned at, and their years of seniority. The study was conducted using causal-comparative design, one of the non-empirical quantitative research methods. TPACK-Practical Scale was utilized as data collection tool in the study. The data were collected from 296 teachers serving at Ministry of Education state schools. The analysis of the data was conducted using descriptive statistics, independent samples t-test, and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Findings of the study demonstrated that teachers scored the highest mean points in Curriculum Design, while the mean scores for Infusing ICT to assess students was the lowest. Furthermore, while there was no significant difference between the total mean scores of females and males, a significant difference was observed between the teachers that serve at schools where FATİH project was implemented and the teachers that serve at schools where FATİH project was not implemented, and between the teachers that serve in different types of schools.

Key words: Technology integration, ICT, Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge, teacher efficiencies, FATİH Project

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Introduction

Nowadays, the developments in the Information Communication Technologies (ICT) are accelerated and its usage areas in education are increasing. The role of the teachers, who are actively involved in the teaching process, on the process of technology integration in education is very important. The topics mainly investigated by educational researchers are; the capabilities that teachers should own and the effects of the developments in ICT on the capabilities of the teachers. Teacher evaluation is much more difficult than student evaluation because teachers' instructional knowledge is dynamic, contextualized, and personal (Jen, Yeh, Hsu, Wu and Chen, 2016). These researches are focused on various models. In this context, the models are grouped under two fundamental approaches, technology focused or pedagogy focused; technology focused models concentrates on teachers' knowledge and skills acquisition for the use of technology, whereas pedagogy focused models addresses the integration of teachers' technology usage with pedagogic knowledge in the education process. Koehler and Mishra (2005) pointed that the recent researches featuring this issue tend to move from technology focused models to pedagogy focused models. The foremost pedagogy focused model about the integration of technology in education is Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) model (Koehler and Mishra, 2009).

Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK)

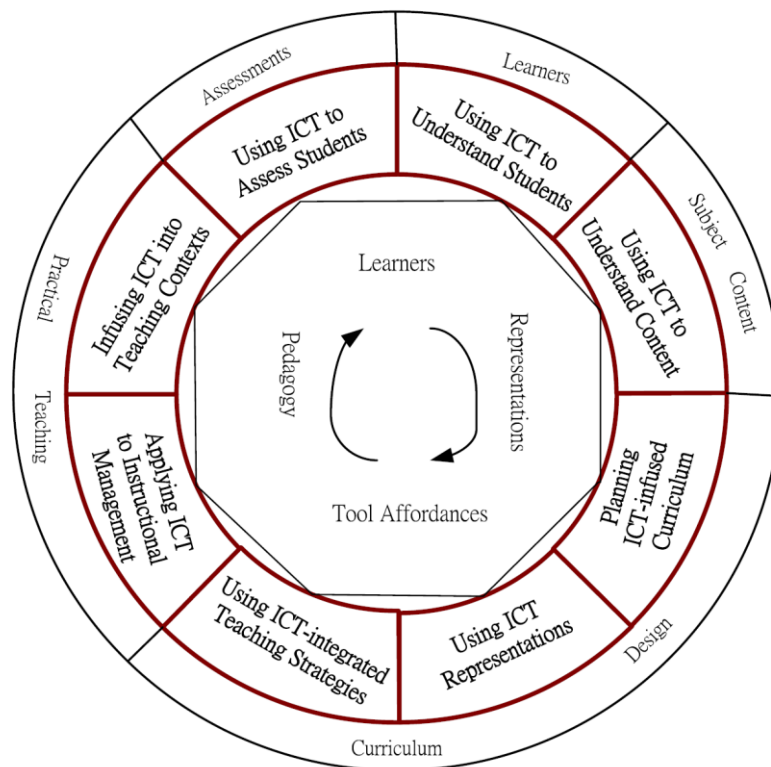
The TPACK model has taken its final shape by integrating the 'Technology' dimension with Pedagogical Content Knowledge [PCK], which is a model that features the necessary characteristics that teachers should have (Koehler & Mishra 2005). The following are components of TPACK; (i) technology, which comprises technical knowledge about equipment about technological tools, including tools such as computers, the internet, video, measuring devices, and e-books; (ii) pedagogy, which considers teaching methods, strategies, and models and consists of subdomains that include how students learn, how to use classroom management skills, course planning and effective student assessment; and (iii) content knowledge, including subject area knowledge, which varies according to grade level and discipline, and all of the theories and ideas of the concepts belonging to this discipline. Pedagogical Content Knowledge [PCK] is the combination of knowledge and pedagogy and involves the presentation of the content area via interactions with pedagogical issues; i.e., the selection of appropriate teaching approaches, methods and techniques. Technological Content Knowledge [TCK] is the combination of technology and content and refers to the use of technology that is more appropriate for representing the subject and content of a particular discipline. Technological Pedagogical Knowledge [TPK] is the combination of technology and pedagogy and considers the effects of technology usage on learning in the teaching process. TPACK addresses the three different skills of technology, pedagogy and content together rather than considering them independently. TPACK involves the presentation of the subject area for effective teaching within the framework of pedagogical approaches in environments that involve the use of technology (Angeli & Valanides, 2009; Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Ay, Karadağ & Acat, 2015)

TPACK-Practical Model

The TPACK models have evolved from different perspectives in the literature and tackle knowledge and skill dimensions independent of teaching experience and performance. From this perspective, the TPACK- Practical model is a model that considers the teaching process as the basis upon which Practical knowledge (teaching experience) and TPACK skills work together. The consideration of TPACK and the teaching process together is important in terms of the skills used through the process and the consideration of the interaction between these two processes in addition to providing immediate feedback. Specifically, it should not be ignored that the processes requiring different technologies, such as the recognition of students, planning, design, and evaluation, require different TPACK skills. According to Yeh, Hsu, Wu, Hwang and Lin (2013), the TPACK skills of teacher candidates are not the same as those of experienced teachers. Thus, teaching processes and outcomes are affected by the interaction of possessed knowledge and skills with teaching experience. The TPACK-Practical model (see Fig. 1) consists of eight knowledge dimensions from five pedagogical areas. These pedagogical areas include the following: (i) learners, (ii) subject content, (iii) curriculum design, (iv) practical teaching, and (v) assessments. The knowledge dimensions

belonging to these areas are the following: (i) using ICT to understand students, (ii) using ICT to understand subject content, (iii) planning ICT-infused curricula, (iv) using ICT representations, (v) using ICT-integrated teaching strategies, (vi) applying ICT to instructional management, (vii) infusing ICT into teaching contexts, and (viii) using ICT to assess students (Yeh et al., 2013, Ay, Karadağ & Acat, 2015).

Figure 1: *The framework of the TPACK-Practical model.*



The acceptance and implementation of a new technology is very similar to the process of accepting an innovation. According to Rogers (2003), based on the research conducted on individuals and communities, investigations of adaptation to an innovation and the process of acceptance for different persons are of great importance. Today, where the pace of technological developments is increasing, many studies are conducted on teachers' technology adaptation and their effective usage of technological devices (Doering Veletsianos Scharber and Miller 2009; Abbit 2011; Graham 2011; Lee and Kim 2014).

In Turkey, the most important project implemented within the context of technology integration in education is "Movement of Enhancing Opportunities and Improving Technology", known as FATİH project. FATİH project is one of the most important steps, targeting the effective use of technology by the teachers and students by allowing the technology integration in education. The project, which aims the realization of Information Communication Technologies (ICT) supported instruction by providing the required substructure to the classrooms, consists of five main components, namely; (i) providing equipment and software substructure, (ii) providing educational e-content and management of e-content, (iii) effective usage of ICT in education programs, (iv) in-service training of the teachers, and (v) conscious, reliable, manageable and measurable ICT Usage.

FATİH project has serious goals such as: (i) providing LCD Interactive Boards and internet substructure to 570.000 classrooms in elementary and middle education enabling efficient use of ICT tools in the learning-teaching processes by appealing to more sensory organs, in order to enable equal opportunities in education and to improve technology in the schools; (ii) providing a tablet PC to each teacher and student; (iii) providing in-service training to the teachers in order to ensure effective usage of ICT equipment in the classrooms in the learning- teaching process; and (iv) the adaptation of

education programs to ICT supported instruction and the formation of educational e-contents within this transformation process Ministry of Education (2013).

Today, a need is apparent for tangible Practicals that describe the existing conditions in the process of technological integration and the identification of the factors that affect the integration process. Because, description and framing of the current situation and implementation of an effective integration process, would be the foundation stones in the design of the related roadmap. Thus, this study aimed to contribute in description of the current situation with respect to the integration of the teacher dimension of Information Technologies (IT) with the learning and instruction process, and to scrutinize this situation within the framework of variables that could affect the integration process.

This study aims to provide answers to the following research questions:

- What are the skill levels of the teachers in TPACK-Practical model?
- Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of female and male teachers on TPACK-Practical scale?
- Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of teachers, who serve at schools where FATİH project is implemented, and teachers, who serve at schools where it is not implemented, on TPACK-Practical scale?
- Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of teachers that serve in different school grades on TPACK-Practical scale?
- Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of teachers with different seniority levels on TPACK-Practical scale?

Methodology

Research Design

The study was conducted using causal-comparative design, one of the non-empirical quantitative research methods. Causal-comparative research aims to determine the reasons for a situation or an event, and the variables that affect these factors. In causal-comparative research, there are at least two groups that were affected in different ways from the same situation, or there are two groups that were affected or not affected by the assumed situation, and these groups are scrutinized based on certain variables (Cohen and Manion, 1994).

Participants

Data was collected from 318 teachers identified using intentional sampling. The data for 22 participants who scored all items with the same points and could negatively affect the data reliability were excluded before the analysis. Thus, data obtained from 22 participants were included in the analysis. Demographical characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic data of the participants

		Male	Female			Total
Gender	<i>n</i>	123	173			296
	%	41.6	58.4			100
School Type		Elementary school	Middle school	High school		
	<i>n</i>	6	4	3		13
	%	46,1	30,7	23,2		100
Age Range	Year	21-30	31-40	41-50	51 or above	Total
	<i>n</i>	104	80	82	30	296
	%	35.1	27.1	27.7	10.1	100
Career year	Year	1-10	11-20	21-30	31 or above	Total
	<i>n</i>	120	92	69	15	296
	%	42.6	31.4	23.3	3.7	100

Data Collection Tools

TPACK-Practical Scale

The TPACK-Practical Scale items were obtained from the Delphi study conducted by (Yeh et al., 2013) which was performed in two stages with the participation of 6 researchers and 54 specialists. Scale was adapted to Turkish by Ay, Karadağ & Acat (2015) and its validity in the context of Turkish culture checked via structural equation modeling. Regarding Turkish version of the scale, as a result of item-total ($r = .44 - .65$, $p < .01$) and item-rest ($r = .41 - .63$, $p < .01$) correlation analysis, it has been found that there is a significant relationship for each item in the scale, the differentiating power was found to be 27% and the relationship between lower and upper groups' averages was found to be significant for all tested items at $p < .05$ level. According to the conducted confirmatory factor analysis, the original structure of the scale has been confirmed and as in the original form, eight knowledge dimensions from five pedagogic domains were revealed. In addition, for internal consistency, Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was found to be 0.89.

Table 2. The content of the scale factors and sample items

<i>The content of the scale factors</i>	<i>Sample items</i>
<i>Learners:</i> High scores for this factor indicate that the teacher has gained skills such as recognizing the students using ICT, identifying and resolving the students' difficulties in the learning process (e.g., misconceptions), identifying the students' learning styles and following up on their improvement levels.	I know how to use ICT to identify students' learning difficulties I am able to use different technology-infused instruction to assist the students with different learning characteristics
<i>Subject Content:</i> High scores for this factor indicate that the teacher has gained skills such as using ICT to learn the content.	I am able to use ICT to better understand the subject content I am able to identify the subject topics that can be better presented with ICT
<i>Curriculum Design:</i> High scores for this factor indicate that the teacher has gained skills such as planning a curriculum integrated with ICT, using ICT designs and teaching strategies integrated with ICT.	I am able to evaluate the factors that influence the planning of an ICT-infused curriculum I use appropriate ICT representations to present instructional content
<i>Practical Teaching:</i> High scores for this factor indicate that the teacher has skills such as using ICT in instructional management and facilitating the achievement of the students.	I am able to indicate the advantages and disadvantages of ICT for instructional management I am able to use ICT to facilitate the achievement of teaching objectives
<i>Assessment:</i> High scores for this factor indicate that the teacher has gained skills such as using ICT technologies to assess student learning.	I know the types of technology-infused assessment approaches I am able to use ICT to assess students' learning progress

Procedure

The data was collected by the Practical of the scales to the participants. Participants initially filled out the first part of the scale containing questions on demographic information, and then filled out the questions on their level of approval for the scale items. Responding to the scale was on voluntary basis and further approvals of the teachers themselves and the school management were obtained.

TPACK-Practical scale descriptive data [\bar{x}] arithmetic mean, (SD) standard deviation] collected for the first sub-objective of the study for the teachers, are presented in a table 3. The effect

of the independent variables on dependent variables was tested using independent groups t-test to achieve the second and third sub-objectives of the study. The differences between the scores the teachers serving in different types of schools received in the TPACK-Practical skills scale were tested using ANOVA to achieve the fourth sub-objective of the study. Finally, ANOVA was used to determine the difference between the scores of teachers with different seniority levels in TPACK-Practical skills scale, to achieve the fifth sub-objective of the study. Post-hoc test (Scheffe) was used to determine the source of the significant real factors that affect the differences.

Findings

The data concerning the question, which was the first sub-objective of the study; “What are the skill levels of the teachers in TPACK-Practical model?” were obtained by the TPACK-Practical scale developed within the context of TPACK-Practical model to the participants.

Table 3 demonstrates that the general average score for the teachers on the scale was 2.91 and the standard deviation was .45. Furthermore, sub-factor points averages for the scale based on factors varied between 3.59 (SD = .79) and 4.07 (SD = .59). It was observed that the lowest mean was obtained in “*Infusing ICT into teaching contexts*” sub-factor of applied instruction factor (\bar{X} = 3.59, SD = .79); and the highest mean was observed in “*Using ICT-integrated teaching strategies*” sub-factor in program design factor (\bar{X} = 4.07, SD = .59). Teacher score distribution identified that the highest point averages were obtained in *Curriculum Design* factor. It was also observed that *Practical Teaching* factor had lower averages than the other factors. Thus, it could be argued that teachers had higher efficiencies in design; however, their efficiency was lower in the implementation process.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for the teachers' TPACK-Practical scores.

Factors		n	\bar{X}	SD
Learners	Using ICT to understand students	296	3.72	.81
Subject Content	Using ICT to understand subject content	296	3.87	.71
Curriculum Design	Planning ICT-infused curriculum	296	4.06	.57
	Using ICT representations	296	4.03	.57
	Using ICT-integrated teaching strategies	296	4.07	.59
Practical Teaching	Applying ICT to instructional management	296	3.85	.68
	Infusing ICT into teaching contexts	296	3.59	.79
Assessment	Using ICT to assess students	296	4.02	.82
TPACK-Practical		296	3.91	.45

The data concerning the question, which was the second sub-objective of the study; “Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of female and male teachers on TPACK-Practical skills scale?” were obtained by the TPACK-Practical scale developed within the context of TPACK-Practical model to the participants. Based on the findings obtained by independent groups t-test and displayed in Table 4, there was no significant difference between female and male teachers on total mean scores [t (294)=1.69, p > .05] received for the scale developed with TPACK-Practical model. However, there was a significant difference on the basis of *Subject Content* [t (294) = 2.33, p < .05] and *Curriculum Design* [t (294) = 2.02, p < .05], benefiting the female teachers. There was no significant difference in the factors of *Learners* [t (294) = 1.41, p > .05], *Practical Teaching* [t (282, 77) = -.20, p > .05], and *Assessment* [t (294) = .82, p > .05]. Thus, it could be deducted that TPACK-Practical skills of female teachers were at a higher level than males in the *Subject Content* and *Curriculum Design*; however the skills were at the same levels for female and male teachers in other factors.

Table 4. *Independent Samples t-test Results for Female and Male Teacher Scores on TPACK-Practical Scale*

<i>Factors</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>n</i>	\bar{X}	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Learners	Female	173	3.78	.86	294	1.41	.15
	Male	123	3.64	.74			
Subject Content	Female	173	3.95	.71	294	2.33	.02*
	Male	123	3.76	.69			
Curriculum Design	Female	173	4.10	.52	294	2.02	.04*
	Male	123	3.98	.47			
Practical Teaching	Female	173	3.67	.72	282.77	-.20	.83
	Male	123	3.69	.68			
Assessment	Female	173	4.05	.83	294	.82	.40
	Male	123	3.97	.82			
Total	Female	173	3.94	.45	294	1.69	.09
	Male	123	3.85	.43			

*p< .05

The data for the question formed for FATIH Project variable in the third sub-objective of the study, “Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of teachers, who serve at schools where FATIH project is implemented, and teachers, who serve at schools where it is not implemented, on TPACK-Practical skills scale?” were obtained by the Practical of the scale developed within the context of TPACK-Practical model to the participants. The findings presented in Table 4 shows that there was a significant difference between the total points the teachers that work in schools that implement the FATIH project and those that work in schools that do not implement FATIH project received in the scale based on *independent samples t-test* results [$t(294) = -2.84, p < .01$]. Based on the factors, there was a significant difference between the teachers that work in schools that the project was implemented and the teachers that work in schools that the project was not implemented in *Subject Content* [$t(294) = -3.63, p < .01$] and *Practical Teaching* [$t(294) = -3.93, p < .01$] factors. It was also observed that there was no significant difference in *Learners* [$t(294) = .52, p > .05$], *Curriculum Design* [$t(294) = -2.77, p > .05$], and *Assessment* [$t(294) = .79, p > .01$] factors.

Table 5 demonstrates that point averages of the teachers that serve in schools that the FATIH project was implemented are higher than the point averages of the teachers that serve in schools that the FATIH project was not implemented on TPACK-Practical skills scale.

Table 5. *Independent Samples t-test Results for the Scores of Teachers in the Context of FATIH Project*

<i>Factors</i>	<i>FATIH Project</i>	<i>n</i>	\bar{X}	<i>SS</i>	<i>Sd</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Learners	Not Applying	153	3.75	.77	294	.52	.60
	Applying	143	3.70	.86			
Subject Content	Not Applying	153	3.73	.38	294	-3.63	.00*
	Applying	143	4.03	.92			
Curriculum Design	Not Applying	153	3.97	.38	294	-2.77	.93
	Applying	143	4.13	.60			
Practical Teaching	Not Applying	153	3.53	.65	294	-3.93	.00*
	Applying	143	3.84	.72			
Assessment	Not Applying	153	4.02	.77	294	.79	.93
	Applying	143	4.01	.88			
Total	Not Applying	153	3.83	.36	294	-2.88	.00*
	Applying	143	3.98	.52			

*p< .05

The data concerning the question, which was the fourth sub-objective of the study; “Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of teachers that serve in different school grades on TPACK-Practical skills scale?” were obtained by the TPACK-Practical scale developed within the context of TPACK-Practical model to the participants. The findings presented in Table 6 shows that there was a significant difference between the total scores the teachers that serve in different school grades received in the TPACK-Practical skills scale [$F(2, 293) = 9.52, p < .01$]. Based on the factors, there was a significant difference in *Learners* [$F(2, 293) = 10.17, p < .01$], *Subject Content* [$F(2, 293) = 17.51, p < .01$], *Curriculum Design* [$F(2, 293) = 4.18, p < .05$], and *Practical Teaching* [$F(2, 293) = 16.39, p < .01$] factors. No significant difference was found in the factor of *Assessment* between the school grades [$F(2, 293) = 1.22, p > .05$].

The difference between school grades (Table 6) indicated that this difference benefited high school teachers between the middle school and high school teachers throughout the scale. There was a significant difference between elementary school teachers and middle school teachers in favor of elementary school teachers in the factor of *Learners*. It was observed that high school teachers had significantly higher average scores when compared to middle school teachers in the factor of *Curriculum Design*. Furthermore, while it was observed that high-school teachers had better average points than elementary and middle school teachers in *Subject Content* and *Practical Teaching* factors, no difference was found between elementary school and middle school teachers. Also no difference was indicated between the groups in the factor of *Assessment*. Thus, it could be concluded that high school teachers had higher technology use proficiency compared to middle school and elementary school teachers. Furthermore, it could be argued that elementary school teachers considered the students more in ICT integration.

Table 6. ANOVA Test Results of Teachers Serving in Different School Grades in TPACK-Practical Scale

Factors	School grades	N	\bar{X}	SS	F	p	difference
Learners	Elementary school	99	3.98	.66	10,17	.00*	Elementary S.>Middle S.
	Middle school	94	3.46	.82			
	High school	103	3.71	.87			
	Total	296	3.72	.81			
Subject Content	Elementary school	99	3.83	.59	17,51	.00*	High S.>Middle S. High S.> Elementary S
	Middle school	94	3.60	.62			
	High school	103	4.16	.79			
	Total	296	3.87	.71			
Curriculum Design	Elementary school	99	4.05	.45	4.18	.01*	High S.>Middle S.
	Middle school	94	3.94	.43			
	High school	103	4.15	.59			
	Total	296	4.05	.50			
Practical Teaching	Elementary school	99	3.48	.62	16.39	.00*	High S.>Middle S. High S.> Elementary S
	Middle school	94	3.56	.69			
	High school	103	3.99	.69			
	Total	296	3.68	.70			
Assessment	Elementary school	99	4.11	.77	1.22	.29	No difference
	Middle school	94	3.93	.78			
	High school	103	4.00	.91			
	Total	296	4.02	.82			
Total	Elementary school	99	3.90	.38	9.52	.00*	High S.>Middle S.
	Middle school	94	3.77	.39			
	High school	103	4.04	.51			
	Total	296	3.91	.45			

n=296, * p< .05

The data concerning the question, which was the fifth sub-objective of the study; “Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of teachers with different seniority levels on TPACK-Practical scale?” were obtained by the TPACK-Practical scale developed within the context of TPACK-Practical model to the participants.

The seniorities of the teachers were analyzed in categories of 0-10, 11-20, 21-30, and over 31 years. The findings presented in Table 7 shows that there was a significant difference between teachers with different seniority levels in *Curriculum Design* [$F(3, 292) = 10.82, p < .01$], *Practical Teaching* [$F(3, 292) = 4.51, p < .01$], and the scale total point average [$F(3, 292) = 8.27, p < .01$] factors. No differences were observed in *Learners* [$F(3, 292) = 1.12, p > .05$], *Subject Content* [$F(3, 292) = 2.01, p > .05$], and *Assessment* [$F(3, 292) = 1.92, p > .05$] factors.

Analysis of the direction of the differences demonstrated that there was a significant difference in *Curriculum Design*, *Practical Teaching* factors and total point. Findings demonstrated that TPAC-Practical scale points for teachers with 31 years or over seniority were lower than other seniority groups.

Table 7. ANOVA Test Results on Differences between the Seniority of Teachers and the Points They Received in TPACK-Practical Scale

Factors	Seniority	n	\bar{X}	SS	F	p	Difference
Learners	0-10	119	3.79	.66	1.12	.34	No difference
	11-20	95	3.70	.82			
	21-30	70	3.70	.87			
	31 and over	12	3.36	.81			
Subject Content	0-10	119	3.94	.59	2.01	.11	No difference
	11-20	95	3.80	.62			
	21-30	70	3.93	.79			
	31 and over	12	3.50	.71			
Curriculum Design	0-10	119	4.16	.45	10.82	.00*	0-10 > 11-20
	11-20	95	3.98	.43			0-10 > 31 and over
	21-30	70	4.09	.59			11-20 > 31 and over
	31 and over	12	3.37	.50			21-30 > 31 and over
Practical Teaching	0-10	119	3.80	.62	4.51	.00*	0-10 > 31 and over 11-20 > 31 and over
	11-20	95	3.68	.69			
	21-30	70	3.58	.69			
	31 and over	12	3.09	.70			
Assessment	0-10	119	4.07	.77	1.92	.12	No difference
	11-20	95	3.92	.78			
	21-30	70	4.11	.91			
	31 and over	12	3.61	.82			
Total	0-10	119	4.00	.38	8.27	.00*	0-10 > 31 and over
	11-20	95	3.88	.39			11-20 > 31 and over
	21-30	70	3.89	.51			21-30 > 31 and over
	31 and over	12	3.36	.45			

*p < .05

Results and Discussion

Results and discussion on TPACK-Practical skills of teachers

Based on the scores the participating teachers received in TPACK-Practical Scale, adapted to Turkish and validated for language, it could be concluded that, this area was the first integration stage

that the teachers encountered in the technological integration process since the highest TPACK-Practical skill proficiency level was observed in the factor of *Curriculum Design*. According to (Yeh et al., 2013), for teachers to be able to use the technology efficiently in accordance with the current innovations in the training process, and for them to be trained to guide the students in teaching-learning processes, are only possible through the development of program design factor. In this factor, which is explained as utilization of IT based instruction strategies, the teachers would gain skills to (i) *Planning ICT-infused curriculum*; and (ii) *Using ICT-integrated teaching strategies*.

The fact that, while the teachers had high averages in the factor of *Curriculum Design*, but fail to succeed in the factor of *Practical Teaching*, could not be explained within the context of *Integrative TPACK models*. Because, according to Angeli and Valanides (2009), *Integrative TPACK model* fails to assert the components of technological integration and the interactions between these components; it also fails to define technological tool utilization in the factor and restricts the pedagogical factor knowledge and does not explain the transformation of these components. Mishra and Koehler (2006) was able to explain the contributions of the structures that form TPACK theoretically, however was not able to explain the factor-based integration process with a transformational and applied approach (Angeli and Valanides, 2009). According to Archambault and Barnett (2010), holistic theoretical model failed to prove that the seven dimensions asserted theoretically worked together in the practice. Thus, the results of the study should be discussed within the context of the transformational model.

Based on the findings of the study, the fact that teachers had different levels of achievement in *Curriculum Design* and *Practical Teaching* skills demonstrated that these skills were transformed during the practical process. This result could provide clear information on the technology integration processes of the teachers when considered within the framework of transformational TPACK models. This fact demonstrates that technology use of teachers was pedagogically based and they are in the first stages of the integration process, and at the same time, they could not display sufficient integration in the transformation process. Assessment of the study findings within the context of TPACK-ICT model, one of the transformational TPACK models proposed by Angeli and Valanides (2009) demonstrates that the teachers are in the stage where they could develop their integration by achieving technology based design skills and in-class implementation experiences, and following that stage, they would be open to skills such as identifying the students using alternative methods, to determine their learning difficulties, to use technology within their areas of instruction, and to utilize instruction strategies.

The fact that the teachers had lower mean scores in the factor of *Practical Teaching* showed that they were at the development stage in the technology integration process structured by Niess (2006). Assessment of the study findings within the framework of *Techno-pedagogical Education (TPACK-deep)* model proposed by Kabakçı, Yurdakul, et al, (2012) would demonstrate that the teachers had the highest average in the *design factor*. This factor reflects the proficiency of the educators in designing the instruction before the instruction process to enrich the instruction process with the aid of suitable technologies for the content and pedagogical knowledge. In other words, efficiencies such as analyzing the existing situation prior to the instruction process using the technology, selecting the suitable method, techniques and technologies that would be utilized in instruction, preparing the environment, material, and measurement tools that would be used in the instruction process, organizing the environment and materials that would be used in instruction, and planning the instruction cases, are included in this factor.

Results and discussion on the differences in TPACK-Practical skills between female and male teachers

The results on the differences between the point averages of female and male teachers on TPACK-Practical scale demonstrated that there were no significant differences between the TPACK-Practical skills of female and male teachers with the exception of certain factors. There were no studies available on the effects of gender on TPACK in the factor literature. However, the fact that TPACK model was based on TK, PK, and CK could reveal the effect of gender on TPACK. Attitude

towards technology, self-efficacy and cognitive processes could be identified as the factors causing this fact (Harris and Hofer, 2009). Certain studies stated that males claimed they had a superior knowledge when compared to females in technology use, in other words in Technological Information (TI) (Koppi et al., 2010; Lasen, 2010). It was considered that these results would influence the TPACK efficiencies of teachers. On the other hand, there were findings that females found themselves more efficient when compared to males in other dimensions of TPACK, namely in PK and TK (Baylor, Shen and Huang, 2003; Einarsson and Granström, 2002; Hopf and Hatzichristou, 1999). The effects of gender on TK, PK, and CK have the capacity to effect TPACK and certain sub-dimensions of TPACK. The fact that TPACK-Practical skills weren't affected by the gender variable could be explained by the fact that they could have arisen within the context of transformational TPACK model. This result was generally similar to several other study results found in the literature. Karakaya (2013) indicated that gender of the teachers did not significantly affect their TPACK skills and Kocaoğlu (2013), in the study conducted on FATİH project, stated that TPACK skills of male and female teachers were similar based on proficiency and Practical skills.

One of the most important factors that could influence TPACK skills of teachers based on their gender is their computer use self-efficacies (Lasen, 2010). International and national research on the differences between computer self-efficacies, which has a significant role in teachers' technology use, demonstrated that gender was not a factor in significant differences (Çuhadar, Bülbül and Ilgaz, 2013; Jamieson, Finger and Albion, 2010; Mudasiru, 2005; Torkzadeh and Dyke, 2002; Chao, 2001). However, findings of certain studies in Turkish literature indicated that males had higher computer self-efficacy when compared to females (Morgil, Seçken and Yücel, 2004; Işıksal and Aşkar, 2003). Under these circumstances, another factor that could affect technology use, namely the attitude towards technology could be considered. However, according to the findings by Yörük (2013) gender was not a determining variable on the attitudes of teachers towards technology. It could also be considered that the education of teachers could affect their technology integration. Assessment of teacher training policies in Turkey would reveal that pre-service education of teachers were similar for females and males (Çoklar, Kılıçer and Odabaşı, 2007).

Results and discussion on the differentiation of TPACK-Practical skills of teachers based on the implementation status of the FATİH project in schools

Assessment of the results on the differences between the point averages that the teachers received based on the implementation status of the FATİH project at their schools showed that the reason for the higher TPACK-Practical skills of the teachers that serve in schools where the FATİH project was implemented than the skills of the teachers that serve in schools where the FATİH project was not implemented could be related to the training they received within the framework of the project, or the technological hardware they possess. Studies showed that the vast majority of teachers believe that the pre-service training they received was far from being efficient in preparing the teachers for the use of educational technologies (Çoklar, Kılıçer and Odabaşı, 2007). Thus, it could be argued that the teachers, who went through a pre-service training process, were able to improve these skills when compared to other teachers. According to the Ministry of Education (2013), one of the components of FATİH project was training of the teachers. Thus, it was reported that 753 educators were trained as a result of educator training within the framework of the project to implement the training of teachers, and 63,760 teachers were trained in interactive blackboard seminars within the FATİH project and 35,902 teachers were trained directly for the FATİH project. By the end of 2013, it was also reported that FATİH project preparatory training, technology use training, interactive blackboard seminar, and technology and leadership forum for the administrators programs are being held with teachers active in 3,657 pilot schools (Ministry of Education, 2013)

The findings of the study demonstrated that the differences in *Subject Content* and *Practical Teaching* factors were far more high in technology integration process for teachers in schools where the project was implemented compared to schools where it was not implemented. This shows that the teachers in schools where the project was implemented and not implemented were in different technology integration processes. An analysis of the differences in integration processes based on *TPACK Instructional Development Model*, a transformational TPACK model developed by Niess

(2007) indicated that while the teachers serving in schools where the project was not implemented had *incentive acceptance* level integration, the teachers that work in schools where the project was implemented had *technological expertise and pedagogical modeling* level integration. It could be stated that this was due to the differences in technological integration and efficient technology implementation skills of the teachers. According to Niess (2007), the difference between these two integration levels was the pedagogical organization of technological expertise and implementation based on the factor and within the dimension of requirements. Teo (2009) stressed that efficient technology use in learning and instruction was based on factors that were affected by technology acceptances. Thus, it could be concluded that the skills and training acquired during the FATIH project process positively affected the technology acceptances of the teachers. Usuel and Mazman (2010) stressed the relationship between the concepts of acceptance of technology and technological innovation, and expressed that the existence of facilitating factors in the innovative environment would increase the perception of the ease of use and benefit of the innovation, and would make the innovation to be accepted more easily.

Kurt et al. (2013), in a study they conducted in Turkey, determined that teachers in schools where FATIH project was implemented utilized the interactive blackboard the most, and thanks to the project, teachers saved time, were able to conduct different course activities, enrich the course using different material during the learning process, and made learning more permanent. Angeli and Valanides (2005) determined that teachers could implement student oriented designs during design and planning stages, which is a common occurrence in the technological integration process of teachers, however, that could not occur during the Practical process due to several reasons, and technology was utilized to support conventional instructional strategies. On the other hand, Timur (2011) reported that although teachers stated that they could implement student centered instructional strategies, in practice they could not fulfill this task. In a study, Adıgüzel (2011) determined that, for effective use of technology in the educational process, the teachers should be informed about how to use this technology, students and educational administrators should be informed, educational administrators should realize that, instead of an economic burden, technology is to improve the quality of education in the long run, and hence they should provide technical support required. Thus, it could be argued that the requirements could be fulfilled by the training, which could be provided within the context of the project.

As a result of the study, the lack of significant difference between the teachers that serve in schools that the project was implemented and in schools that the project was not implemented in the factors of *Learners*, *Curriculum Design*, and *Assessment* factors was similar to other findings of the study. The high average points that the teachers in both groups received demonstrated that the initial obstacle was resolved in the technology integration process. However, existence of no difference in *Learners* and *Assessment* factors could be explained by the insufficiency of the training provided in FATIH project in the development of these skills. Ministry of Education Teaching Profession General Proficiency criteria stipulate that teachers should be able to use the technology, at the same time, could arrange the classroom environment so that the students could use technology, and could act as role models for the students in technology use. For teachers to achieve proficiency in information and communication technology use, they need a framework that enables them to use technology in integration with professional and factor knowledge in their learning-instruction processes (Shantz, 1995). Timur (2011) compared the in-service training activities for technology use in Finland, where technology integration process was implemented for many years, and in-service training activities towards the technology use of the teachers in the courses implemented in FATIH project, and reported that while in Finland different training processes were implemented for each factor, grade, process and technological equipment, in Turkey all teachers were subjected to an in-service training with the same content on the effective use of information technologies and e-content, without any differentiation based on educational factors and instruction process. TPACK-Practical Scale results demonstrated that in-service training implementations based on transformative model and with regard to factor differences should contribute to the integration process.

Thus, it could be stated that, training that the teachers received prior to the implementation of the project, experiences they gained, and the technological infrastructure the schools obtained due to the projects increase the TPACK-Practical skills of the teachers.

Results and discussion on the differences in TPACK-Practical skills based on school grade and seniority years variables for the teachers

Assessment of the results for the differences between the points that the elementary school, middle school and high school teachers received in TPACK-Practical skills scale showed that the reason why the high school teachers had higher TPACK-Practical skills compared to middle school teachers could be attributed to the fact that FATİH project was implemented in high schools more widely. According to Ministry of Education (2013), expanded pilot Practical concentrated on the infrastructure of high schools and infrastructure work in 3,362 of 3,567 high schools was completed. Thus, it was expected that high school teachers would receive higher average points in program design, subject and applied instruction factors.

The fact that elementary school teachers had higher TPACK-Practical skills compared to middle school teachers in the factor of learner shows that elementary school teachers utilized learner oriented technology in the instruction process. National studies show that, according to Gürol, Donmuş and Arslan (2012), elementary school teachers could activate students with the help of technology more than other school grades, they could recognize students with different types of intelligence better, and could communicate with them more efficiently. In addition, it was also observed that elementary school teachers conducted more student centered implementations.

Study findings demonstrated that teachers with 31 years or more seniority scored the lowest points in TPACK-Practical scale when compared to other seniority groups. This finding was similar to the findings of other studies in the literature. It was reported that TPACK skills were lower in teachers 41 or older compared to other age groups and teachers 30 or younger were more proficient when compared to other age groups (Koh, Chai and Tsai, 2010). On the other hand, Jang (2010) reported that teachers with seniority had higher factor knowledge, pedagogical factor knowledge and technological pedagogical factor knowledge than teachers with less seniority. According to (Yeh et al., 2013), this situation could be explained with the fact that factor knowledge could increase TPACK skills. However, Lee and Tsai (2010) stated that, while TPACK skills in factor centered technology use increase with the increase in the seniority of teachers, seniority deems teachers disadvantaged in technology-oriented Practicals.

Literature review would show that the leading factors that affect the TPACK skills of teachers were computer use or technological proficiencies görülmektedir (Cox and Graham, 2009; Graham, 2011; Harris and Hofer, 2011; Niess, 2005). Studies conducted in Turkey indicated that 20-25 years old teachers had the highest computer use proficiency (Karakaya, 2013). Kocaoğlu (2013) found that the technology use proficiencies of teachers with 26 years or more seniority were lower than other teachers with less seniority. The findings of this study that teachers with 31 years or higher seniority had lower TPACK-Practical averages when compared to other groups demonstrated that they were limited by factor knowledge, pedagogical knowledge or pedagogical factor knowledge in the implementation dimension of experience. The shaping of technological integration of teachers on the basis of factor knowledge and according to seniority within the framework of TPACK-Practical Model could not be explained by transformational TPACK model as well. This situation could also be explained by the differences in the technological integration processes between Singapore, where TPACK-Practical Model was developed, and Turkey. Thus, it could be concluded that teachers with a seniority of 31 years and longer were delayed in the process of technology integration compared to other teachers, but years of seniority contributed to the technologic pedagogical contend knowledge based on factor and pedagogic factor knowledge.

Directions for Future Research and Limitations

- Further studies could be conducted to scrutinize other factors that could affect TPACK skills other than gender, school grade, seniority and attitudes toward technology to fill the gap in the literature.
- The efficiency of the technologies used in FATIH project could be determined, and this information could be used to indicate the efficiency of information technologies in the Practical process based on various criteria within context of the TPACK-Practical Model.
- Further qualitative studies could determine TPACK Practical skills to indicate the reflections of the existing technological infrastructure and hardware on the performance.
- Factor knowledge experiences of teachers with higher seniority could be deemed advantageous in the technological integration process. Integration process should be supported by using software that contain technology Practicals for subject content for these teachers.
- TPACK training based on *Subject Content* and *Learners* level could be provided for high school teachers, similar to Singaporean example.
- FATIH project training should be extended for elementary school and middle school level teachers. Infrastructure for the technology use in *Subject Content* and *Practical Teaching* dimensions for elementary and middle school teachers should be provided and training should be supplied.
- Trainings within FATIH project should be specialized for the factors of teachers and factor training based technological integration process should be developed for teachers.
- Technological infrastructure, software and practical training should be provided to develop IT based evaluation skills of teachers. By inclusion of elementary and middle schools in FATIH project expanded pilot Practicals opportunities should be expanded through the use of technology.
- The place and significance of the technology in education should be explained to the teachers and the reality that technological integration process should not be limited to school should be adopted.
- The courses should be designed to realize the transformation of three main components of TK, FK, and PK skills of the teachers into PFK, TPK, and TFK skills and they should include the process of Practical of TPACK skills in real classroom environment via technology laboratories.
- The following elements could be added to *Instructional Technologies and Material Design* courses in teacher training programs to increase TPACK skills of pre-service teachers and to enable them to conduct technology based educational Practicals in the schools they would serve:
 - Determination of the ITs that FATIH project and other technology oriented projects utilize, and development of the skills of recognition, design, and development of the material that could be used for Practicals, which could be conducted by the utilization of these technologies.
 - Achievements to develop technological software that could be used in factor training, and towards skills to utilize these based on the student level.
- The following elements could be added to *Teaching Practical I-II* courses in teacher training programs to increase TPACK skills of pre-service teachers and for them to easily adapt to technological projects that would be implemented in the schools they would serve when they start their professional lives:
 - The objectives of school Practicals courses could be expanded to make possible for pre-service teachers to have information about the ITs used in projects, etc. utilized in the current system, to use these ITs, and to resolve the problems they face with the help of guidance counselor.
 - It could be made possible to conduct technical details such as communication, classroom administration and data sharing in technology enabled classrooms under the surveillance of specialist teachers.
 - Faculty members could add to performance evaluation criteria the products or documents on factor instruction that pre-service teachers prepared by using ITs.

The most important limitation of this study is the *common method bias*. The main reason of this limitation is the collection of the data from a single source (teachers). This might have caused an artificial increase of the observed correlations. Although the aforementioned limitation cannot be fully eliminated from the study, the errors can be reduced to the minimum level. Therefore, the necessary precautions were taken during the data collection phase via the applications suggested at the beginning of the paper. First of all, the validity and reliability of the scales used in data collection stage were checked. Second, the participants were clearly informed that the responses would be kept confidential and they would not be revealed in any way. In addition the questionnaire is designed in a way that the scale items related to independent variables are listed before the ones related to dependent variables.

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Miscellany

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