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Theme-Based Culture Capsules and EFL Learners' Multicultural Attitude: The Efficiency of Explicit and Implicit Instruction

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Abstract

The current study aims at gaining insight into the effectiveness of the explicit and implicit instructions of the culture capsules through multimedia resources and tracks EFL learners' multicultural attitudes. The study sampled 43 advanced EFL learners who took part in speaking courses at Shoukoh and Safiran institutes. The researchers applied one-stage cluster sampling to select two groups of participants. The first group received both input (multimedia resources) and the explicit instruction of L2 culture capsules and the second group were exposed to the same cultural input through the implicit instruction. In order to track down the potential enhancement of the multicultural attitudes of the learners, Munroe and Pearson's (2006) multicultural attitude scale (MASQUE) was administered to the respondents at the pre-test stage and after the treatment phase. In order to have an exhaustive analysis, the researchers evaluated different levels of multicultural attitude, that is, multicultural knowledge, care, and act. The findings of the study, through one-way MANOVA, showed that the learners in the first group significantly outperformed in multicultural knowledge ($p=.001$) and care ($p=.039$), but there was no significant difference between the groups regarding the multicultural act ($p=.177$) at $p < .05$ level of significance. Based on the findings, it can be suggested that the positive multicultural attitude can be achieved through the proper input and explicit instruction.

Keywords: Multicultural attitude, Culture capsule, Multimedia resources, Explicit and implicit instruction, Techniques

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Introduction

There is a popular saying in English that reads: “Learning a new language is learning a new life.” To put it another way, this statement evokes the idea that the path to a new language endows individuals a new perspective and insight through experiences which they have never had before. In order to develop a better comprehension on what is culture, the very first step is to define, or at least try to lay out the term in simple detail. Moran (2001) states that culture is “the evolving way of life of a group of persons, consisting of shared set of practices associated with a shared set of products, based upon a shared set of perspectives on the world, and set within specific social contexts” (p. 24).

Even in the process of L1 acquisition, learners being exposed to the linguistic input shape an intuition of who they are and also their surrounding world and their roles as active agents. At first they need to fathom who they are and develop their essentially subjective point of view. However, this alone does not guarantee an all-inclusive comprehension per se (i.e. there remains a void only to be filled with other agents’ historical experiences). Only then, a complete understanding is in reach for people. Kramsch (1993) defines this as third space, or Cook (1992, 2003) termed it as multicompetence. Hence the mission for L2 instruction can be clarified as to enrich students’ cultural awareness, or to a higher level of competency, an intercultural sensitivity. The most viable outcomes of any plan within pedagogical realms have been achieved through the organization and a comprehensive outlining of curricula. This, in turn, involves the integration of the cultural education objectives and the professional education of language teachers and learners.

Among other controversies around the cultural instruction, the one which continues to be the most unresolved issue is simply how to teach cultural elements of L2. This problem, even becomes much more complex as when the administrative authorities, material developers, and teachers consider the context of language education, as in EFL setting and the needs and purposes for upbringing learners to the utmost proficiency of a foreign language. To start with any methodology, classrooms need to be the arena for cooperative negotiation and collaboration among participants. Indeed, the ever-moving nature of culture demands a dynamicity, iconoclasm, and challenging the zeitgeist, which are the central concepts in the postmodernist view of culture. In this perspective, each participant, as well as the teacher, takes up a role to promote others’ comprehension of cultural inconsistencies. The rationale behind such a methodology lies within the delineations of the sociocultural theory of second language acquisition (SCT).

Two tenable arguments have been proposed by SCT on the importance of intercultural sensitivity: In the first place culture and language shape a dualistic unity, an inseparable existence which is non-reductionist in nature and exactly similar to the mind and body relationship in Vygotsky’s approach. Secondly, cultural knowledge puts the abstract foundation of concrete illustration of linguistic symbols (forms of the language), as is discussed in Vygotsky’s principle of ‘ascent from the abstract to the concrete’.

SCT provides two prominent concepts to ascertain thorough success: Mediation and Dynamic assessment. As Stetsenko and Arievitch (2002) notes mediation consists of cultural tools and cultural artifacts like embodiments of certain ways of acting in human communities, which represent the functions and meanings of things as discovered in cultural practices. The second cultural concept i.e. dynamic assessment, according to Lantolf and Poehner (2008), pertains to “uncovering abilities that typically remain hidden during the assessment procedure by requiring the assessor to abandon his/her traditional role as a dispassionate observer in favor of collaborating with learners to actively intervene in development”(p. 16).

The purpose of the researchers in the present study is to strive for a clear picture regarding the role of explicit and implicit instruction of culture capsules via multimedia resources. These culture capsules are categorized and culled based on the small ‘c’ cultural themes in order to deal with the daily life perspective of culture. The upshot of the comparison between the two modes of instruction

may shed light on the utilization of cultural adaptation techniques accompanied by the appropriate mode of instruction. .

Literature Review

1. Incorporation of Culture in Teaching a Foreign Language

Foreign language instruction from 1960s onward has witnessed a call for the addition of communicative competence aside from linguistic performance. This new motive opened a conduit of multifaceted extensions to EFL, with the introduction of culture as one of the key components very close to the underlying sociolinguistic and pragmatic competencies of the whole framework of communicative competence. Significance of teaching culture requires providing a comprehensive definition of the term itself. Since the first movements of embedding culture with language, the terminology has been clarified dozens of time by scholars probing different aspects of attitudes taken in the classroom activities. Taking a simplistic view on the term of culture, we might understand it in two ways: 'big C culture' and 'small c culture'. While the first half focuses on the major products and contributions of a society in general or of outstanding individuals in that society, the small c culture focuses on the functional knowledge of the second-culture system. Baleghizadeh and Moghadam (2013) deduced from small culture specifications i.e. semantics, pragmatics, and discourse structure that teaching culture in classrooms is a necessity to observe. They noticed the starting point of culturally enriched methods of instruction within the advent of communicative language teaching, which highlighted communicative competence as the ultimate goal of language instruction. Another thoughtful consideration to the need for teaching culture is offered by Simpson (1997) on the account of developing learners' cognitive capability and motivation. Besides, Ivers' (2007) research shows that critical development might be reached as the direct outcome of culture presentations. He contends:

One would think that the cultural exposure received in foreign language courses might serve in some way to foment critical thinking and personal transformation. It could serve to assist students in recognizing their own flawed cultural bearings by grappling with interesting ideas, challenging assumptions, and critically evaluating new paradigms. (p. 153)

In the postmodern era of language teaching, cultural awareness has been invoked by intercultural competency. That is, neither target culture assimilation nor deculturalization of foreign languages to the benefit of learners' L1 is further sought. The most desired paths towards culture instruction now are embarked upon global cultural consciousness and intercultural citizenship (there has been a plethora of terminologies and acclaimed terms used sometimes interchangeably for these registers). These new agreed upon concepts redefine the roles of language teachers and learners as reflexive agents of knowledge authorized to process their surrounding culture notions with critical view in one hand, and textbook and material developers in the other (Eryaman, 2007; Riedler & Eryaman, 2016). These comments assert Kumaravadivelu's (2008) stance on the revised culture instruction:

The task of promoting global cultural consciousness in the classroom can hardly be accomplished unless a concerted effort is made to use materials that will prompt learners to confront some of the taken-for-granted cultural beliefs about the Self and the other. (p. 189)

In line with Kumaravadivelu's (2008) points on appointing a global lay-out for cultural contents of courses are the mottos of English as a lingua franca and English as an international language. These newfound calls for shifting learning objectives, first pursued in the wake of linguistic aspects, i.e. accent, grammar, lexicon, etc..., became gradually prioritized in culture instruction as well. Thus a discernable link can be easily noticed with intercultural competency as one end of the route and English as a lingua franca, grappled with the other end. Among other models proposed for intercultural competency, probably the most inclusive of cultural adaptation is the Byrams' (1997) model. He categorizes his framework as follows:

1. “Knowledge of social groups and their products and practices in one’s own and in one’s interlocutor’s country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction.”
2. *Savoir-comprendre* (understanding): “the ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and to relate it to documents or events.”
3. *Savoir-apprendre/faire*: (learn/do) “the skill of discovery and interaction ability to acquire knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-life communication and interaction.”
4. *Savoir-engager* (involvement): “critical cultural awareness/ political education. An ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in one’s own and other cultures and countries.”
5. *Savoir-être* (being): involves “curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures” (pp. 57–61).

2. Chronological Movements in Teaching Culture

As was previously noted, reflecting cultural notions within language instruction has been dated back to the 1950s and reached to its pinnacle during the 1960s and 1970s. Despite an absence of clear academic representations, as Weninger and Kiss (2013) perceive, yet there exist numerous strategies and techniques in each era reflecting the mostly identified dominated and practiced social and geopolitical views of their age. It is likely that these techniques were formed in the eclectic stages of the diverse theoretical and philosophical trends. Weninger and Kiss (2013) determine three periods associated with teaching culture in EFL contexts, i.e. (a) from the middle of the 1950s to the early 1990s, (b) the one decade span of 1990s, and (c) 2000s onward:

The first period was the infancy of cultural representation with mere focus on target language culture and values, utterly keeping with big C culture norms. Facts about the target language were underlined. Disclaimed by the majorly followed principles of the day, the notion of (for instance English language) EFL did not attract many a teaching standards. Instead ESL methodologies were in vogue, emphasizing that the culture instruction should be undertaken by immersing learners into the target language society and culture. This scheme resembles to Schumann’s (1986) acculturation theory. The aim of cultural similarity was to increase learners’ similarity to the target community and hence exhausting the possibilities of success.

The era of ten years before the turn of the new millennia witnessed an immense evolution with the most lasting effect on the cultural manipulation in ESL and also EFL. Small c culture with the focus on functions and socio pragmatic aspects of language was set as the preferred task of learning. Even some researchers cast doubt on the target language norms and culture, as prodromu (1992) remarks. The summit of this new force lead into the publication of stockpile of research on the ever-increasing notions of inter, cross, and transcultural communicative competence.

The postmodern age is mostly distinguished with the inspiration of critical awareness and the preparation of teachers to inculcate flexibility to learners’ minds (Eryaman, 2006). ‘Critical citizenship’ (Guilherme, 2002, pp. 50–51), ‘intercultural competence of the world citizen’ (Risager, 2007, p. 222), ‘global cultural consciousness’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2008, p. 164), and ‘intercultural citizenship’ (Byram, 2008, p. 157) confirm the objectives of this period. Moving away from classroom procedures and syllabus design, a realized need to educate politically conscious citizens of the world pertained to the prototype of pedagogy in critically committed environment (Eryaman, 2009; Bruce & Eryaman, 2015).

3. Learning Culture through Activity: A View from Sociocultural Theory

In spite of all the efforts Hymes (1972) and the following proponents of communicative competence made to emphasize on enabling learners to enhance critical awareness and engagement with communities that extend beyond their own, the outcome of L2 instruction in EFL contexts have been to some extent unsatisfactory. Magnan (2008) appropriately argues “the unmet challenge then, is that our individual students are members of cultures other than the target ones and their community is that of the foreign classroom” (p. 355). In other words, students while trying to convey their meaning

in EFL settings, mostly depend on their monocultural perspectives failing to adapt to the stereotypical social aspects of the L2 communicative competence models. Thus, what dominates classroom interactions is the utterances made in foreign tongue reflecting only the monoculture of the students. So, we can elaborate on the issue from two perspectives: For one thing learners have possible language tool at their disposal to engage in a communicative action and yet not have the essential understanding of the cultural concepts tying communities together. For another thing, due to the lack of close contact with members of the L2 culture community, learners do not have the necessary role models of the target culture. To address the irregularities of models of communicative competence sociocultural theories of language (SCT) put forward the activity theory, the ways an individual interprets and actualizes activity exists within a constellation of his or her consciousness, which is founded in his or her community.

4. Multicultural Attitude

The term multicultural attitude possibly pertains to the vast related manifestations of change through the context of the learning communities. These changes have been interpreted as desired diversification of learners' attitudes first on the surface level of knowledge and beliefs, then on the emotional beings of the learners. The final outcome of these arrays of change would lead to changes in behavior (Adams & Zhou-McGovern, 1994; Banks, 1999). Arnold (2000) assumes that these three concepts are shaped and controlled under the more comprehensive construction of cultural and moral socialization. Banks and Banks (1995) provided a definition for multicultural education, as follows:

As a concept, idea, or philosophy, multicultural education is a set of beliefs and explanations that recognizes and values the importance of ethnic and cultural diversity in shaping lifestyles, social experiences, personal identities, and educational opportunities of individual groups and nations. (p. 28)

Bennet (1999) took a humanitarian approach to the meaning of multicultural education by emphasizing on the freedom of values and diversity of beliefs. In this view, individual differences, similar acceptance of norms and a thorough synchronization to global community create cornerstones for multiculturalism.

It was not until very recently that Munroe and Pearson (2006) proposed a model for measuring multicultural components geared towards attitudinal change. This model relies on Banks's(1999) transformative approach, a psychological framework that helps with the raise of attitude adaptation to multiculturalism. Banks (1999) used and translated Bloom's (1999) hierarchical taxonomies, i.e. cognitive, affective, and psychomotor to develop the transformative approach components, i.e. know, care, and act. In fact, Banks observed Bloom's(1999) categorization germane to change in attitudes and behaviors. Considering both models, Munroe and Pearson (ibid) favored to deploy Banks's model since it does fit in the multicultural education throughout school curriculum. Munroe and Pearson demonstrated their model by the following Figure:

Theoretical Model of Multicultural Education Applications Based on the Ideologies of Bloom's Taxonomy and Banks's Transformative Approach to Multicultural Curriculum Reform

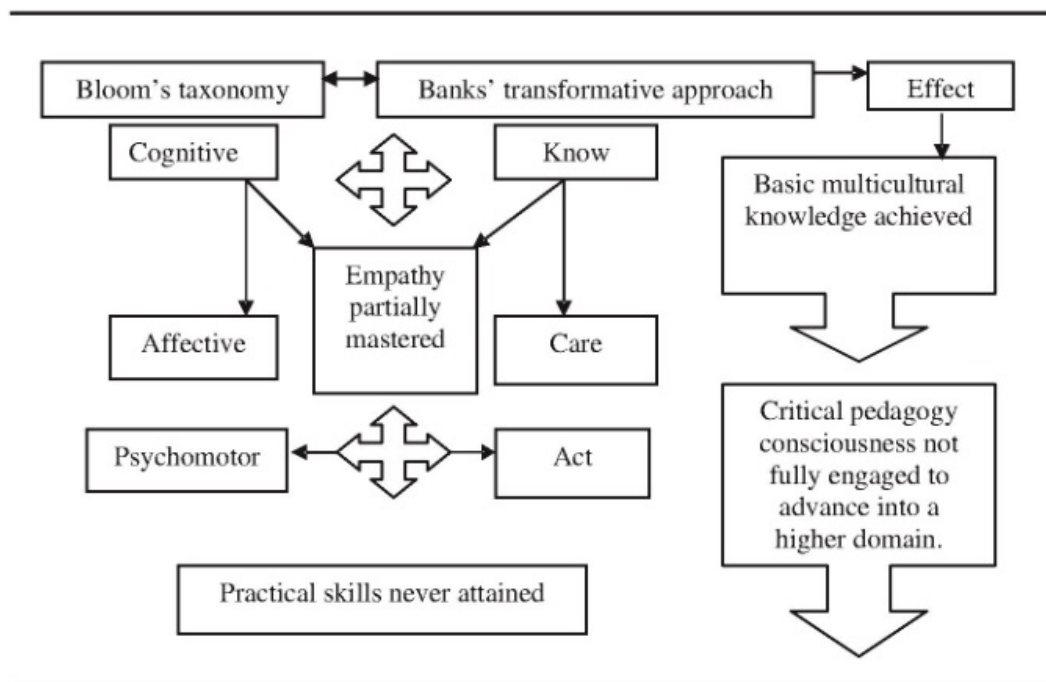


Figure 1: Adopted from Munroe and Pearson (2006)

Based on this model the attitudinal change does not merely occur with the knowledge though it is fundamental. There are two other supplements that are quite necessary, that is, care and act. These two supplements could be rendered to affective and psychomotor in Bloom's (1999) taxonomy. On the account of this addition, the critical awareness might be achieved (far right corner); hence, in order to transform from knowledge to care and act, learners ought to exert effort to engage in activities inherent in their affective and psychomotor inventories (molded by critical pedagogy) towards the desired end of multicultural literacy. Kagan (1995) stresses that the "proper assessment of where a participant lies within the multicultural domains will aid in determining the effectiveness of instruction and if it is conducive to an atmosphere that fosters transformation" (as cited in Munroe & Pearson, 2006, p. 823).

5. Techniques of Culture Presentation

Stern (1992, pp. 224-232) divides the activities into four groups on the basis of the knowledge (concepts), skills (procedures) or behaviour (attitudes) that the activities help to acquire or develop. These activities include: (a) providing cultural information (cultural aside, culture capsule, cultural clusters), (b) solving cultural problems (cultural assimilator), (c) behavioural and affective aspects (audio-motor unit, dramatization, mini-drama, role-play and simulation), (d) real-life exposure to the target culture (pen-pals and tape-pals, visits to the language class by native speakers, visits to other countries and regions).

- The cultural aside involves the teacher's brief presentation of a target culture element.
- The culture capsule is a brief presentation of a target culture element which differentiates the source culture and the target culture, followed by a discussion leading to the explanation of the cultural element concerned.
- A cultural cluster consists of 2-3 capsules. After the study of each capsule these are integrated into a single sequence through activities like drama.
- The cultural assimilator consists of providing the students with a number of episodes related to a behavioural aspect involving a conflict within the target culture context. The presentation of the

problem is followed by four likely explanations, one of which is correct. This is followed by a debate in which the correct option is justified.

- In the audio-motor unit the student follows the teacher's instructions to carry out several actions which represent a relevant scene in the target community, e.g. how to behave during a meal.

6. Explicit Instruction of L2 Culture's Features

There are quite a few studies that emphasize on the significance of explicit reformulation of concealed cultural agenda of L2. To mention but a few, we can consider Tang (1999), Risager (1991) and more recently Roberts (2009) views about how the sensitivity towards implied L2 culture differences could bring about most likely highest levels of interaction with native speakers of a foreign language on the one hand, and underestimation of these differences might engender miscommunications and further confusions on the other. Also, Hoyos Perez (2012) found the advantages of explicit L2 culture instruction. Furthermore, he investigated classroom procedures of tasks and activities for social expressions and culturally related issues to a situation in either C1 or C2 (ibid).

Regarding cultural knowledge, Kramsch, Cain, and Murphy-Lejeune (1996) considered few reasons for the necessity of the inclusion of cultural knowledge in L2 classes. First, cultural knowledge reflects unfamiliar complexities as much as communication and language teaching. Second, the explicit knowledge of L2 culture aids in avoidance of stereotyping. The last prime reason they proposed considers its facilitative role aligned with language in the progress of instruction, to the benefits of both learners and teachers.

The Purpose of the Study

Throughout this study, the researchers attempted to measure the advanced proficiency level learners' multicultural adaptation via culture capsules in the form of video exposures. Different techniques were studied and eventually researchers adopted explicit and implicit instruction of cultural exposure. The video clips were chosen carefully to demonstrate small c L2 culture components, i.e. the reflections of customs, traditions, and lifestyles of native L2 community. Besides, what is new to cultural studies i.e. an instrument for measuring multicultural attitudes of the learners, were used as a distinctive feature in order to investigate transformations of EFL learners' perspectives on the target culture norms. Thus the following research questions were formulated to guide this study:

- Q1) What is the difference between explicit and implicit instructions of culture capsules in raising Iranian EFL learners' multicultural knowledge?
- Q2) How different are the explicit and implicit instructions of culture capsules regarding Iranian EFL learners' multicultural care?
- Q3) What is the difference between explicit and implicit instructions of culture capsules in developing Iranian EFL learners' multicultural act?

Method

Participants

A total of 43 EFL learners were chosen for this study. Thirty of the participants were male and 13 of them were female. All the participants were native speakers of Farsi, learning English as the foreign language at Safiran and Shoukoh language centers. These students fit to the age range of 21-37. All of the participants were at the Advanced level of proficiency according their past record on FCE (First Certificate in English) test. The reason for the selection of these groups of the language learners was the researchers' focus on narrowing the scope of the study to adult language learning.

Materials and Instruments

Visuals were the major materials the researchers exploited with the aim of transferring L2 culture consistent with the thematic manifestations. To employ themes relevant to L2 community of native speakers, researchers made use of six main themes (repetitively shown to the learners through random time intervals and various excerpts of videos) as the hallmarks of English speaking country

(e.g. United States). Each extract was embedded with single cultural realization related to only one of the six themes to avoid probable complications and wrong associations likely to be made on part of the learners. The aforementioned themes included: Baby Shower, Halloween, Christmas, Game, attitude towards Black-American and famous target culture heroes depicted in movies and animations. Table (1) illustrates each theme and the title of the videos used:

Table1: *Different Audiovisual Inputs*

Themes	Movies
Christmas	Home Alone and How I Met Your Mother (Comedy), It's a Wonderful Life, Arthur Christmas (Family & Kids), You've Got Mail(comedy drama)
Halloween	How I Met Your Mother (Comedy)
Baby Shower	How I Met Your Mother (Comedy), Breaking Bad (Crime drama)
Game	War of the Worlds (Action-Adventure, Fiction), field of dreams movie (Sport)
Heroism	Batman series, Rocky series, Top-Gun, White house down (Action-Adventure)
Black Americans	Red Tails (Action), The Butler (Drama), To Kill a mocking Bird (Drama)

The instrument used to measure the multicultural attitude of the learners was Munroe and Pearson's (2006) questionnaire (MASQUE). The questionnaire has 18 items, 7, 6, and 5 items for Know, Care, and Act, respectively and the choices have been arranged in six point likert scale items; from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

MASQUE is theoretically based on Banks's(1999) transformative approach; it incorporates the key components of Banks's model, i.e. 'Know', 'Care', and 'Act'. The main reason to choose this model over the other frameworks was that it aimed at evaluating the multi-layered variables of culture attitude (Know, Care, Act).This helped the researchers to indicate the source and strength of the learners' multicultural adaptation to the L2 culturally provoked situations. In this model, 'knowledge' refers to the first and the lowest category of encounter with L2 culture. This knowledge may be established in cognitive thoughts, beliefs and perceived facts .The second and more important stage is the 'care'. This denotes affective analysis of the object, either in positive or negative manner. The third and the most important level is known as 'act'. This is the desired outcome of multicultural literacy whereby L2 learners can not only comprehend and analyze, but also negotiate with the foreign culture and respond to it appropriately.

Running the measurement of the reliability of the questionnaire through Cronbach's Coefficient alpha, the reliability was .74 for this study.

Table2: *Reliability Statistics*

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.746	.842	18

Data Collection Procedure

The data collection procedure in this experimental study started with the permission of the authorities in language centers (different branches of Shoukoh & Safiran language centers) in order to select two groups of language learners through cluster sampling to fulfill the aim of the present study. The desired groups of language learners were selected based on the following objectives:

1. Level of proficiency (Advanced Level)
2. Age range (Adult Language Learners)
3. Nature of the course (Speaking)
4. Direct contact with native speakers (None)

After the selection of the two groups of language learners, the researchers distributed the MASQUE to both groups of participants to start the pre-test stage of the treatment. The language learners were to complete the Likert scale items in 20 minutes. During the item completion, the instructor (one of the researchers) helped the language learners to dissolve the probable ambiguity and he also carefully checked their full cooperation for the completion of every single item. After the completion of the aforementioned questionnaire, the instructor started the explicit and implicit instruction of the culture capsules through multimedia resources. These culture capsules were all related to the American culture and the multimedia resources were sorted out to support the input for the class activities. Due to the lack of time and prevention of other factors' interference, the hint and input for the culture capsules were extracted from the main movies listed in Table (1). The first group of language learners (21 participants) (G1) received both the input and the explicit instruction of these elements by their teacher. This explicit instruction was accompanied by the full description of the target culture capsules. And, the second group, consisted of 22 learners, (G2) received just the exposure to the American culture capsules as the implicit instruction and the teacher description was substituted by the having more exposure to media sources. After having played all movie sequences and described the related culture capsules (for G1) during 21 class sessions, the researchers used the same questionnaire to track probable changes in the learners' level of cross-cultural attitudes.

Data Analysis

This study used both descriptive and inferential statistic. The inferential statistical analysis was conducted through one-way MANOVA. In this regard, a one-way MANOVA was run before the intervention of the treatment to check whether both groups, which have been selected for the study, are homogenous regarding multicultural attitude. Simultaneously, Levene's test of the homogeneity of the variance and Box's test of the homogeneity of the covariance were conducted in order to fulfill the assumptions of MANOVA. At post-test, another one-way MANOVA was used to indicate the existence of significant difference between the scores of two different groups. In addition, the test of between-subject effects is used to show the significant differences with regard to multicultural attitude subscales. These quantitative data were gathered and analyzed through SPSS16.

Result

In this section, the researchers report the findings of the implicit and explicit instruction of the culture capsules on EFL learners' multicultural attitudes. The first group (G1) received the explicit instruction and the second group (G2) was exposed to the implicit instruction of the theme-based culture capsules. Before running the treatment and testing the hypotheses, the one-way MANOVA was assigned to check whether the two groups who were supposed to receive the input are homogeneous in relation to their multicultural attitudes in the very beginning of the study.

The homogeneity of the covariance was analyzed through Box's test on all subscale of the multicultural attitude. As presented in Table (3), the non-significant result of Box's M indicates the homogeneity of the covariance matrices ($p>0.05$).

Table 3: *Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices^a*

Box's M	6.193
F	.950
df1	6
df2	12102.089
Sig.	.458

1. Pre-test

The descriptive statistics regarding the dependent and independent variables were provided in Table (4) below:

Table 4: *Descriptive Statistics for Learners' Multicultural Attitude at Pre-test*

	Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Know	G1	24.2381	2.27826	21
	G2	23.7727	2.15874	22
	Total	24.0000	2.20389	43
Care	G1	21.2857	3.67618	21
	G2	22.0909	2.38865	22
	Total	21.6977	3.07474	43
Act	G1	16.0000	1.61245	21
	G2	16.0455	1.81206	22
	Total	16.0233	1.69717	43

A brief inspection of Table (4) shows that the mean score of the first group (M=24.23) regarding the multicultural knowledge was more than the second group's (M= 23.77). Per contra, the mean score of the second group is higher (M=22.09) regarding multicultural care. And, the mean score of the first (M= 16.00) and second group (M=16.04) regarding the multicultural act was approximately the same. The standard deviation shows that the first group enjoyed the highest diversity in multicultural care subscale (SD=3.67) whereas the lowest diversity is related to the same group in multicultural subscale (SD=1.61).

A one-way MANOVA was used to compare the means of the two groups, G1 and G2, at the pre-test stage of the study to identify their potential on different subscales of multicultural attitude scale, namely multicultural knowledge, multicultural care and act before conducting the treatments on the selected groups.

Table 5: *Multivariate Tests^b*

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.997	4277.365 ^a	3.000	39.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.003	4277.365 ^a	3.000	39.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	329.028	4277.365 ^a	3.000	39.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	329.028	4277.365 ^a	3.000	39.000	.000
Groups	Pillai's Trace	.040	.537 ^a	3.000	39.000	.660
	Wilks' Lambda	.960	.537 ^a	3.000	39.000	.660
	Hotelling's Trace	.041	.537 ^a	3.000	39.000	.660
	Roy's Largest Root	.041	.537 ^a	3.000	39.000	.660

According to Table 5, there was not a statistically significant difference between the first (G1) and second group (G2), $F(3, 39) = .537, p = .66$. This result is revealed through Wilks' Lambda tests. This can be suggested that there is no significant difference between the selected groups before the treatments. Thus, this shows that both groups are homogeneous regarding their multicultural attitude.

2. Post-Test

The descriptive statistics including the mean, standard deviation, and the number of subjects have been reported in Table.6 below. Table (6) shows the effect of the instruction of the culture capsules with the explicit (G1) and implicit (G2) orientations.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics

Groups		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Know	G1	27.7727	3.11573	22
	G2	24.8571	2.12804	21
	Total	26.3488	3.03067	43
Care	G1	23.6364	4.54130	22
	G2	21.1905	2.73165	21
	Total	22.4419	3.92369	43
Act	G1	17.4545	3.23268	22
	G2	16.3333	1.93218	21
	Total	16.9070	2.70638	43

Table (6) demonstrates that the mean score of the G1 (M= 27.77) is higher than the second group (M=24.85) with regard to multicultural knowledge. The participants of the first group enjoyed the higher level of multicultural care (M=23.63) and multicultural act (M=17.45). In order to identify whether these differences are statistically significant, the findings are presented in the following Tables (7-8). In this regard, the effect of the treatment on both groups, through inferential statistics, has been depicted.

Table 7: Multivariate Tests^b

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis		
				df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.995	2402.603 ^a	3.000	39.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.005	2402.603 ^a	3.000	39.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	184.816	2402.603 ^a	3.000	39.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	184.816	2402.603 ^a	3.000	39.000	.000
Groups	Pillai's Trace	.345	6.850 ^a	3.000	39.000	.001
	Wilks' Lambda	.655	6.850 ^a	3.000	39.000	.001
	Hotelling's Trace	.527	6.850 ^a	3.000	39.000	.001
	Roy's Largest Root	.527	6.850 ^a	3.000	39.000	.001

To test whether there is a significant difference between two groups regarding the three dependant variables, the analysis of one-way MANOVA was applied. The result of the one-way MANOVA at the post-test stage of the study indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between (different) the groups that had received two different treatments, Wilks' $\lambda=.655$, $F(3,39)=6.85$, $p<.05$.

Table 8: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Know	91.332 ^a	1	91.332	12.718	.001
	Care	64.276 ^b	1	64.276	4.525	.039
	Act	13.507 ^c	1	13.507	1.883	.177
Intercept	Know	29760.356	1	29760.356	4144.121	.000
	Care	21589.857	1	21589.857	1520.076	.000
	Act	12265.786	1	12265.786	1709.830	.000
Groups	Know	91.332	1	91.332	12.718	.001
	Care	64.276	1	64.276	4.525	.039
	Act	13.507	1	13.507	1.883	.177
Error	Know	294.435	41	7.181		
	Care	582.329	41	14.203		
	Act	294.121	41	7.174		
Total	Know	30239.000	43			
	Care	22303.000	43			
	Act	12599.000	43			
Corrected Total	Know	385.767	42			
	Care	646.605	42			
	Act	307.628	42			

a. R Squared = .237 (Adjusted R Squared = .218)
 b. R Squared = .099 (Adjusted R Squared = .077)
 c. R Squared = .044 (Adjusted R Squared = .021)

Table (8) indicates several significant effects in the dependent variables after the implementation of the treatment. Statistically significant effects were identified in two subscales of multicultural attitude: a. Multicultural knowledge, $F(1, 41) = 12.71, p < .05, \eta^2 = .237$; b. Multicultural care, $F(1, 41) = 4.52, p < .05, \eta^2 = .099$. These results are not, however, applicable to Multicultural act, $F(1, 41) = 1.88, p > 0.05, \eta^2 = .044$.

Discussion

Aside from Linguistic competence, L2 cultural element pushes the process of L2 proficiency one step forward. As it is obviously put by Central European Framework of Reference (CEFR, 2001), sociolinguistic competence provides strategies on the appropriate use of language. Hence, the cultural awareness of learners cannot be underestimated. The preliminary results obtained from the analysis of data revealed that there is indeed a various level of multicultural gain between the two groups. Researchers in the current study found that explicit instruction, on the whole, lead to broader and more efficient multicultural attitude. This is in line with the result of Hoyos Perez's (2012) study in which the researcher investigated the role of explicit instruction of L2 culture.

The results of the study related to the first research question indicated significant differences on the knowledge component of multicultural attitude scale. That is, the group received explicit L2 culture capsules treatments fared better than their implicitly instructed fellow students. Irrespective of EFL/ESL arguments, this is quite clear that knowledge provides human beings with the prerequisite underpinnings of later on practiced performances. As the skill of driving a car demands prolonged hours of exposure to introductory theoretical inputs prior to the real experience of driving, sociolinguistic competence flourishes if only embedded with inputs or knowledge of appropriate language use. The issue in debate is whether the explicitly treated learners tend to perform with higher levels of L2 culture sensitivity or, those who received the implicit inputs. The example of learning to

drive a car may enlighten the case. Having the privilege of being taught by a driving instructor could, indeed, reduce the process of not only acquiring the major regularities of the skill, but also helping the trainees to gain awareness over minor details. Likewise, within an EFL context of L2 instruction numerous experts in the field vouched for the explicit exposure of L2 culture knowledge. A case in point is Kramsch, Cain, and Murphy-Lejeune (1996) who declared the prominence of explicit inclusion of knowledge to the local core of L2 venue, i.e. classrooms. Although the cultural features chosen are not completely the manifestation of the intercultural communication, they can narrow down the scope of the study and, also, show the feasibility of the application of culture capsules. In other words, the knowledge over all elements of culture may be far-fetched but the simulation of some highlighted features may indicate the teachability of the pattern. In this case, the result of the present study regarding the first research question (What is the difference between explicit and implicit instructions of culture capsules in raising Iranian EFL learners' multicultural knowledge?) does demonstrate that cultural awareness can be achieved through simple education. As Kumaravadivelu's (2008) puts it, knowledge of our and others' norms is the prerequisite for the intercultural communication. Knowledge and its importance as the rudimentary step for the development of the positive multicultural attitude can be assured through a minimalistic perspective.

The second research question (How different are the explicit and implicit instructions of culture capsules regarding Iranian EFL learners' multicultural care?) aimed at analyzing differences, if any, between explicit and implicit instruction of L2 cultural care or sensitivity. The result of the post-test analysis showed that the learners in the explicit group treatment developed sharper adaptation to the world of multicultural values and beliefs. These beliefs have been categorized and studied by Van Der Zee and Qudenhoven (2001) as Multicultural Personality Traits (MPTs). Following this line of research, the researchers in the current study employed the model proposed by Munroe and Pearson (2006), which highlighted Care as the critical consciousness of L2 cultural dimensions characterizing native speakers of L2. Based upon the definitions and the specifications explicated for these two frameworks, we can observe reasonably similar association between Care component and MPTs. The result of the current study can be compared with the findings of Khatib and Samadi Bahrami (2013) regarding learners' gains in intercultural sensitivity. In their study, they concluded that MPTs levels soar as the learners reach higher stages of linguistic proficiency, i.e. increased knowledge determines a more reflectively organized inventory of socio-affective awareness. In fact, the similar pattern was noted in the present study. Researchers refer to the sensitivity towards the target culture, that is, the American one. In this case, one should also pay attention to the fact that researchers no longer emphasize on American norms but one has to find a 'criterion' for a clear judgment based on the result of the study. American culture, by all its demerits, is just one example of the intercultural communication.

The last question raised in the present study addressed the realized efficacy of explicit and implicit exposure of L2 learners to multi-culturally imbued behaviors (Acts) of learners toward a foreign language. According to the gathered results, contrary to the other two components of multicultural attitude scale, i.e. knowledge and care, there was not any significant difference between the two treatment groups. Notwithstanding which one of the methods of instruction is adopted, the probable cause to this conspicuous lack of L2 culture psychomotor realization in learners' behaviors might be clarified through perceiving the learners' needs to maintain their L1 identity, and thus their tendency to refrain from utterly acting upon L2 culture norms when establishing interaction with native speakers of L2. Another ongoing debate which is worth considering pertains to glocalization of foreign languages in EFL contexts of learning. This new movement in the postmodern era cannot however, impair the learners' knowledge and reflections on the probable diversified signals of L2 culture. The trend has been attested and witnessed mostly by EFL teachers during the students' classroom free linguistic productions, whether spoken or written. On these very much frequent occasions, majority of L2 learners resort to their L1 encoded signals to communicate their ideas. As a conceivable example, this happens when learners are required to produce an oral or written output on the food culture capsule and to the theme of a food they like. In this sense, the behavioral aspect of multicultural attitude and its result in the present study shed light on the new trend in education. In

this regard, researchers should follow a dynamic pattern to concretize our models related to multicultural attitude and its real manifestation through the purposeful interaction.

Although the researchers of the present study made every effort to consider all aspects of multicultural attitude and the ways by which one can foster the positive multicultural attitude, this was not fully achieved due to following reasons:

1. Devising an instrument to raise the level of positive multicultural attitude towards the foreigners in EFL contexts is a demanding activity because one no longer confronts a direct pattern of interaction. Rather, one faces different underlying factors that should be taken into account. Although the researchers of the present study aimed at showing the difference between explicit and implicit group regarding multicultural knowledge and sensitivity, the failure in multicultural behavior may show that the gate is still open to decipher the last component of multicultural attitude.
2. We did consider the American norms as the target culture and we directed all concerns to American culture and its highlighted features. The ultimate goal of the present study was to provide a valuable criterion. In this case, the best example may be the American culture that broadens its scope around the world. The concept of 'World Englishes' as the new trend does advocate the multiple sources of culture and norms in the realm of English language. The study tends to narrow down the scope of study to just one cultural norm due the familiarity of the students and the instructor with the aforementioned culture, which can have an effect on its generalizability.

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Examining Preschool and First Grade Teachers' Opinions on the Effects of School Readiness to Classroom Management

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to examine preschool and first grade teachers' opinions on the effects of school readiness to classroom management. The participants of this research consisted of the 18 preschool and 22 first grade teachers who work at public and private schools in the cities of Konya, Ankara and Kayseri in Turkey. Phenomenological research design is used in this qualitative study. In order to identify the opinions of the preschool and first grade teachers on the effects of school readiness to classroom management, an interview form comprised of open ended questions developed by the researchers was used. The data is gathered from the teachers' answers given to the structurally prepared questions and the collected data is analysed through content analysis method. The result of the research shows that both the preschool and first grade teacher groups expressed that level of readiness has an impact on classroom management. The teachers in both groups have stated that it is observed learning difficulty in children with low level of readiness and boredom and impatience in children with higher level of readiness. At the end of this research the necessary suggestions were given according to the obtained findings.

Keywords: School readiness, classroom management, preschool teacher, primary school teacher

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Introduction

Education is the process of creating desired changes in individual's behaviours through their own lives. Immediate environment and school get involved in this process which starts in babyhood with the family. Education for the child in the family proceeds spontaneously whereas at schools a classroom environment organized physically and socially well and a qualified teacher who can carry out the curriculum in this environment are needed. All these components create the need of classroom management.

Çetin (2013) identified the classroom management as "preparing the necessary environment and the conditions by the teacher in order to perform an effective teaching-learning process in the classroom and thus accomplish the desired educational success" (p.300). The most essential element of an effective classroom management is the teacher. A teacher who wants to be successful in classroom management has to regard the student as an individual in the first place. Since the different features of the students affect the classroom management in various ways, the students' needs and interests should be taken into account. Taking the students' features which affect the classroom management in different ways into account, we come across with the students' physical characteristics, socioeconomic and sociocultural status, perception of self, social and emotional growth and their readiness which consists of all these features (Aydın, 2013; Güven, 2012; Gezgin, 2009; Özgan et al., 2011; Çubukçu and Girmen, 2008; Yeboah, 2002).

The readiness of the children is essential in classroom management. According to Teke (2010), the readiness is the child's being ready to conduct an activity in terms of cognition, affectivity, language and social and psychomotor growth. It is a complicated notion which comprises of various supplementary elements and progresses by the help of the close mutual effect of learning and growing.

Chronologically, coeval children might have different characteristics in developmental terms. Thus, considering the factors affecting a readiness, we come across with physical health and motor development, social and emotional development, learning approaches, language development, cognitive development and general knowledge (Kahraman Bağçeli, 2012). A child with lack of readiness may experience several problems in the classroom at any level of education. Teachers should get to know children and follow up their development in both preschool and elementary school periods (Kutluca Canbulat and Tuncel, 2012; Yaman, 2010; Güven, 2012; Clark and Zygmunt-Fillwalk, 2008; Erkan, 2011a; Harman and Çelikler, 2012, Özgan and Tekin, 2011). For example, a child who starts elementary school at an early age and whose impulse control has not well developed yet is likely to have difficulty in maintaining behaviour control, taking turns, getting in line, sitting up in the classroom for almost 50 minutes, focusing for a long time or following the rules. Being unable to conduct these tasks, the child would get restless. The first sign appearing in such a case would be child's getting over active. Since this over activeness would create problems in the learning environment, the attention spans of the other children would diminish as well and their motivation would decline. In another example, a child with insufficient level of self-care skills may have plenty of problems at the kindergarten when the child has difficulty in using the toilet or feeding himself, classroom management would be adversely affected by this (Türk Tabipleri Birliği, 2012).

It is possible that children whose readiness levels are high have more successful education life than children whose readiness levels are low (Chan, 2012). Harman and Çelikler (2012) stated that children whose readiness levels are high comprehend the subjects faster and become readier to learn the next subject. However, Dağlı (2012) has found out that children who start elementary school one or two years later than they should have lower academic success than children who start at proper age when they are all at third grade.

Researches show that the biggest responsibility on a child's getting ready to elementary school lies in families and preschool education institutions (Esaspehlivan, 2006; Ülku, 2007; Çelenk, 2008; Koçyiğit, 2009; Kayılı and Arı, 2011; Erkan, 2011a). The readiness of the children should be evaluated correctly by both families and teachers. For example, Boz (2004) has discovered in a research on surveying the school readiness of six-year-old children in terms of the opinions of the parents and teachers that the preschool teachers care about the children's social and communicative skills in terms of their readiness whereas the parents care more about their academic success. Lara-Cinisomo et al.(2008) have reached a conclusion in their researches among teachers that it is very important for the families that they support their children in all areas of development and that the teachers coordinate with the families in terms of the readiness of the children.

Şahin, Sak and Tuncer (2013) think that one of the aims of the preschool education is preparing the children to elementary school based on their study with preschool and primary school teachers. The primary school teachers suggested the preschool teachers that they should be in touch with the first grade teachers support the readiness with entertaining activities and choose activities that are suitable for all areas of development.

Readiness is related with the consistency of a child's skills with the instruction method. The purpose in classroom management is to increase success by creating suitable learning environments for children. Teachers should design their curriculum based on the childrens' level of readiness (Eryaman, 2010). However, curriculum is designed according to a single age group (education-equity.org) which highlights the importance of teachers' classroom management styles and attitudes towards readiness.

One of the aims of the preschool education is preparing the children for elementary school (MEB, 2013). For this aim, it is important to obtain ideas of preschool and primary school teachers' on classroom management and to organize the programmes according to these ideas for raising the quality of education. When the body of literature is analysed, it is seen that there are numerous researches on the importance of readiness in education, the effect of preschool education to readiness and on the opinions of the preschool and first grade teaches about readiness (Ülku, 2007; Boz, 2004; Esaspehlivan, 2006; Harman and Çelikler, 2012; Kahraman Bağçeli, 2012; Koçyiğit, 2009; Teke, 2010). Dereli (2012) compared the preschool teachers' and first grade teachers' opinions on preparation process to elementary school, but did not evaluate the effect of this issue to the classroom management. Özgan and Tekin (2011) investigated the teachers' opinions on the effect of the readiness levels of the students to the classroom management only in terms of primary school teachers. However, there is not a research which includes both preschool and primary school teachers' opinions at the same time on the effect of readiness to classroom management. In this research, comprehending the effects of children's readiness to classroom management and acquiring the opinions of our valuable teachers who could tell us their own life experiences on this subject are aimed.

Method

The Method of the Research

Phenomenological research design is used in this qualitative study. According to Büyüköztürk, Kılıç Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel (2013), "the phenomenology model focuses on the facts which we are aware of but do not have a detailed and profound understanding and data sources are individuals or groups that live the fact focussed by the research and externalize or reflect this fact." (p.20). The reason for using the phenomenology model is that the research has been done for the reflection of the effects of the school readiness to the classroom management in terms of the preschool and first grade teachers' point of views and experiences (Büyüköztürk, Kılıç Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel, 2013; Eryaman, Kocer, Kana & Yagmur Sahin, 2013; Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005). Acquiring and comparing the opinions of the preschool and first grade teachers on the effects of school readiness to classroom management was aimed in the research.

Participants

The participants of the research comprised of the preschool and first grade teachers who work at public and private schools in the cities of Konya (n=16), Ankara (n=12) and Kayseri (n=12) in Turkey and who were chosen with the proper sampling methods. All preschool teachers (n= 18) who participated in the research were women and many of them (n=12, 66.6%) have a degree from university. It is seen that the 27.7% of the preschool teachers has 6-10 years of service (n=5), 11-15 years of service and 16 years or more service (n=5). The graduates of the Education Faculty Preschool Teaching are high in number (n=8, 44.4%) in the research. The 33.3% of the preschool teachers who participated in the research work for private nursery schools, whereas the 27.7% of them work for the nursery schools of the elementary schools subject to Turkish Ministry of Education. It was found out that the maximum number of children in the preschool teachers' classes is between 16 and 20 (n=14, 77.7%).

The majority of the elementary school teachers (n=22) consists of female teachers (n=18, 81.8%), whereas the male teachers (n=4) form 18.1% of the group. The 86.3% of the elementary school teachers (n=19) work for private elementary schools, whereas the 13.6% of them (n=3) work for the elementary schools subject to Turkish Ministry of Education. The 63.6% of the teachers (n=14) have been in service for 16 years or more. The 54.5% of the elementary school teachers (n=12) who participated in the research have a degree at university, whereas the 22.7% of them (n=5) have master degree. The graduates of the Education Faculty Elementary School Teaching are high in number (n=15, 68.1%) in the research. It was found out that the number of students in the elementary school teachers' classes is between 26 and 30 at a rate of 40.9%.

Data Collection Tool

In order to identify the opinions of the preschool and first grade teachers' on the effects of school readiness to classroom management, a form developed by the researchers and comprised of open ended questions was used. The data was gathered by obtaining the teachers' answers to the configured questions. While preparing the open ended questions to be asked the teachers, the literature was scanned and by consulting the experts, the content validity was provided. After that by doing an advance study with two preschool teachers and two first grade teachers, the clarity of the questions was checked. At the end of the advance study one of the question was removed from the form. The first part of the form, which included the research questions, consisted of six demographic questions and the second part consisted of nine questions for the preschool teachers and 10 questions for the first-grade teachers.

Data Collection Process

The research data was collected from the preschool and first grade teachers who was working for the public and private schools in the cities of Konya, Ankara and Kayseri during April and May in 2013-2014 academic year. Firstly, the researchers met with the principals and explained the aim of the research and took permission to work with the teachers. The teachers were informed that the participation was based on voluntariness and that the names and the organizations of the volunteers would not be asked and shared at any platform and that the questions would be addressed them only to identify opinions. The teachers who accepted to take part in the research were given the interview form and asked to answer the questions.

Data Analysis

The qualitative research method was used in data analysis and the answers given by the teachers to the open ended questions were analysed by using content analysis technique. Content analysis "is a systematic and replicable technique in which some words of a text are summarized with smaller context categories by codes based on specific rules" (Büyüköztürk et al., 2013, p.240). According to Yıldırım and Şimşek (2005), similar data is gathered in terms of specific notions and themes and interpreted by organizing them to be comprehended by the reader.

The data gathered as a result of the answers given by the teachers to the questions were read repeatedly and some coding categories based on the questions on the research form were generated.

The coding key was formed by scanning the related literature and taking the opinions of the experts. The data collected from the teachers were coded separately by three researchers. The coding was made by using open and closed content, thus the implied meaning and the directly stated notions and expressions were identified as a whole. The research was carried out among the preschool and first grade teachers who work for the public and private schools in three different cities. It enabled to introduce different perceptions and lives (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005). Furthermore, in order to ensure the reliability of the research, direct quotations from the participants was included, member checking was made while making data analysis. The data was coded by three researchers doing Ph.D degree at Preschool Education Department and the results were compared and contrasted. According to Büyüköztürk et al. (2013), the way to overcome the reliability problem is that two researchers' agree with each other at a rate of 80%. While making the data analysis separately, the researchers agreed with each other at a rate of 90%.

First, the data was displayed on the tables by using frequency and percentage. Then, the opinions of the preschool and first grade teachers' on the effects of school readiness to classroom management were included with direct quotations and the collected data was interpreted.

Findings

The answers given by the preschool and first grade teachers who participated in the research can be found in this section as well as the findings gathered in line with these answers.

In the 1st Table there are the answers of the teachers to the question: "What are the elements which affect your classroom management?"

Table 1. *The Elements Which Affect the Classroom Management*

The elements which affect the classroom management	<i>Preschool (N=18)</i>		<i>Primary School (N=22)</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Characteristics of the Teacher	17	94	22	100
Characteristics of the Student	18	100	22	100
Characteristics of the Curriculum	7	39	6	27
Family's Attitude Towards School	9	50	4	18
Physical Properties	11	61	8	36

As it is seen in the 1st Table, all of the preschool and primary school teachers (100%) who participated in the research mentioned the characteristics of the student among the elements which affect the classroom management. In terms of the student's characteristics which affect the classroom management, the half of the preschool and primary school teachers pointed out the need for special education. While 40% of the primary school teachers talked about hyperactivity, the rate for the preschool teachers' talking about this subject is 22%. When looked at the rate of mentioning the behavioural problems, we come across with 33% among the preschool teachers and 27% among the primary school teachers. 27% of the primary school teachers and 17% of the preschool teachers mentioned the readiness of the student.

While all of the preschool and primary school teachers (100%) who participated in the research mentioned the characteristics of the teacher as well, the rate of the preschool teachers who talked about this subject was 94%. It was seen in the research findings that the participants who pointed out teacher's characteristics among the elements which affect the classroom management emphasized the teacher's motivation level, problem solving skills, used disciplines and teaching methods and communicative skills.

While the rate of the preschool teachers who thought that the physical characteristics of the classroom affected the classroom management was 61%, the primary school teachers' was 36%. Among the preschool teachers who mentioned the physical characteristics of the classroom features were mentioned at a rate of 64%, whereas classroom population was mentioned at a rate of 18%. Among the primary school teachers, however, classroom features were mentioned at a rate of 50%, whereas classroom population was mentioned at a rate of 37%. 9% of the preschool teachers and 12% of the primary school teachers mentioned boy-girl ratio in the classroom.

While half of the preschool teachers stated that one of the elements that affected the classroom management was the family's attitude towards school, 18% of the primary school teachers expressed this idea. The rate of the preschool teachers who thought that one of the elements which affected the classroom management was the characteristics of the curriculum was 39%, whereas the rate of the primary school teachers' on this issue was 27%. Among the preschool teachers who pointed out the characteristics of the curriculum as an effect to the classroom management, education policy was mentioned at a rate of 43% and education programmes at a rate of 28%. The primary school teachers, however, expressed the education policies at a rate of 33% and the education programmes at a rate of 17%.

The findings found out by the teachers' answers to the question: "What are the characteristics of the children who affect your classroom management approach?" can be seen in the 2nd Table.

Table 2. *The Characteristics of the Children*

Characteristics of the children	<i>Preschool</i> (<i>N=18</i>)		<i>Primary School</i> (<i>N=22</i>)	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>%</i>
Hyperactivity	8	44	10	45
General health problems	0	0	4	18
Special education needs	4	22	3	17
Attention deficit	2	11	7	39
Lack of motivation	1	5	7	39
Behavioural problems	18	100	9	41
Developmental differences	14	78	12	54
Family characteristics	7	39	0	0

All of the preschool teachers (100%) who participated in the research talked about the behavioural problems among the characteristics of the children who affected the classroom management, whereas the primary school teachers' rate who mentioned this issue was 41%. The teachers talked about notions such as "behavioural problems, disobeying the rules, negative peer communication" when asked what kind of characteristics the children who had behavioural problems showed.

Developmental differences among the children were the most quoted characteristic among the primary school teachers (54%). This characteristic was also frequently quoted by the preschool teachers (78%). When analysing the developmental differences among the children it was seen that the teachers talked about notions such as "social and emotional growth, differences in cognitive development, the children's ages being different and the differences among the school readiness levels of the children."

The 39% of the primary school teachers mentioned attention deficit and lack of motivation in their answers, whereas the 11% of the preschool teachers pointed out attention deficit and the 5% lack of motivation. The 44% preschool teachers and the 45% of the primary school teachers who took part in the research stated that hyperactive children affect classroom management. None of the preschool teachers mentioned children's general health problems in their answers, but the 18% of the primary

school teachers pointed out this issue. Also, there were not any primary school teachers who mentioned family characteristics, whereas 39% of the preschool teachers pointed out this issue. When analysing the characteristics of the children about their families, we came across with the notions such as “families’ attitudes towards the school, children of divorced parents, being only child and children exposed to negative family communication.” The 22% of the preschool teachers and the 17% of the primary school teachers expressed that children’s special educational needs affect classroom management.

The participant teachers’ answers to the question: “according to what should the time of starting school be determined?” can be seen in the 3rd Table.

Table 3. School Entry Time

School entry time	<i>Preschool (N=18)</i>		<i>Primary School (N=22)</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Age	6	33	5	23
Readiness	10	56	8	36
Both	2	11	9	41

The 56% of the participant preschool teachers stated that they were of the opinion that the school entry time should be set according to the readiness of the children and the 33% to their ages. The 11% of the preschool teachers, however, expressed that it should be set according to both.

The 41% of the participant primary school teachers were of the opinion that the school entry time should be set according to both the readiness level and age. The 23% of the teachers stated that it should be set according to age and the 36% to the readiness of the children.

The statements of some of the teachers who were of the opinion that “The school entry time should be set according to age” are as follows:

- *“Children who are younger but have high readiness levels have academic problems in the following grades.”*
- *“The period of playing games is essential for the development of a child. Sending a child who gains readiness at an early age means dispossessing his/her period of playing games. Therefore children should not be sent to school before proper age.”*

The statements of some of the teachers who were of the opinion that “The school entry time should be set according to child’s readiness level.” are as follows:

- *“The developments of the same-age children are different.”*
- *“It is a matter of transition from education to instruction in school entry. In order to start learning children should complete their physical development, be independent of self-care skills, be courageous to join social environment, their understanding, perception, listening and expressing skills should be sufficient, they should have problem solving skill, be emotionally in a better situation and have self-management skills.”*

The statements of some of the teachers who were of the opinion that “The school entry time should be set according to both age and child’s readiness level” are as follows:

- *“Readiness level should coincide with age.”*
- *“Readiness is essential for skill development and age for physical development.”*

- *“To me both are needed, because the child can have a productive and qualified education period only if he/she is at proper stage in terms of both age and readiness. According to my observations, the students who are younger but sufficient in terms of readiness could have problems in years when the academic studies become hard.”*

The most repeated statements that the participant teachers made when asked “What is readiness?” are in the 4th Table.

Table 4. *What is Readiness?*

What is readiness?	<i>Preschool (N=18)</i>		<i>Primary School (N=22)</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Showing developmental sufficiency	18	100	22	100
Being at proper age	2	11	3	14
School and teacher’s being ready	0	-	1	4
Motivation	0	-	7	31
Interest and attitude	0	-	1	4

All of the participant preschool and primary school teachers stated that readiness was to show developmental sufficiency. In addition to this, the 11% of the preschool teachers and the 14% of the primary school teachers also pointed out “being at proper age”. The other characteristics that were not mentioned by the preschool teachers but the primary school teachers were school and teacher’s being ready (4%), motivation (31%) and interest and attitude (4%).

Some of the descriptions made by the teachers for the readiness are as follows:

- *“It is the whole of the characteristics brought to the education environment by the child.”*
- *“It is the development of the child’s social, emotional, cognitive, language, and motor skills which will help him/her reach the expected and aimed gains at school.”*
- *“It is the developmentally and individually shown performance of the child in learning process.”*

The answers given by the participant teachers to the question: “What are the indicators of the child’s school readiness?” are in the 5th Table.

Table 5: *Indicators of Readiness*

Indicators of Readiness	<i>Preschool (N=18)</i>		<i>Primary School (N=22)</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Showing sufficiency in development areas	18	100	22	100
Being at proper age	0	-	2	10
Interest and motivation	2	11	1	5
Abilities and skills	0	-	1	5
Pre-learnings	0	-	2	10
Healthy emotional/physiological development	0	-	1	5

All of the participant teachers expressed “showing sufficiency in development areas” as an indicator of readiness. When looked at the teachers’ opinions on developmental aspect of readiness, it is seen that all of the primary school teachers and the 88% of the preschool teachers mentioned social-emotional maturity. Also, the 88% of the preschool teachers and the 50% of the primary school teachers pointed out cognitive maturity. The 83% of the preschool teachers and the 45% of the primary school teachers mentioned the state of showing sufficiency at fine motor skills of children as

an indicator of readiness. The 72% of the preschool teachers and the 23% of the primary school teachers expressed the state of showing sufficiency at standard motor skills. The rate of the preschool teachers who stated physical maturity in general was 61%, and primary school teachers 41%. The 78% of the preschool teachers pointed out the state of showing sufficiency at language skills, whereas only the 23% of the primary school teachers mentioned this subject. The 50% of the preschool teachers and the 27% of the primary school teachers emphasized self-care skills.

The answers given by the participant teachers to the question: “Do the children’s readiness levels affect your classroom management? How?” are in the 6th Table.

Table 6. *Effect of Readiness to Classroom Management*

Effect of Readiness to Classroom Management	<i>Preschool (N=18)</i>		<i>Primary School (N=22)</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
It does	18	100	19	86
It does not	0	-	3	14

According to the Table 6, all of the participant preschool teachers (100%) and the 86% of the primary school teachers stated that the child’s readiness affect classroom management.

The statements of the teachers on how the readiness of the children affect classroom management are as follows:

- *“The children with different readiness levels affect their peers negatively.”*
- *“The children with different readiness levels affect the context of the learning activities.”*
- *“If an activity which is not suitable for the children’s readiness level is carried out, it will be meaningless to talk about classroom management there.”*

The statements of the teachers on the effect of the children with low readiness levels to classroom management are as follows:

- *“The necessity of the preparation of individual programme will increase.”*
- *“The application of the programme will decrease.”*
- *“They affect the communication between the teacher and the other children.”*
- *“Perception and academic success will be low.”*
- *“They have problems in following the instructions.”*
- *“They disturb the classroom management.”*

The statements of the teachers on the effect of the children with high readiness levels to classroom management are as follows:

- *“When working with the children with high readiness levels, success is achieved in classroom management.”*
- *“Education with the children with high readiness levels is a lot easier, a lot more peaceful and entertaining. You immediately or in a short time take what you give. Parents are also aware of this. Teacher – student and parent triangle progresses positively.”*

The findings reached by the answers of the teachers to the questions: “What kind of situations do you come across with the children with low readiness levels in comparison to their peers? How does this situation affect your classroom management?” are in the 7th Table.

Table 7. *Experience with Children with Low Readiness Levels*

Experience With Children With Low Readiness Levels	<i>Preschool (N=18)</i>		<i>Primary School (N=22)</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Child aspect	18	100	22	100
Peer aspect	9	50	3	14
Teacher aspect	2	11	3	14
Process aspect	12	67	15	69

All of the participant teachers mentioned that the situations that they came across with the children who had low readiness levels were the situations that they experience directly with the child. The 69% of the primary school teachers and the 67% of the preschool teachers stated that the situations that they came across with the children with low readiness levels affected the education process. The 50% of the preschool teachers and the 14% of the primary school teachers mentioned that the situations that they came across with the children with low readiness levels were the situations that the children experienced with their peers (class mates). The 11% of the preschool teachers and the 14% of the primary school teachers emphasized the effect of the situations that they came across with the children with low readiness levels to the teachers.

When analysed the child aspect of the situations that the teachers came across with the children who had low readiness levels, the 72% of the preschool teachers and the 50% of the primary school teachers were of the opinion that children with low readiness levels had difficulty in learning. In addition to this, the teachers (33% preschool and 32% primary school) stated that children with low readiness levels had lack of motivation. The rate of the primary school teachers who expressed that the children with low readiness levels had lack of self-confidence was 32% and preschool teachers 28%. Both the preschool teachers (17%) and the primary school teachers (18%) were of the opinion that children with low readiness levels had behavioural problems. The participant preschool teachers (17%) stated that children with low readiness levels were worried at school, whereas the primary school teachers did not comment on this.

Upon analyzing the statements of the teachers on the peer aspect of the situations that the teachers came across with the children who had low readiness levels, it was seen that they mentioned that children with low readiness levels caused distraction in the classroom, negatively affected the other kids, often had problematic situations with those kids and affected the relationship between other kids and teacher.

When analysed the statements of the teachers on the process aspect of the situations that the teachers came across with the children who had low readiness levels, it was seen that they pointed out difficulties with carrying out the curriculum, negative effect to time management, decline of quality in learning environment, necessity of reward and punishment method and necessity of multiple variation of learning methods and techniques.

Some of the statements that the teachers made on their experiences with children who had low readiness levels are as follows:

- *“Children with low readiness levels show little participation, interest and motivation. One-on-one care is needed with these kids. Other kids get bored while waiting them. Last year, one of my students had low level in comparison to his peers. The kid did not know anything (colours, shapes, numbers, etc.). I had difficulty particularly at reading-writing hour and his friends were getting bored while waiting him and starting talk to each other in the classroom. Also, because the child was falling behind in all activities, unfortunately all his friends had labelled him and no matter how hard I tried to prevent, they would not let him join them.”*

- *“I have a student with low readiness level in the classroom. He does not join any activity willingly. He is worried that he will not be successful. Because the preschool students do whatever their peers do in regard to their ages, I have difficulty in carrying out the activities every now and then.”*

The findings reached by the answers of the teachers to the questions: “What kind of situations do you come across with the children with high readiness levels in comparison to their peers? How does this situation affect your classroom management? Can you tell us any experiences?” are in the 8th Table.

Table 8. *Experince with Children with High Readiness Levels*

Experince With Children With High Readiness Levels	<i>Preschool (N=18)</i>		<i>Primary School (N=22)</i>	
	<i>F</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>%</i>
Child aspect	18	100	22	100
Peer aspect	8	44	4	18
Teacher aspect	9	50	0	0
Process aspect	6	33	3	17

All of the participant teachers mentioned that the situations that they came across with the children who had high readiness levels were the situations that they experience directly with the child. The 50% of the preschool teachers emphasized the effect of the situations that they came across with the children with high readiness levels to the teachers, whereas the primary school teachers did not comment on this. The 44% of the preschool teachers and the 18% of the primary school teachers mentioned that the situations that they came across with the children with high readiness levels were the situations that the children experienced with their peers (class mates). The 33% of the preschool teachers and the 17% of the primary school teachers stated that the situations that they came across with the children with high readiness levels affected the education process.

When analyzed the statements of the teachers on the child aspect of the situations that they came across with the children who had high readiness levels, it was seen that the teachers mentioned notions such as “high speed learning, encouraging the peers, high self-confidence, being highly popular among the peers, helping the peers and the teacher, behavioural problems, getting bored and being impatient, lack of harmony with the classroom dynamics.”

When analyzed the statements of the teachers on the peer aspect of the situations that they came across with the children who had high readiness levels, it was seen that the teachers mentioned notions such as “attention deficiency, negative affection, frequently being exposed to problematic situations, pressure, humiliation and model taking.”

When analyzed the statements of the teachers on the process aspect of the situations that they came across with the children who had high readiness levels, it was seen that the teachers mentioned notions such as “disorder of the classroom discipline, increase in efficiency in learning environment, incline of quality in learning environment, having difficulty in time management.”

Some of the statements that the teachers made on the effect of the children who had low readiness level to classroom management are as follows:

- *“While most of the time education is positive with children with high readiness level, since not all the kids are at the same level sometimes we have problems. Children with high readiness levels are understand everything immediately. They finish the activity and wait until other kids understand it. Sometimes this makes them get bored. Thus, they influence other friends and disturb the classroom order. Sometimes they compete to be the first to finish.”*

- “We find solutions by giving extra work and additional activities to this kind of children and by supporting their work without offending other kids.”

One of the primary school teachers quoted a case experienced with children who had high readiness levels as follows:

“I was teaching subtraction at the first grade. I told the students that big numbers couldn’t be subtracted from smaller ones. One of my students said he wanted to tell me something outside the classroom. We went out together. He said that a large number could be subtracted from a smaller one and that the result would be minus something, adding if he had told that in the classroom, his classmates would have got confused.”

The findings reached by the answers of the participant preschool and primary school teachers to the questions: “What do you think about the effect of family over the children’s school readiness? What might be your suggestions to families on this?” are in Table 9.

Table 9. Suggestions to Families

Suggestions to Families	<i>Preschool (N=18)</i>		<i>Primary School (N=22)</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Developing healthy school perception	3	17	4	18
Supporting the child’s development	18	100	22	100
School and family coordination	5	28	6	27
Accurate attitude and approach	4	22	13	60

All of the participant teachers shared the idea that families should support their children’s development in order to increase the children’s readiness levels. The 60% of the primary school teachers and the 22% of the preschool teachers suggested that families show accurate attitude and approach to their children. Other suggestions made by the teachers were ensuring the coordination of school and family (preschool: 28% and primary school: 27%) and developing healthy school perception for children (preschool: 17% and primary school: 18%).

The examples of the statements of the teachers on their suggestions to families are as follows:

- “They have to know their children very well, learn their growth process and support them.”
- “The more the families coordinate with the teachers, the more they receive positive results.”
- “Families should give responsibilities to their children, they shouldn’t interfere in their lives as much as possible and trust them.”

The findings reached by the answers of the participant primary school teachers to the question: “What might be your suggestions to preschool teachers in terms of school readiness?” are in Table 10.

Table 10. Suggestions to Preschool Teachers

Suggestions to Preschool Teachers	<i>Primary School(N=22)</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Curriculum aspect	22	100
Assessment-evaluation aspect	3	14
Attitude and approach	4	18
Relations with family	5	23
Field competence (accurate teaching)	8	36

As it is seen in Table 10, all of the participant primary school teachers (100%) made suggestions to preschool teachers in terms of the curriculum aspect. Other suggestions made by the primary school teachers were field competence (36%), relations with family (23%), attitude and approach (18%) and assessment-evaluation aspect (14%).

When analysing the teachers' suggestions on the aspect of curriculum, it was seen that they expressed notions such as 'teaching school life and rules, ensuring the development of positive school perception, supporting the language development, supporting the social and emotional growth, supporting the mental development, pre-studies for reading and writing, satisfying their game needs, increasing the readiness level'.

When analysing the teachers' suggestions on the aspect of assessment and evaluation, it was seen that they expressed notions such as 'identifying and reporting the learning needs of the children, making assessments on readiness level, revealing individual differences'.

When analysing the teachers' suggestions on the aspect of attitude and approach, it was seen that they made statements such as 'children should be given more responsibilities, ensuring children make the activities themselves and not presenting the teachers' output as children's, not being worried academically, obeying the limits of the curriculum, being a positive role model to kids'. On family education, the teachers said: 'The teacher should educate the parents first and ensure that they have the positive part in kid's education.

When analysing the teachers' suggestions on the aspect of relations between teachers and family, it was seen that they made statements such as 'families should be informed correctly and promptly about the developmental characteristics of their children, families should be instructed correctly about the developmental needs of children, effective and efficient family education should be provided'.

When analysing the teachers' suggestions on the aspect of field competence, they said 'whatever they teach, they should teach correctly and accurately. Inaccurate teachings cannot be reversed.' They also made statements such as 'they should properly teach to hold pencil, to paint, to write numbers and letters, they should teach correct pronunciation and be careful about inaccurate learnings on any field'

Results and Discussion

If an assessment is made within the context of the demographic data of both preschool teachers and first grade teachers who participated in the research, it can be noted that the findings claimed in this study reveal that the teachers' perceptions and points of view of classroom management and readiness and the relationship between them are in a heterogeneous distribution.

Elements That Affect Classroom Management (According to the Views of Teachers)

When the teachers were asked about their views on the elements that affect the classroom management, it was concluded that regarding the teacher and the student "individual features" came into prominence. Almost all preschool and primary school teachers who participated in the research emphasized the characteristics of the teacher and the student. Özgan and Tekin (2011) found out the same result that the teachers emphasized the characteristic of the student as the most important element which affected the classroom management. Also in the same research, it is concluded that one other important element was the characteristics of the teacher. These results are consistent with the results of this research. While the teachers stated that characteristics of the children were the factors that affected the educational process and classroom management strategies they followed, they also dwelled on the qualitative importance of teacher approaches, in other words, teacher qualities, in terms of managing this process. Based on this, individual characteristics can be said to be the main determining element in the education process emphasized with its "individual focused" aspect in the literature according to teacher opinions.

Classroom management has a strategic importance for quality in terms of education dynamics and efficiency (Akman, 2014). Today, in addition to the basic curriculum set by the Ministry of Education, different teaching approaches come up and there are rapid developments in educational technology and in the practice of role of the families in learning process. According to the teachers' views, the factor that makes the learning process efficient and affects it at the most intense level is student and the teacher; in other words "human" factor. It is believed that this is a very significant result which cites to current education policies in terms of the aims of education and its basic elements.

According to the findings, as the individual differences increased, teachers became in need of developing different strategies of classroom management which involved different approaches. However, it was also seen that the effectiveness of these strategies were said to depend on the characteristics of the teacher. These individual differences were expressed to be hyperactivity, special education needs, behavioural problems and readiness level.

All preschool teachers and almost half (41%) of the primary school teachers stressed that the most effective feature of the students which affected the classroom management was behavioural problems. While the primary school teachers expressed opinion about developmental differences (54%), the preschool teachers also intensely talked about developmental differences (75%). These findings could be read as the preschool teachers might come across individually different kinds of developmental features and behavioural problems at that age period.

While it was noted that the preschool teachers emphasized effectiveness of the family characteristics to the classroom management at a substantial rate (39%), the primary school teachers did not underline the family effect. Yet, it was also noted that all teachers said the family had a very significant importance when asked if they had an effect on the students' readiness level. Erkan (2011b) found out that there was a relation at a significant level between the education level of the mother and readiness level of the child while searching for the effect of the families' educational status to the elementary school readiness of the children. Despite the primary school teachers' views and given the research findings of Erkan (2011b), it is striking that the primary school teachers did not stress the effect of family characteristics to the readiness of the children.

Hyperactivity was another element which both preschool teachers (44%) and primary school teachers (45%) significantly and intensely referred to as a child feature that affected the classroom management. These findings reveal that the hyperactivity has effectiveness on school dynamics at two different learning stages.

While the primary school teachers were monitored to have emphasized attention deficit and motivation equally (39%), the preschool teachers were seen to have emphasized them at a low rate. This can be explained with the fact that since preschool education is a step in primary education, teachers' expectation of motivation was lower than primary school teachers. Özenç and Çekirdekçi (2013) said that teachers had problems particularly with children who started elementary school earlier than they should have. The orientation at preschool education process requires longer and more comprehensive studies than at primary school. Yet, children are expected to start primary school with higher motivation because of the effect of the preschool education. This also emphasizes the importance and the gains of preschool education.

The divergence between the preschool teachers and the primary school teachers on attention deficiency can be explained with the variety of the materials and learning activities in terms of methods, the presence of free time activities, and the curriculum and approach emphasize more on individual developmental needs. While at primary school both the physical conditions and the programme expectations challenge the teachers in terms of the children's individual differences and needs, in preschool education teachers have more flexibility because of the nature of the preschool education and the context of the programme.

The preschool teachers emphasized the effect of programme, family attitudes and physical conditions to the classroom management at a higher rate than the primary school teachers did. At the end of their research, Çelik and Kök (2007) mentioned about the significance of preparing a good physical environment in order to make the students gain desirable behaviours and design an effective learning environment in the classroom. It is particularly important that teachers use the physical environment and the materials effectively when designing the learning process in order to fulfil the interest and motivation needs of the preschool students. Especially the physical features of the classroom were intensely stressed by the preschool teachers. This difference might be said to be based on the basic differences between the preschool and the elementary school education practices in Turkey. In a study by Yilmazer (2003), the children were made to sit on the same kind of desks with a consecutive order in the classroom. It is a well-known fact that this traditional approach still continues in Turkish education system. Also, since the preschool education has a developmental structure because of the nature of the children, the intensity difference between the preschool teachers and the primary school teachers on emphasizing the physical properties is not surprising.

Another element stressed in the opinions of the teachers was the family's attitude towards the school. Yaman (2010) discovered that almost all teachers who participated in his research thought that the primary reason for the problematic behaviour was the family factor. Lara-Cinisomo et al. (2008) stated that the preschool teachers emphasized the effect of the family on the readiness of the children. In the findings of this research it is seen that one of two preschool teachers stressed the family as an important factor to the classroom management and that one of five teachers stressed the family effect. Preschool age children have more intense needs in terms of individual attention and adult support due to their age and development. The difference between the preschool and primary school teachers' opinions can be explained with the fact that in Turkey, preschool parents are trying to be more involved in the preschool education process and they have an over-protective attitude, which highlights the care aspect of preschool education while there is a perception and approach that primary schools are more academical.

The Definition and the Indications of Readiness in the Eyes of Teachers

How the teachers define readiness is one of the sub problems of this research. The teachers said that readiness reflects "all developmental features of the children" and that it differs depending on the individual characteristics.

The frequency of the emphasis of the development areas was followed in the teachers' definitions regarding readiness. All of the primary school teachers mentioned social-emotional maturity in their explanations regarding the indications of readiness. Also, a large number of preschool teachers (88%) mentioned that maturity in their explanations. While the preschool teachers stressed cognitive enhancement at same degree as social-emotional maturity, half of the primary school teachers primarily stressed cognitive enhancement. These findings reveal that the social-emotional maturity level of children is the most determinative element on the strategies of the classroom management. The next notion mostly mentioned by the primary school teachers was the development of fine motor skills (45%). It can easily be said that the emphasis on this developmental area is about children's level of readiness for writing practices and wrongly learnt behaviors that teachers had hard time correcting. In Koçyiğit's (2009) research first grade teachers emphasized social, emotional, physical and cognitive development dimensions while defining readiness and defined them as maturity in terms of skills required at the first grade. The findings gathered in this research are in line with Koçyiğit's (2009) findings.

Uzun and Alat (2014) analysed the opinions of the teachers about the readiness of the children who started the school at an early age in 4+4+4 education system. They revealed that the most problematic situations that the teachers mentioned they had to deal with were physical maturity, coordination, basic concept knowledge, expressing themselves, obeying the instructions and rules and meeting the needs of toilet and cleaning. These findings are consistent with the indications pointed out by the teachers in this research.

As seen in the findings, first grade teachers mentioned more about sound education as well as mislearnings in literacy practices. However, it is also revealed that regarding the indications of readiness, the preschool teachers -different from the primary school teachers- also stressed other areas of development as intensely important. (self-care skills 50%, language skills 78%, gross motor skills 72%, fine motor skills 83%) When the statements of the preschool teachers and the primary school teachers on the indications of readiness are compared, it can be said that the primary school teachers expect more from the preschool education process in terms of reading and writing preparatory work. Yapıcı and Ulu (2010) found out in their research that the most divergent issue between the preschool teachers and the primary school teachers was the preparatory work for reading and writing. This finding can be said to support the comments in the findings of this research. This can be interpreted as the preschool teachers perceive the developments of children as a whole in the context of the programme and preschool period development characteristics. When the primary school teachers' highlighting frequency of self-care (27%), language (23%) and gross motor skills (23%) and their highlighting frequency of cognitive development areas (50%) and social-emotional development areas (100%) are compared, it could be said that the priorities of the teachers are providing the classroom management and reaching the learning targets. This is a remarkable conclusion when the preschool teachers' and the primary school teachers' opinions are compared within this framework.

On the other hand, this finding reveals that the development of self-care, language and gross motor skills of the children who received preschool education are supported more competently in the preschool education period. Erkan (2011a) found that the readiness levels of the children who receive preschool education are much higher than the ones who do not receive.

When the teachers were asked to commentate on the relation between chronological age and readiness, it was observed that the preschool teachers intensely expressed (56%) readiness whereas the primary school teachers suggested that both had to be taken into consideration equally. This might be the effect of the fact that the regulations made by the Ministry of Education regarding the primary school starting age is on top of the agenda. The work made in order to lower the primary school starting age reveals the starting age negatively affects the readiness (Özenç and Çekirdekçi, 2013; Uzun and Alat, 2014). Koçyiğit (2009) explained that readiness differed in reading and being successful at school although the ages were same because children differed themselves in growing process and pointed out that the level of the school starting age did not clear away the developmental differences of children. Koçyiğit (2009) mentioned that the primary school teachers pointed out more things than the age criteria in order to start school. This coincides with the findings in this research.

The Effect of Readiness to Classroom Management According to the Teachers

When the teachers were asked about their opinions on the effect of readiness to classroom management, all preschool teachers and 86% of the primary school teachers answered that it had an effect. This reveals that according to the teachers, readiness has a significant effect on classroom management.

72% of the preschool teachers and 50% of the first grade teachers emphasized the observation that lower readiness leads to difficulty in learning. While the difference between readiness levels of the children who had different learning experiences is high in the preschool education, equality of opportunity at preschool period decreases this difference at primary school. As another observation, "anxiety" was emphasized by the preschool teachers even with a lower ratio but classroom teachers didn't even mention about it. This can be explained with the important effect of preschool education regarding children's school adjustment previous to primary school. While anxiety can be observed in children who start school the first time at preschool education center, the child would adjust to school life by the end of preschool.

The preschool teachers pointed out the effect of low-readiness-levelled children to their peers at a rate of 50% and to the teacher at a rate of 11%. The primary school teachers, however, stressed this effect at a rate of 14% to both peers and teacher equally. This reveals that the preschool teachers

think that the effect of children on their peers is much higher. The fact that since in preschool education process, games are used more frequently as a method, the peer interaction is higher and that in comparison to primary school flexible learning environments take place more often explain this situation.

When the teachers' opinions on the effect of high-readiness-levelled children to classroom management is analysed, it is observed that both teacher groups stressed the impatience and boredom of these children and the effect of these behaviours to the educational process. (44% and 45%) This presents the potential that the teachers allow group-centred and structured learning environments more than individual-centred and flexible semi-structured learning environments.

Teachers' Suggestions on Supporting Readiness

All teachers in both groups suggested that the readiness must be supported developmentally when they were asked about their recommendations for the families on supporting their children's readiness. Yeboah (2002) revealed that level of the school-family cooperation and the families' social-economical wealthiness was an important element for readiness and transition to primary school process. This stresses the families' necessity for being conscious on cooperation with school, following the right attitude and giving the right and rich inspiration to their children. Family support is an important element which affects the process in every stage of education. It is discovered in the findings that the teachers expect families' support especially for the social-emotional skills of the children and children's gain of personal freedom. Both teacher groups stressed the school-family cooperation at nearly same rates (28% and 27%) and suggested the families follow their children's development more closely and consciously. While the preschool teachers' suggestion frequency about developing right attitude and approach to their children was 22%, same frequency for the primary school teachers was 60%. This could be linked with expectation of the primary school teachers about the behavioural characteristics of the children to be at a desired degree at primary school. This expectation is related with the gains achieved in preschool education as previous step. Within this expectation the preschool teachers perceive that as a part of the education process right attitude and approach ability is a skill that families are gaining during the process and that the families have yet to complete the education process concerning themselves. Therefore the points of view on this issue could be regarded as flexible. However, the expectations of the primary school teachers are way higher. Both teacher groups emphasized the families developing healthy school perception for their children at nearly same levels. (17% and 18 %) This reveals that there is an expectation almost at same degree in both stages and could be interpreted as the teachers are of the opinion that schools and teachers have a main role for children to develop a healthy school perception.

The teachers' answers were noted to be programme (100%), assessment and evaluation (14%), attitude and approach (18%), relations with the family (23%) and competence of fields (36) when they were asked about their suggestions to the preschool teachers on developing the readiness of children. Yeboah (2002) pointed out that in order to ease the transition to elementary school and to increase the readiness levels of the children the developmental necessities of the children should be discovered with the assessment and evaluation work and a programme should be planned accordingly. All teachers stressed the programme aspect and suggested to support the development of the children with rich materials and education activities. The most striking aspect here is fields of competence. Primary school teachers particularly emphasized the importance of correct instruction in the sound and pre-writing education and underlined the challenge of reversing the mislearning. Güven (2012) emphasized the importance of the teachers' proficiency levels in both theoretical and practical terms.

The sum up the results obtained from the findings of this study;

- Both preschool and primary teacher groups stressed student and teacher characteristics as the most effective element for classroom management.
- It is found out that all participating teachers described readiness accurately and adequately.
- The primary school teachers most frequently emphasized social-emotional and fine motor skills respectively as the indications of readiness.

- The primary school teachers expect the children to start school life with high motivation and healthy school perception as a result and gain of preschool education.
- Both preschool and primary school teachers think that schools and teachers have a main role for children to develop a healthy school perception.
- The preschool teachers stressed all areas of development at almost the same frequency and intensity level as the indications of readiness.
- The preschool teachers perceive the developments of the children as a whole in terms of the curriculum and the characteristics of preschool period development.
- Both teacher groups mentioned hyperactivity as an important element that affected the classroom management.
- The preschool teachers frequently expressed that the criteria for starting the school was the readiness level, whereas the primary school teachers stated that age and readiness level had to be considered together.
- Both teacher groups stressed that readiness level affected the classroom management.
- Both teacher groups said that they observed challenge in learning as the most frequent case among the low-readiness-levelled children. On the other hand boredom and impatience observed among the high-readiness-levelled children.
- Both teacher groups suggested to the parents that they should support their children's development.
- The primary school teachers recommended the preschool teachers that they should get the children engaged in activities that would support their development.

Suggestions

According to the results of the research:

- In order to increase the awareness of the families on the importance of the readiness, family education programmes should be organized and the school-family cooperation should be provided.
- By more effectively using the assessment and evaluation work especially in the preschool period, the requirements of the children's readiness should be determined and education process plan should be made more qualified within that framework.
- The development portfolio made in the preschool period should be shared with the primary school teachers.
- By the help of the programmes that provide extensive services and will support the children's all development areas, suitable learning environments should be provided to the children whose developments are at risk and the elementary school readiness of those children should be supported.
- For the preschool and primary school teachers, in-service training activities should be organized.
- For the preschool teachers the opportunity of attending the first grade classes as an observer and for the primary school teachers the opportunity of attending preschool education environment as an observer should be created.

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Turkish Version of Students' Ideas about Nature of Science Questionnaire: A Validation Study

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Abstract

Mass assessment of large samples' nature of science views has been one of the core concerns in science education research. Due to impracticality of using open-ended questionnaires or conducting interviews with large groups, another line of research has been required for mass assessment of pupils' nature of science conception meaningfully. Considering these issues, Chen et al. (2013) developed the questionnaire titled Students' Ideas about Nature of Science (SINOS) to evaluate young students' NoS views. This study targeted to translate and adapt SINOS into Turkish with the aim of measuring Turkish middle-school students' nature of science (NoS) views. Analysis results presented confirmation for the reliability and validity of Turkish version of the questionnaire with seven-factor structure as similar to the original questionnaire. The study concluded with recommendations for use of SINOS in Turkish context in order to improve NoS perspectives in national science curriculum.

Keywords: Nature of science, nature of science scale, attitudes toward science, value given to science, validation study

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Introduction

Nature of science (NoS) has been a central topic in many international curriculum movements (e.g. American Association for the Advancement of Science [AAAS], 1990, 1993; Bell, Matkins & Gansneder, 2011; National Research Council [NRC], 1996; Koertge, 1998; Olson, 2008). More recently, NRC (2012) released Next Generation Science Standards in which learning about NoS still has been emphasized. As a result of these reform efforts, NoS has been established as permanent science education objective by many countries including Canada, United Kingdom, and United States and received an increasing emphasis among researchers (Lederman, 2007). Turkey also accepted NoS among the vision of science education in national science curricula since 2004 (MoNE, 2005).

With a well-known definition, nature is described as the epistemology of science or the values and beliefs inherent in the development of scientific knowledge (Lederman, 1992). According to Walls (2012), NoS includes "an individual's beliefs about how scientific knowledge is constructed; where scientific knowledge originates; who uses science (including scientists); who produces scientific knowledge; and most importantly, where the individuals places themselves within the community of producers and users of science" (p. 1). NoS could also be conceptualized as an answer to the question of "what science is, how it works, how scientists operate as a social group, and how society itself both influences and reacts to scientific endeavors as well as the epistemological and ontological foundations of science" (Clough, 2006, p. 463).

Why it is important to help students have improved NoS comprehension is one of the central issues that need consideration. Abovementioned science education reform movements and many science education researchers proposed NoS as a critical component of scientific literacy (e.g., Abd-El-Khalich, Bell & Lederman, 1998; Bell & Lederman, 2003; Bybee, 1997; NRC, 1996). When describing the characteristics of a person who is scientifically literate, Abd-El-Khalick and BouJaoude (1997) underlined science content knowledge proficiency, science processes ability, science-technology-society relationship awareness as well as an improved NoS understanding. After gaining much importance, science education researchers conducted many studies about students' and teachers' understanding of NoS (Kang, Scharmann, & Noh, 2005) as well as ways for improving their understanding of NoS (Matkins & Bell, 2007; Rudge & Howe, 2009). In those and many other studies, NoS was generally considered as having several aspects. Abd-El-Khalick and Lederman (2000) provided seven aspects of NoS which refer to the characteristics of scientific knowledge as tentative, empirically-based, subjective or theory-laden, partially based on human inference imagination and creativity, and socially and culturally embedded. The distinction between observation and inference, and the relationship between scientific theories and laws were also considered as additional aspects for NoS. Lederman (2007) argued that those aspects are not the only NoS aspects and underlined that there may be aspects that can be added or deleted. Not markedly different from this list, Chen, Chang, Lieu, Kao, Huang, and Lin (2013) suggested two additional aspects for NoS; durability and science for girls and boys. Chen et al. (2013) added durability due to the fact that although scientific knowledge is tentative it is yet durable. They also stated that women and men both have a role in development of scientific knowledge, thus they included science for girls and boys as an aspect of NoS in their studies.

A Questionnaire from Learners' Perspectives: Students' Ideas about Nature of Science (SINOS)

Individuals' understanding of NoS is generally measured by open-ended questionnaires. Views of Nature of Science (VNOS) versions (i.e., VNOS-A, Lederman & O'Malley, 1990; VNOS-B, Abd-El-Khalick, Bell, & Lederman, 1998; VNOS-C, Abd-El-Khalick & Lederman, 2000; VNOS-D, Lederman & Khishfe, 2002; and VNOS-E, Lederman & Ko, 2004) are the most used instruments to assess individuals' NoS understandings for almost two decades. Individuals either write their answers to the questions or are interviewed using VNOS versions. Many researchers used these instruments in their studies and provided valuable information to science education research. Chen et al. (2013) discussed that such open-ended questionnaires and interviews help to learn about individuals' NoS views and reveal how students' NoS views change due to interventions. However,

this type of instruments may be impractical under several conditions which led to the development of SINOS. Firstly, it is not convenient to use open-ended questionnaires and interviews with large samples. However, SINOS is a Likert-type scale which makes it easy to administer to larger samples (Chen et al., 2013). Second, although there exist other NoS questionnaires to be used with large samples, they have several drawbacks. For example, some multiple-choice questionnaires do not produce scores for running inferential statistics (e.g., Aikenhead, Flemming, & Ryan, 1992; Kang, Scharmann, & Noh, 2005). However, since SINOS is a Likert type questionnaire, it produces scores which allows performing parametric tests (e.g., t-test and ANOVA) as well as non-parametric tests (e.g., Mann-Whitney U Test). In addition, some other questionnaires are limited in terms of assessing diverse NoS aspects. For instance, Pupils' Nature of Science Scale (Huang, Tsai, & Chang, 2005) assesses only three NoS aspects. In this respect, SINOS assesses seven NoS aspects. A great deal of prior instrument measuring learners' NoS conceptions has been developed based on the assumption that students and experts use the same lens to interpret the phenomena. However, some researchers criticized that students and experts' interpretations and viewpoints could be quite different from each other (Alters, 1997; Jungwirth, 1974; Lederman & O'Malley, 1990). Another gain in development of SINOS is that it was developed based on students' own perspectives and expressions rather than experts' speculations of possible views (Chen et al., 2013). Therefore, it is possible to assert that SINOS represents the perspectives of young students more adequately than existing instruments.

Method

The purpose of this study was to translate and adapt SINOS into Turkish with the purpose of measuring middle school students' conception of NoS. Following research questions guided this study:

1. To what extent is SINOS a valid and reliable instrument to measure Turkish middle school students' NOS views?
2. After controlling for the possible effects of previous achievement and gender, to what extent do the aspects of SINOS predict middle school students' attitudes towards science and value given to science?

Sample

Turkish version of SINOS was administered to 380 middle school students in 4 cities in northeastern region of Turkey. Sample includes 206 girls (54%) and 173 boys (45.5%) and 1 student did not report gender. 104 (27.4%) of these students were in the 5th grade, 158 (41.6%) were in the 6th grade, 46 (12.1%) were in the 7th grade, and 72 (18.9%) were in 8th grade. Students' previous semester science achievement scores in ranged from 31 to 100 with a mean of 75.89 (SD = 15.91). Participants' ages ranged from 11 to 16 with a mode of 12.

Instrument

Original version of SINOS instrument was developed by Chen et al. (2013) using Taiwanese students' NoS views. As stated by Chen et al. (2013), they follow five main stages for ensuring its reliability and validity: (a) considering NOS issues that are closely related to students' experiences of school science, (b) writing draft items based on written responses of students, structured interviews, and excerpts from books, (c) pilot testing the first version of SINOS, (d) conducting item analysis and rewriting problematic items, and (e) retesting the instrument for validation. SINOS consists of 47 Likert-type items in seven NOS aspects. These aspects are named as Theory-Ladenness (9 items), Coherence and Objectivity (11 items), Creativity and Imagination (6 items), Tentativeness (9 items), Durability (6 items), Science for Girls (3 items), and Science for Boys (3 items). Table 1 illustrates descriptions and sample items for each of the aspects of SINOS.

Table 1. Descriptions and sample items for each aspects of SINOS

<i>Aspect: Description</i>	<i>Sample item</i>
<i>Theory-ladenness:</i> Scientists' theoretical dispositions, knowledge, practice and mindset, may manipulate their science practice (Akerson, Cullen, & Hanson, 2009; Lederman, 2007; Rudge & Howe, 2009). Therefore, every scientific study includes subjective components (Bauer, 1992).	“When scientists from different research areas observe ‘the same’ experiment, they are interested in different things and so they make different observations and come to different conclusions.”
<i>Coherence and Objectivity:</i> "Scientists do not pay much attention to claims about how something they know about works unless the claims are backed up with evidence that can be confirmed with logical arguments" (AAAS, 1993, p. 11). In other words, evidence-based explanations should be dominant in science.	“As long as we use the same experiment method, no matter where the experiment is done, the results will be the same.”
<i>Creativity and Imagination:</i> "Science is very much a human endeavor, and the work of science relies on basic human qualities, such as reasoning, insight, energy, skill, and creativity" (NRC, 1996, p. 170).	“I believe that scientists work like artists. They both need creativity and imagination.”
<i>Tentativeness:</i> The knowledge in science is always open to change (Lederman, Abd-El-Khalick, Bell, & Schwartz, 2002) which means it is revolutionary in nature (Khishfe & Abd-El-Khalick, 2002).	“Better theories will be found and will replace some old theories because scientists will invent high technology machines to discover new findings in the future.”
<i>Durability:</i> Even though knowledge in science is open to change, it is also durable (Lederman, 2007). Most of the time, the change in scientific knowledge is partial and limited to the modification of the peripheral concepts of science (Chen et al., 2003).	“Scientific knowledge will not be replaced because it has been proven by experiments and explanations”.
<i>Science for Girls:</i> It is a well-known fact that science does not make gender discrimination. Therefore, it is evident that girls' contribution and participation to science cannot be underrated (Chen et al., 2003).	“Girls have talent for scientific research.”
<i>Science for Boys:</i> Similar to the girls, boys take part in science, and contribute to the development of science (Chen et al., 2003).	“Boys have the capabilities for doing scientific research.”

Chen and colleagues validated the final version of the instrument with 1029 students who did not receive NoS instruction before. The reliability coefficients of subscales using Cronbach's alphas ranged from 0.70 to 0.87. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was reported as .85 for the whole instrument (Chen et al., 2013). According to Gronlund and Linn (1990) and DeVellis (2012) this is a good reliability for an instrument. Additionally, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) indices indicated a good model fit which provided evidence for construct validity (RMSEA= .46, NNFI = .99, CFI = .94, S-RMR = .059). Chi-square to degrees of freedom (df) ratio was 2.14 which was lower than 5. Taken all these together, fit indices indicated good model fit to the data.

Procedures

Firstly, SINOS items were translated into Turkish by two of the authors of the study. Then, Turkish version was back translated into English by other two researchers, separately. English versions and original items were compared. It was seen that most of the items have close meaning. The four researchers discussed on the items which did not have exactly the same meaning with the original items to make a consensus. For the items on which the researchers cannot reach a consensus, they communicated with developers of the original scale in order to be sure about items' meanings. Then, this Turkish version of the scale was also examined by a Turkish language expert and found appropriate to administer the scale to middle school students.

After these translation processes, this study was conducted in 2 steps. In the first step, in order to investigate 7-factor structure of SINOS in Turkish context, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. In the second step, in order to investigate whether SINOS factors were related to attitudes towards science and value given to science, two hierarchical regression analyses were performed. Details of these steps are presented below.

Results

Step 1: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was run to investigate proposed 7 latent factors. According to analysis results, four items (item 3.1, 3.2, 4.1 and 5.2) were problematic. R2 values were at 0.1 and lower for these items. Furthermore, item loadings were lower than 0.40 and corrected item to total correlation values were lower for these items in comparison to other items (around 0.30). Field (2009) recommend dropping items if corrected item to total correlation values are lower than .30. When these items were deleted, chi square difference test was found to be significant [χ^2 (174) = 309.79, $p < .05$] indicating improvement in model fit.

After dropping these four items, CFA were re-run. Chi-square to df ratio was 1.60 which was lower than 5. Fit indices indicated good model fit to the data (RMSEA= .40, NNFI = .96, CFI = .96, S-RMR = .056). Factor loadings (completely standardized solutions to Lambda X) were presented in Table 2. Factor loadings ranged from .44 to .70 for theory-ladenness, .41 to .54 for coherence and objectivity, .51 to .68 for creativity and imagination, .41 to .68 for tentativeness, .46 to .73 for durability, .75 to .85 for science for girls, .80 to .84 for science for boys sub-scale.

Table 2. Factor loadings (completely standardized solutions to Lambda X)

Item	Theory-Ladenness	Coherence and Objectivity	Creativity and Imagination	Tentativeness	Durability	Science for Girls	Science for Boys
1.1	.52						
1.2	.44						
1.4	.60						
1.5	.64						
2.2	.60						
2.4	.55						
3.5	.62						
3.6	.70						
4.2	.49						
1.3		.45					
2.1		.49					
2.3		.48					
3.3		.44					
3.4		.41					
3.7		.54					
4.3		.51					
4.4		.50					
5.1			.68				
5.3			.58				
5.4			.51				
5.5			.66				
5.6			.62				
6.1				.59			
6.2				.57			
6.3				.56			
6.4				.68			
6.5				.67			
6.6				.58			

6.7	.49	
6.8	.47	
6.9	.41	
6.10		.73
6.11		.62
6.12		.56
6.13		.51
6.14		.55
6.15		.46
7.1		.85
7.3		.83
7.5		.75
7.2		.80
7.4		.80
7.6		.84

Internal consistencies for each factor were calculated by using Cronbach Alpha (see Table 3). Reliabilities ranged from .70 to .86 and total reliability for the whole scale was .85, which indicated sufficiently high internal consistencies within each factor and whole scale.

Table 3. *Number of items and reliabilities*

	Number of items	Cronbach Alpha
Subjectivity		
Theory-ladenness	9	.81
Creativity and Imagination	5	.75
Tentativeness	9	.80
Objectivity		
Durability	6	.75
Coherence and objectivity	8	.70
Science for all		
Science for girls	3	.85
Science for boys	3	.86
<i>Total</i>	43	.85

Descriptive statistics for factors of SINOS and zero order correlations among factors were presented in Table 4. The highest correlation was between Creativity and Imagination and Tentativeness ($r = .67$) while the lowest correlation was between Coherence and Objectivity and Science for Boys ($r = -.01$).

Table 4. *Descriptive statistics and zero order correlations*

	Mean	SD	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.Theory-ladenness	4.01	.72	.65**	.57**	-.20**	.09	.36**	.36**
2. Creativity and Imagination	4.04	.79		.67**	-.24**	.10	.51**	.40**
3. Tentativeness	3.70	.71			-.19**	-.07	.39**	.41**
4. Durability	2.67	.84				.38**	-.12*	-.15**
5. Coherence and Objectivity	3.44	.78					.08	-.01
6. Science for Girls	4.08	1.08						.27**
7. Science for Boys	4.21	.1.00						

Step 2: Hierarchical Regression

In this step, two separate hierarchical regression analyses were performed in order to investigate to what extent demographic variables and students' nature of science views explain (1) attitudes towards science and (2) value given to science. Attitudes towards science represents students' liking science related works, liking learning science, finding science easy, and perceiving

importance of science for the life. This construct was measured by using 4 items from TIMSS 1999 questionnaire. Moreover, value given to science variable represents the degree of the students' perception about being successful in science course for himself/herself and for others (i.e. mother and friends) and it was measured by using 3 items from TIMSS 1999 questionnaire. Both variables were based on 4-point Likert scale ranged between completely disagree (1) to completely agree (4). In the present study, Cronbach alpha coefficients for attitudes towards science and value given to science was found to be .71 and .64, respectively.

Demographic variables included gender and science achievement score of previous semester. Moreover, students' views about nature of science include the factors of SINOS (i.e., Tentativeness, Theory-ladenness, Creativity and Imagination, Durability, Coherence and Objectivity, Science for Girls, and Science for Boys).

Results for attitudes towards science

In the first step of hierarchical regression analysis, student gender and previous achievement were incorporated in the analysis. Previous achievement ($\beta = .19, p < .05$) positively and significantly predicted students' attitudes towards science while gender ($\beta = -.01, p > .05$) was not a significant predictor of the outcome variable. In the next step, SINOS factors (i.e., Tentativeness, Theory-ladenness, Creativity and Imagination, Durability, Coherence and Objectivity, Science for Girls, and Science for Boys) were also incorporated to the model. Among these variables, previous achievement ($\beta = .11, p < .05$), Theory-ladenness ($\beta = .30, p < .05$) and Science for Girls ($\beta = .42, p < .05$) significantly and positively predicted attitudes towards science, while Durability ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$) was negatively and significantly related to science attitude. On the other hand, Tentativeness ($\beta = .06, p > .05$), Coherence and Objectivity ($\beta = -.04, p > .05$), Creativity and Imagination ($\beta = .06, p > .05$), Science for Boys ($\beta = .08, p > .05$) were not found to be significant predictors of the outcome variable. They explained an additional 32% of the variance in attitudes towards science. The R2 change was statistically significant indicating improvement of the model. Regression coefficients obtained from this analysis are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis predicting science attitude and science value

	Predicting science attitude			Predicting science value		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Step 1						
Constant	2.77	0.16		2.97	0.16	
Gender	-0.01	0.06	-0.01	0.03	0.07	0.03
GPA	0.01	0.00	0.19*	0.01	0.00	0.12*
R ²		0.04			0.02	
Step 2						
Constant	1.28	0.23		1.17	0.24	
Gender	-0.07	0.06	-0.06	-0.02	0.06	-0.01
GPA	0.00	0.00	0.11*	0.00	0.00	0.01
Theory-ladenness	0.26	0.05	0.30*	0.18	0.05	0.20*
Coherence and objectivity	-0.03	0.04	-0.04	-0.01	0.04	-0.02
Creativity and Imagination	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.10	0.06	0.12
Tentativeness	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.18	0.05	0.21*
Durability	-0.08	0.04	-0.12*	-0.06	0.04	-0.08
Science for girls	0.11	0.03	0.21*	0.10	0.03	0.17*
Science for boys	0.05	0.03	0.08	0.04	0.03	0.07
R ²		0.36			0.37	
ΔR^2 for step2		0.32*			0.36*	

*p < .05

Gender coded 0 = Boy, 1 = Girl.

Results for value given to science

In order to predict value given to science, student gender and previous achievement were incorporated in the analysis as the first step. While previous achievement ($\beta = .12, p < .05$) was found to be positively and significantly related to science value, gender ($\beta = .03, p > .05$) was not a significant predictor of the outcome variable. In the second step of hierarchical analysis, SINOS factors (i.e., Tentativeness, Theory-ladenness, Creativity and Imagination, Durability, Coherence and Objectivity, Science for Girls, and Science for Boys) were also entered. Results showed that, Theory-ladenness ($\beta = .20, p < .05$), Tentativeness ($\beta = .21, p < .05$), and Science for Girls ($\beta = .17, p < .05$) positively and significantly predicted science value. On the other hand, Creativity and Imagination ($\beta = .12, p > .05$) Coherence and Objectivity ($\beta = -.02, p > .05$), Durability ($\beta = -.08, p > .05$), Science for Boys ($\beta = .07, p > .05$) were not found to be significant predictors of science value. Additionally, after adding SINOS variables into the model, previous achievement ($\beta = .01, p > .05$) was not related to science value, any more. SINOS variables explained an additional 36% of the variance in the outcome variable. The R² change was statistically significant, indicating improvement of the model. Regression coefficients obtained from this analysis are presented in Table 5.

Discussion

One of the purposes of this study was to validate SINOS into Turkish. The confirmatory factor analysis revealed seven-factor structure for Turkish version of SINOS as similar to the original questionnaire developed by Chen et al. (2013). This study is important in terms of providing adaptation and validation of SINOS with Turkish sample. Additionally, SINOS meets the need for a reliable and valid Likert-type NOS scale which can be administered large groups of young students in Turkey. Hereafter it can be used with different samples from Turkey for different research purposes. For example, how NoS views are related to other educational variables can be investigated in future studies.

Secondly, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine predictive effect of SINOS aspects on attitudes toward science and value given to science. After controlling for the influence of previous achievement and gender, theory-ladenness and science for girls were positive predictors while durability was a negative predictor of attitudes towards science. Students who believe that science is influenced from scientists' previous experiences, backgrounds, beliefs, and other personal values hold more favorable attitudes toward science. Similarly, students who believe that girls may also have a role in science displayed more favorable attitudes toward science. This means that to some extent NoS dimensions measured by SINOS are related to the attitudes toward science. Moreover, Theory-ladenness, Tentativeness, and Science for Girls positively and significantly predicted value given to science after controlling for the influence of previous achievement and gender. Students who think that scientific knowledge is subjective, is subject to change, and girls can contribute to science give more value to science. These findings provided evidence for predictive validity of SINOS.

As pointed out by Chen et al. (2013), the purpose of developing and/or validating SINOS does not undervalue other methods of evaluating students' NoS views such as interviewing or using open-ended instruments, but is an effort to fill the gap these techniques left in science education research. Meeting the requirement of a reliable and valid instrument with Turkish sample, SINOS has a potential for mass assessment of large groups' nature of science views in Turkey. The result of mass assessment of young students' NoS views are important for curriculum developers as well as boards of education executives in Turkey because NoS was set as a goal of science education in national science curricula since 2004. If curriculum developers are not aware of target groups' current epistemological positions compared to earlier, then, their attempts will be hit-or-miss. Therefore, SINOS may have a particular contribution in terms of giving information about the current status of students regarding NoS. In other words, it may be helpful for stakeholders of science education in terms of reflecting on science curriculum.

To conclude, this study provided evidence for the validity and reliability of Turkish version of SINOS instrument to be used in Turkish context. Moreover, there is evidence that some factors of NoS assessed by SINOS are related to other measurable outcomes such as attitudes toward science and value given to science. As a last word, we need reliable and valid instruments such as SINOS. Because, misconceptions about NoS are unlikely to be replaced unless they are measured, and they are unlikely to be measured unless valid instruments are developed.

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The Relationship between Individual Innovativeness and Psychological Well-Being: The Example of Turkish Counselor Traineesⁱ

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Abstract

In this study, we handled psychological well-being (PWB) and individual innovativeness (IND-INO) as personality qualities which an effective counselor needs to possess to meet the expectancies of clients in new era. Moreover, we tried to figure out (1) the similarities between counseling process and innovativeness process and (2) the congruency between PWB and IND-INO aspects. Predictive associational survey model were administrated to 655 counselor trainees. IND-INO Scale, PWB Scale and a questionnaire were conducted online. Data analyses were made by Pearson correlation coefficients and multiple linear regression techniques. Results showed innovativeness categories of counselor trainees that they were mostly early majority and early adapters. Significant positive correlations were found between PWB levels and IND-INO levels of counselor trainees. Multiple linear regression results showed that IND-INO characteristics explain 69% of the total variance of PWB as a whole.

Key words: Psychological well-being, Individual innovativeness, Innovativeness, counseling, congruence

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Introduction

Innovation is one of the biggest elements of people's lives these days. Organizations try to be innovative and people try to present innovative behavior to increase effectiveness and bring benefits (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). This influences counselors, perceptions and expectations' from counselors. Psychological aspects and individual differences are searched to reach a functional and psychologically healthy understanding for individual innovativeness (IND-INO) as a new trend in new era. These changes create paradox due to technological developments in new era results. For example, even though technology reduces spending time on needs, people complain more about time limitation in last decades than earlier. The paradoxes is not limited and occur in many areas: mental demands become more complex, social ties weaken, gender roles change, cultural aspects change, obsessive self-improvement expectancies increase. Thus, many people experience difficulties about adapting to the expectancies of work and life conditions; search for meaning and a sense of direction (Weiten, Hammer, & Dunn, 2012), and often may need professional help. As Ryff summarized (2014) preventive interventions outside the clinics are suggested to enhance psychological well-being of people rather than recovering from diverse mental health problems. Given the prior to reduce the risks for behavioral and effective adaptation problems, important new directions offered as applications, educations, and cultural influences for mental health. So, the roles of counselors in society and making researches intended for the identification and growth of their effectiveness and competency become even more important. This study investigated the relationship between psychological well-being and individual innovativeness of counselor trainees and provided the similarities between counseling process and IND-INO process and the congruency between PWB and IND-INO aspects for mental health and counselors.

Personality qualities are closely related to both professional and the therapeutic potential of counselors. All counselors bring their human qualities and life experiences to therapeutic sessions (Corey, Corey, & Callahan, 2011; Reupert, 2006), and the most important tool is seen as the counselor's own personality (Corey, 2005). That has more impact on the process and on the outcome of counseling than the orientation chosen or the intervention employed (Reupert, 2006). Establishing effective therapeutic relationship depends on such traits regarding psychological health and personality structure of counselors (Ikiz, 2009; Ikiz, 2011).

Developing one's professional identity as an effective counselor starts during process of training (Brott, 2006). At last years, researchers intensively concern on the features of counselor trainees (Korkut Owen, Tuzgol Dost, Bugay, & Owen, 2014). In this study, we handled psychological well-being (PWB) and IND-INO as personality qualities, which an effective counselor needs to possess to meet the expectancies of clients in new era, relation between these qualities and try to understand the effecting factors. Moreover, we tried to (1) figure out the similarities between counseling process and innovativeness process and (2) the congruency between PWB and IND-INO aspects for mental health. We hope that investigation of PWB and IND-INO of counselor trainees will be beneficial for contributing to their personal and professional developments, also for their teachers'.

Psychological well-being

In recent years, researchers began to focus on positive aspects of mental health in field of counseling (Springer & Hauser, 2006), and have studied intensively the concept of well-being, a positive aspect of mental health (Clarke, Marshall, Ryff, & Wheaton, 2001; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff, 2014). PWB, a type of well-being, is related to the actualization of human potentials (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Singer, 2008).

According to multidimensional PWB model which integrates mental health, clinical and life span developmental theories, PWB consists of six dimensions: self acceptance (positive evaluation of oneself and one's past life), positive relations with others (the possession of quality relations with others), autonomy (a sense of self-determination), environmental mastery (the capacity to manage effectively one's life and surrounding world), purpose in life (the belief that one's life is purposeful

and meaningful) and personal growth (a sense of continued growth and development as a person-Ryff, 2014). According to Wissing and Eeden (2002), although the indicators of general PWB are a sense of coherence, satisfaction with life and affect-balance, PWB may exist in different patterns. Individuals don't only differ with regard to their level of PWB, but they may also differ in their particular strengths and the patterns of wellness that they manifest.

The lack of personal wellness may have an impact on the counselors' effectiveness. Counselor trainees may enhance their personal growth and development, experience more satisfaction by attaining and maintaining a greater sense of wellness. Thus, they may deal effectively with stress and anxiety, and may be more efficient to meet the demands of both their training and the work environments further (Roach & Young, 2007), academic engagement is important for PWB in first year students (Cole & Korkmaz, 2013). Yager and Tovar-Blank (2007) suggested that working to contribute students' wellness and personal health is a good starter for counselor education. Students may have some obstacle to being effective counselor, for this reason effective learning of counseling skills must include ongoing effort to develop counseling students' personal wellness. We think that having high PWB is important and beneficial for counselor trainees in terms of both their personal and professional growth.

Individual innovativeness

The concept of innovativeness means interindividual differences about people's responses to new things (Goldsmith & Foxall, 2003) and includes taking risk, openness to experience, creativity and opinion-leading (Celik, 2013; Kılıcer & Odabasi, 2010). Innovativeness describes willingness to change (Braak, 2001) and "*the degree to which an individual or other unit of adoption is relatively earlier in adopting new ideas than other members of a system, than about any other concept in diffusion research*" (Rogers, 1983; p. 242).

Individuals show differences about their degree of innovativeness. Because of these differences, they may adopt any kind of innovation more early or more lately, may be more or less willing to change and may take more or less risk (Kılıcer & Odabasi, 2010). In his diffusion of innovations model, Rogers (1983) suggested that peoples can be classified into five different adopter categories. These categories are "innovators", "early adopters", "early majority", "late majority" and "laggards". *Innovators* have a strong tendency toward trying new ideas and taking risk. *Early adopters* are opinion-leader in social system. They reduce uncertainty about innovation by informing and guiding the other individual in society. The *early majorities* who can easily adapt to present an innovation and serve as a role model for the others in society. Early majorities need time to adapt an innovation. *Late majorities* approach with suspicion and caution toward innovation and have difficulty in adapting, need more time. *Laggards* are resistant toward innovation and reject to try new things. Decisions of laggards are based on previous generations. These individuals wait the others to use the innovation and want to observe the outcomes (Kılıcer & Odabasi, 2010; Rogers, 1983).

To produce or practice an innovation is named as *individual innovativeness* (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Individual innovativeness (IND-INO) is seen as a personality trait which has social and psychological aspects (Midgley & Dowling, 1978). People who possess IND-INO can be freer, more responsible in moral terms and more mature when they look for more autonomy (Adiguzel, 2012). Many studies showed that university students are at early majority category in Turkey (Adiguzel, 2012; Cuhadar, Bulbul, & Ilgaz, 2013; Gur Erdogan & Zafer Gunes, 2013; Kert & Tekdal, 2012; Kocak & Onen, 2012) and gender (Celik, 2013; Cuhadar et. al, 2013) doesn't have an impact on IND-INO.

The necessity is refactoring the process of counseling to reach the effectiveness by matching clients' desires, needs, and features, in line with the aforementioned changes occur in human life conditions and needs. This state brings up the concept of IND-INO of counselors to the agenda.

As a process, innovativeness and counseling shows similarities as you can see on Figure 1. Innovativeness processes begins with describing problem, continues with developing suggestions and

ideas about solutions and ends up with creating innovation for applying (Yilmaz & Bayraktar, 2014). Similarly, counseling process includes understanding of problem, discovering of resource and methods about solution of problem and practicing new solutions by deciding the best method. Thus, it can be said that counseling process is innovative in its nature and it depends on IND-INO of counselors. In counseling, innovation includes using new or updated counseling techniques, theories, practicing materials, evaluation inventory and technologies (Murray, 2009), innovation in counseling education field is found as helpful to increase effectiveness (Weir, Pierce, & Lucey, 2014). In literature there are many innovative approaches, techniques, inventories and practicing (Fletcher & Hinkle, 2002; Hall & Hawley, 2004; Hodges, 2011; Nassar-McMillen & Cashwell, 1997) and it seems that such approaches will continue to increase as a result of multicultural counseling practices.

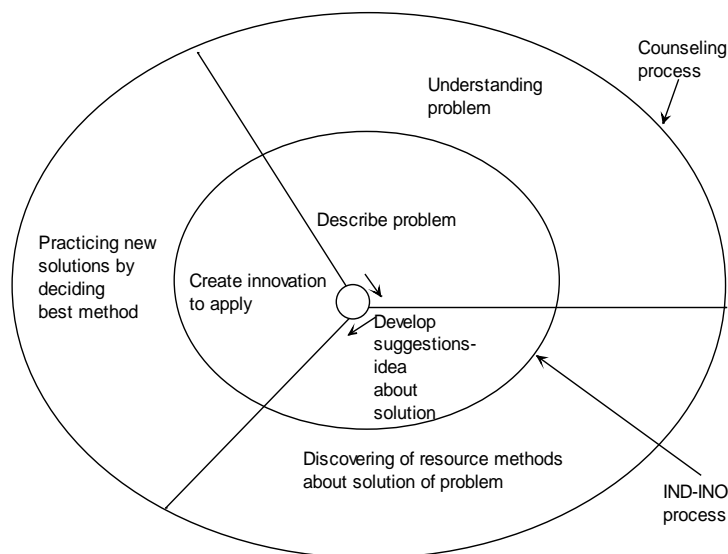


Figure 1. *The Similarities between IND-INO and Counseling Process*

We think that the aspect of self-growth and entrepreneur of PWB require having innovative personality. So, PWB and individual innovativeness considered as related to each other, given on Figure 2.

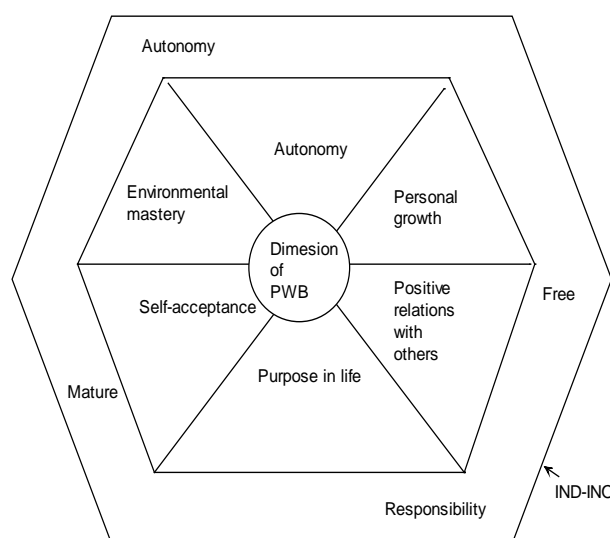


Figure 2. *The Congruence between IND-INO and Dimensions of PWB*

It is a need to express high PWB and individual innovativeness for counselor trainees now so that the research problems of present study are established as the followings:

- What are the distributions of counselor trainees according to the categories of individual innovativeness?
- Is there a statistically significant relationship between psychological well-being levels and individual innovativeness levels of counselor trainees?
- Do individual innovativeness levels significantly predict psychological well-being levels of counselor trainees?

Methodology

Research Design and Participants

This study designed according to predictive associational survey model carried out with 655 voluntary university students who studied at Psychological Counseling and Guidance undergraduate program of 62 different universities in Turkey and Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. 480 (73.3 %) of the participants were identified themselves as female and 175 (26.7 %) of them were male. The college level of the participants are: 166 (25.3 %) were freshman, 178 (27.2 %) were sophomore, 190 (29 %) were junior and 121(18.5 %) were senior

Research Instruments

In collecting of data process, Individual Innovativeness Scale and Psychological Well Being Scale were used. Besides, the demographic features of participants were identified thorough a personal information form which was developed by researchers.

Individual Innovativeness Scale (IIS). The original scale was developed by Hurt, Joseph and Cook (1977), and the scale was adapted into Turkish by Kilicer and Odabasi (2010) with 20 item based on 5-point Likert type. The scale measures innovativeness in general and regards innovativeness in individual aspects as *willingness to experience new things*. The scale aims to determine categories of innovativeness and to identify the level of innovativeness in general. The scale classify individuals in five different categories such as “innovators” (over 80 score), “early adopters” (69-80 score), “early majority” (57-68 score), “late majority” (46-56 score), and “laggards” (46 and lower score). In the adaptation study of the scale, a four-factor structure was determined. These factors are “*Resistance to change*”, “*Risk-taking*”, “*Openness to experience*” and “*Opinion-leading*”. These four factors’ explained total variance was 52.52%. The internal reliability coefficient of the Turkish-version of whole scale was calculated as .82. Besides, the internal reliability of four factors were calculated, respectively, .81, .73, .77, and .62. In current study, internal reliability coefficients were found in turn, as .87, .82, .78, .89 and .87.

Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWBS). The original scale was developed by Deiner and his colleagues (2009-2010) and standardized to Turkish by Telef (2013) with 8 item based on 7-point Likert type. In the study of development of the scale it was found that the scale had sole factor structure and total variance explained was 53%. The range of factor load of the scale was .61-.77. The internal reliability of the scale was calculated as .87.

According to exploratory factor analysis, Telef (2013) indicated that explained total variance was found as 42%. In the confirmatory factor analysis fit indices were found as, RMSEA= .08, SRMR= .04, GFI= .96, NFI= .94, RFI=.92, CFI= .95 and IFI= .95. The internal reliability of the scale was calculated as .80. In this study, internal reliability of the scale was found as .96.

Procedure and Data Analysis

The application of scales was conducted online. The online form was shared on some counseling cites in a social network (Facebook) by researchers. Sharing process was continued approximately two weeks, and totally 655 counseling students were reached in Turkey and Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. It was identified that there were 20 extreme values, and they were

extracted from data set. So, data analysis was made with 635 persons data set. Data analyzed with SPSS .15 statistic packet programme. Pearson correlation coefficients and multiple linear regression techniques were used. Before analyzing data, we checked the assumptions of multiple linear regressions. According to the results of Kolmogorov Smirnov normality test ($KS=.03, p>.05$), distribution of error term was normal. Error terms' means was calculated as 0.00. The results of homogeneity test showed that the variance of error terms' disturbance was stable. According to Durbin Watson value (1.96) there was no autocorrelation among error terms. The correlations among predictor variables ranged from 59 to 78. VIF values were lower than 10 and tolerance values were higher than .10. As a result, it can be said that the data provided the requirements of multiple linear regression analysis.

Results

Table 1 gives means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values of psychological well-being (PWB) and individual innovativeness (IND-INO) of participants.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Minimum and Maximum Values

	\bar{X}	Std. Sap.	Min.	Max.
PWB	36.95	11.80	8	56
IND-INO total	66.47	10.76	36	94
Resistance to change	3.77	0.62	1.63	5
Risk- taking	3.26	0.99	1	5
Openness to experience	3.67	0.86	1	5
Opinion leading	3.50	0.87	1	5

According to Table 1, it can be said that both PWB ($\bar{X} = 36.95$) and IND-INO total ($\bar{X} = 66.47$) scores of counselor trainees were a little higher than average. Similarly, in terms of sub dimensions of IND-INO scale, it was found that, resistance to change ($\bar{X} = 3.77$), risk taking ($\bar{X} = 3.26$), openness to experience ($\bar{X} = 3.67$) and opinion leading ($\bar{X} = 36.50$) mean were above average. Table 2 gives the distribution of participants according to the categories of IND-INO.

Table 2. Distribution of Participants According to Categories of IND-INO

Categories of IND-INO	n	%
Laggards	24	3.7
Late majority	95	14.5
Early majority	258	39.4
Early adaptors	211	32.2
Innovators	67	10.2
Total	655	100

When distributions of participants according to categories of innovativeness were examined, it was found that participants: 3.7 % were laggards, 14.5 % were late majority, 39.4 % were early majority, 32.2% were early adaptors, and 10.2% were innovators.

Table 3 gives the results of correlation between PWB levels and IND-INO levels of participants.

Table 3. *Correlations between PWB and IND-INO*

		PWB
IND-INO	Resistance to change	-.17*
	Risk- taking	.55*
	Openness to experience	.78*
	Opinion leading	.75*

*p<.01

According to Table 3, there were statistically significant positive correlations among dimensions of IND-INO and PWB scores of counselor trainees. These correlations are as the following: risk taking ($r = .55$), openness to experience ($r = .78$) opinion leading ($r = .75$). PWB is negatively correlated with resistance to change ($r = -.17$).

Table 4. *The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis Related to the Predictive Role of*

	B	Std. Err.	β	t	p	Zero order r	Partial r
Constant	6.08	2.01		3.03	.00		
Resistance to change	-2.96	0.42	-0.16	-6.97	.00	-.17	-.27
Risk taking	-0.07	0.37	-0.01	-0.19	0.85	.56	-0.01
Openness to experience	7.16	0.57	0.52	2.64	.00	.78	.45
Opinion leading	4.58	0.50	0.34	9.15	.00	.75	.34
R=.83	R ² =.69						
F ₍₄₋₆₃₀₎ = 343.30	p=.00						

According to Table 4, the result of the multiple linear regression analysis showed that the sub dimensions of IND-INO scales were significantly associated with PWB ($R = .83$, $R^2 = .69$, $F(4-630) = 343.30$). The four dimensions (resistance to change, risk taking, openness to experience and opinion leading) as a whole accounted for 69 % of the total variance in counselor trainees PWB scores. According to the β value the order of relative importance of dimensions of IND-INO were openness to experience ($\beta = .52$), opinion leading ($\beta = .34$), risk taking ($\beta = -.01$) and resistance to change ($\beta = -.16$). The t test results regarding the significance of regression coefficients indicated that resistance to change ($t = -6.97$, $p < .05$), openness to experience ($t = 2.64$, $p < .05$) and opinion leading ($t = 9.15$, $p < .05$) were significantly predicted PWB, however risk taking ($t = -.19$, $p > .05$) didn't have an important effect on PWB.

Discussion and Conclusion

Counselors should develop themselves in line with the needs of society accordingly. In counseling, innovation includes using new or updated counseling techniques, theories, practicing materials, evaluation inventory and technologies (Murray, 2009). Innovation in counseling education field is found as helpful to increase effectiveness (Weir, Pierce, & Lucey, 2014). As a process,

innovativeness and counseling shows similarities. Counseling process is innovative in its nature and it depends on IND-INO of counselors. In this study, identifying counselor trainees' psychological well-being (PWB) levels, individual innovativeness (IND-INO) levels, the distribution through innovativeness categories were aimed and the relationships between these traits were searched.

First of all, results indicate that IND-INO level of the counselor trainees was moderate. Most of the counselor trainees were at early majority category and early adopters category respectively. This result support other studies indicated that college students in Turkey are mostly at early majority category (Adiguzel, 2012; Cuhadar et. al, 2013; Gur Erdogan & Zafer Gunes, 2013; Kert & Tekdal, 2012; Kocak & Onen, 2012). It can be said that, as early major innovators, counselor trainees need time to adapt an innovation. As early adopters, they have potential to become opinion-leaders of the social system in Turkey. Moreover, they have potential to reduce uncertainty about innovation by informing and guiding their environment, and have potential to become a role model for the other individuals in our society. Most of the counselor trainees will work in schools as school counselors in our country. These innovativeness characteristics may help them in motivating either teachers and principals or students to form new opinions, innovative applications and also projects.

Secondly, the relationship between IND-INO levels and PWB levels of counselor trainees was statistically significantly positively correlated. There was only negative correlation between PWB levels of counselor trainees and resistance to change levels. This means that being resistant to changes decreases psychological wellbeing. Otherwise, we can say that, when the psychological well-being level increases, resistant to changes decreases. PWB is related to awareness of life purposes, skills and abilities, developing productive interpersonal relationships and maintaining them, having a positive sense of self, integrating oneself by accepting one's limitations, structuring environment according to personal needs and desires, being independent and entrepreneur, and self-growth (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002; Ryff, 2014). Multiple linear regression results showed that individual innovativeness characteristics explain 69% of the total variance of psychological wellbeing as a whole. Resistance to change, openness to experience and opinion leading were significantly predicted PWB, however risk taking didn't have an important effect on PWB. In literature we didn't reach studies which directly investigate the relations between individual innovativeness and psychological well-being; however there are some studies which indirectly showed that there may be relations between individual innovativeness and psychological well-being. For example, when openness to experience is handled as a personal trait or value, it is seen that having personal characteristic and value of openness to experience are positively related to psychological well-being (Saricaoglu, 2011; Telef, Uzman ve Ergün, 2013). It is indicated that creativity is a main element of being innovative. And research showed that creativity is related to subjective well-being which is an aspects of psychological well-being (Dolan & Metcalfe, 2012). Also, the people having high innovativeness have higher well-being level (Honkaniemi, Lehtonen ve Hasu, 2015). This study is the first attempt to explain the place of innovation and being innovative in counseling. Several important implications were reached for counseling: There found a striking resemblance between counseling and innovation process. Most of the counselor trainees were at early majority category and early adopters category respectively. They have potential to become opinion-leaders of the social system in Turkey. Besides, it was found that being resistant to changes decreases psychological well-being. Otherwise, we can say that, when the psychological well-being level increases, resistant to changes decreases. Individual innovativeness characteristics explain 69% of the total variance of psychological well-being as a whole. These results can be interpreted as being innovative and willingness to try new things are beneficial for one's mental health.

Limitations and Implications

In this study, we handled psychological well-being (PWB) and individual innovativeness (IND-INO) as personality qualities which an effective counselor needs to possess to meet the expectancies of clients in new era. Moreover, we try to (1) figure out the similarities between counseling process and IND-INO process and (2) the congruency between PWB and IND-INO aspects for mental health. We can say that this was an initial study which aimed to compose a

theoretical framework about relations between PWB and IND-INO. Current results showed that these two constructs are relational theoretically but still there is need to confirm these theoretical relations and to identify other constructs which moderate the relation between these two constructs. Next studies can be done to determine how innovative personality traits help to maintain or enhance psychological well-being of counselor trainees.

In this study, the importance of individual innovation was revealed in terms of the mental health of counselor trainees. At this point, guidance and psychological counseling programs need to have directions that help to develop innovative character traits. Longitudinal studies may conduct to determine whether psychological counseling and guidance curricula contribute to the development of innovative personality traits of students, and psychological counseling and curriculums can be updated based on next findings. It is suggested that in the guidance and psychological counseling curriculum should be supplemented with courses that will help to develop and practice counselor trainees' creative thinking skills, creative and innovative personality traits.

We also think that it would be useful to examine the relationship between individual innovativeness and psychological well-being in psychological counselors who have been put into business life. Future studies may be based on mixed method. In the quantitative stage, the counselors who have high innovative characters may be determined. After that, in the qualitative stage, interviews can be conducted to reveal how counselors with innovative characteristics reflect these character traits to their professional lives, how they use innovative character traits to protect their psychological well-being. The innovative methods and techniques used by innovative psychological counselor can be examined. Possessing innovative character traits can play a role in preventing psychological counselors from experiencing professional burnout. Through qualitative studies, in future, it may be determined how innovative psychological counselors use innovative character traits to protect themselves from occupational exhaustion.

Present research have strengths in indicating that (1) counseling process and innovativeness process have similarities thus counseling is an innovative process in nature; (2) the psychological well being of people is positively related to their competence in innovativeness aspects.

Even though this study has strong sides, at the same time, it has some limitations. Firstly it was limited by data obtaining strategy since data were obtained by online in two mounts. Although we reach a high proportion of college student in counseling throughout the whole country, Turkey, if we give more time, we may reach more participant and the results may be more inclined to make generalization. Secondly, we used self-report scales. It's known that self-reported claims about personality may be misleading. Therefore, relying only on self-report statements may not be sufficient. Thirdly, we asked perception of general happiness and having a psychological problem or not by a questionnaire, further studies may use happiness scales.

Consequently, for effective counseling, counselor should have a healthy personality. Counselor trainees should be ready for the expectancies of the clients in new era. Actually cultural and gender role expectancies may have impacts on individual innovativeness levels and psychological well-being levels so these are suggested to be examined further. Moreover, teaching innovativeness is suggested to enhance the psychological and professional health of counselor trainees

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Effect of Drama Instruction Method on Students' Turkish Verbal Skills and Speech Anxietyⁱ

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Abstract

The objective of the present study is to determine the effect of the “drama” method on students' Turkish verbal skills and speech anxiety. Pretest-posttest experimental model with control group was utilized in the study. In the analysis of data obtained by Turkish Rhetorical Skills Scale (TRSS) and Speech Anxiety Scale (SAS), t-test statistics were used. The following results were obtained in the current study: 1. It was determined that “drama” instruction method was more successful than the instructional activities in the existing Turkish curriculum for development of Turkish rhetorical skills. 2. In minimizing students' speech anxiety, “drama” method was found to be more successful than the instructional activities in the existing Turkish curriculum. These results demonstrated that “drama” method is an effective technique in development of students' Turkish verbal skills and reduction of students' speech anxiety.

Keywords: Turkish verbal skill, speech anxiety, drama.

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Introduction

Realization of interpersonal communication processes at the desired level is dependent on the realization of the conversation at the desired level at a great extent. Because, one of the significant factors in communication, “the source” is the speaker. If it is considered that the occurrence of listening is dependent on the occurrence of speaking, the significance of effective verbal skills in a healthy conversation would be perfectly conceived.

Preference of student centered modern approaches that prioritize structuring the knowledge and using this knowledge wherever necessary in educational and instructional activities instead of the conventional instruction methods that are teacher centered and based on transfer of knowledge (Eryaman, 2007, 2008; Durukan, 2012) would contribute to the students to begin their professional lives with effective communication skills and verbal skills. Thus, use of methods and techniques that enable the development of students’ verbal skills in speech education processes is a necessity. In fact, the educational system works towards training self-sufficient, critical-thinking, creative individuals that could apply the learned knowledge, transfer the knowledge and experiences obtained, solve problems, adapt to the social structure and with high communication skills (Maden, 2011b: 108). Radical changes in instructional strategies, methods and techniques that pacify the learner, keep the learner still and promote one-way communications are the results of such studies.

“Drama” is one of the modern instruction methods that could be used in developing speech, which is one of the most utilized forms of expression by the students in daily life. The word drama has its roots in Greek “dran” that means “to do, act and to perform.”

Heatcote and Herbert (1985) explained drama as expanding life experiences without going on the stage and without acting a part in a play. O’Neill (1989) interpreted it as a field where the imagination is expanded as much as possible, while Nixon (1988) perceived it as a learning method. According to McCaslin (1990), drama is a universal art which is necessary for all.

Drama, popular today as the “creative drama,” is also known as dramatization, role playing, to dramatize, educational drama, developmental drama, educational science of theatre, pedagogical game, etc. “Creative drama” is sometimes considered as a method, sometimes as a field, and in others as a discipline (Üstündağ, 1998: 29).

Drama is a multi-dimensional concept that covers the field of education as an instructional tool, visual arts as an art form, as well as the health fields as a psychological treatment (Maden, 2010a: 260). It is a modern instructional method that emphasizes student-centered, learner activated, hands-on, entertaining instruction that supports learning styles and provides retained learning (Maden, 2011b: 109). Drama is a process that includes sharing a dramatic situation by a group using theatre techniques (Aslan, 2009: 27). Generally speaking, drama is a direct relationship between two individuals, an exchange of action and reaction; even a random communication-interaction that occurs at the lowest level could be considered as a dramatic instance or a dramatic situation (San, 1990: 573). These discussions demonstrate that drama is a complex activity that entails cognitive, psychomotor, communicative, educational, etc. aspects. The fact that the most dominant verbal language skill in mutual communication among individuals that participate in this complex activity is the speech demonstrates the significance of drama in speech education.

To increase academic achievements of students at school, it is necessary to bring their communication skills to the desired level. Because, only the students with effective communication skills could have high self-esteem in classes and play a key role in teacher-student communications and information sharing. Furthermore, only students that share and discuss their knowledge accurately and without a reservation and relate this knowledge to the real life could have permanent learning experiences. Because, retention of learned knowledge is only possible by relating this information with the daily life. Drama is considered to be one of the most effective methods to achieve this goal

and several scholars state that this method should be implemented in all educational levels (Aykaç and Çetinkaya, 2013; Çelikkaya, 2014; Kara, 2000, 2008; Kırmızı, 2008; Durukan, 2012; Maden, 2010b, 2010a, 2011a).

In addition to developing speech, which is one of the important communication methods of individuals, drama contributes to the improvement of imagination, creativity, aesthetic pleasure, creating social and psychological sensibility, achieving life experience, cognitive and psychomotor development, self-esteem, decision making, etc., and thus, drama is an effective tool and a significant skill to be achieved in educational environments (Maden, 2010a).

Through drama activities, students achieve thinking, speaking, listening and narrative skills, in short, they achieve communication skills. As a result of the interaction with the group during creative drama studies, the students improve their language skills naturally (Fleming, 1995). Thus, the activities should be conducted by the students, they should be allowed to speak, write, read and listen in the learning-teaching process. For this purpose, techniques such as role playing, improvisation, role cards and dramatization should be extensively utilized in the drama method that promotes active participation of the students within the play in the instruction of the courses (Aykaç and Çetinkaya, 2013: 675).

Drama studies could be included in every step of formal education as an instruction method and as an independent field (San, 1992). Drama expands individual's sphere and quality of communications. It creates various opportunities for the student to try out different speech methods. Drama, which has its own rhetoric, facilitates critical attitudes of students towards themselves and (Nixon, 1987). Socialization phenomenon in drama is further significant for self-knowledge of the individual and defining her or his place in the group. Group plays and improvisations are entertaining activities that each student would like to play a role in. Plays, role playing, improvisations and impersonations prepare the student for life situations and play a key role in preparation of the individual for real life and development of rhetorical skills by removing speech anxiety (Aykaç and Çetinkaya, 2013: 675). Because, there is no rote learning in drama, hence, the student would spend an effort to use her or his speech effectively and would be careful with articulation, emphasis and intonation (Kara, 2007: 98).

Kurudayıoğlu and Özdem (2015: 28) reported that drama activities are conducted in three stages of preparation-warmup, impersonation and assessment. Accordingly, *during warmup, activities such as running, walking, jumping, thumping out with music or rhythm could be conducted. The objective of this stage is to make students to get ready to express themselves, communicate and socialize with each other.*

During the impersonation stage, the activity selected based on the characteristics of the study group is conducted. In this stage, the leader should avoid going too far with the games and tiring the participants unnecessarily. In the assessment stage, students are asked about their feelings on the drama activity and the aim is to provide awareness about their own behavior and develop empathy about the behavior of others (Kurudayıoğlu and Özdem, 2015: 28).

It is necessary to meet certain conditions to conduct the drama activity. For the activity, participants, a setting where the players could comfortably express themselves, a certain subject / content and a drama leader / teacher that could provide continuity for the drama process are needed.

The drama leader has duties that she or he should fulfill from the beginning to the end of the activity. These are; determination of the goals of the game, the strategies that would be used to reach these goals, preparation of tools and materials and assessment of the activity. In this context, the leaders should be a good observer, respect and reassure the students, open to communication and be responsible.

Ministry of National Education determined the points to take into consideration in drama applications as follows:

- A setting suitable for the content should be available.
- During relaxing and concentration stage, a location where players would not touch and bother each other should be selected. Selected venue should be comfortable and suitable for the purpose.
- Development levels of the students should be considered.
- Student enthusiasm and willingness is important for them to focus, pay attention and to act accordingly in any activity.
- Haste to create collaboration and the setting should be avoided. Appropriate time should be allowed for the drama activity.
- Attention should be paid to student views in selecting the activity. Students concentrate on and enjoy the activities they selected better.
- Each drama activity should be assessed after completion (Cited by Kurudayıoğlu and Özdem, 2015: 28).

Objective

The objective of the present research is to determine the effect of drama on Turkish verbal skills and speech anxiety of the students. For this purpose, the research questions were set up as follows:

- Is there a significant difference between “Turkish verbal skills” pretest scores of test and control group students?
- Is there a significant difference between “Turkish verbal skills” pretest and posttest scores of test group students?
- Is there a significant difference between “Turkish verbal skills” pretest and posttest scores of control group students?
- Is there a significant difference between “Turkish verbal skills” posttest scores of test and control group students?
- Is there a significant difference between “Turkish speech anxiety” pretest scores of test and control group students?
- Is there a significant difference between “Turkish speech anxiety” pretest and posttest scores of test group students?
- Is there a significant difference between “Turkish speech anxiety” pretest and posttest scores of control group students?
- Is there a significant difference between “Turkish speech anxiety” posttest scores of test and control group students?

Methods

Study Model

In the present study that investigated the effect of drama activities on Turkish verbal skills and speech anxiety of students, pretest posttest experimental model with control group was used. In the pretest posttest experimental model with control group, there are two randomly selected groups. One of these groups is used as the test, and the other is used as the control group. Pretest and posttest measurements are conducted in both groups (Karasar, 2011: 97).

The following processes are conducted with study groups in pretest-posttest applications:

Table 1. Study Design

Group	Pretest	Process	Posttest
Control	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speech Anxiety Scale (SAS) was applied to students in the pretest. 2. In pretest, each student was allowed for 5 minutes of free speech, which was assessed by 3 experts using Turkish Rhetorical Skills Scale (TRSS). 	Curriculum Turkish Activities	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speech Anxiety Scale (SAS) was applied to students in the posttest. 2. In posttest, each student was allowed for 5 minutes of free speech, which was assessed by 3 experts using Turkish Rhetorical Skills Scale (TRSS).
Test	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speech Anxiety Scale (SAS) was applied to students in the pretest. 2. In pretest, each student was allowed for 5 minutes of free speech, which was assessed by 3 experts using Turkish Rhetorical Skills Scale (TRSS). 	Instruction with drama	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speech Anxiety Scale (SAS) was applied to students in the posttest. 2. In posttest, each student was allowed for 5 minutes of free speech, which was assessed by 3 experts using Turkish Rhetorical Skills Scale (TRSS).

Study Groups

Study groups included 37 7th grade students attending a public school in Van provincial center during 2015 – 2016 academic year fall semester. To create test and control groups, 18 students were assigned randomly to one, 19 students were assigned randomly to the other group. As a result, the test group included 18, the control group included 19 students. Applications were conducted in Turkish courses for 8 weeks. Demographical characteristics of the students are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Participant Demographics

Demographical characteristics	f	%
Gender		
Female	16	43,2
Male	21	56,7
Total	37	99,9
Mother language		
Turkish	-	-
Kurdish	33	89,1
Arabic	4	10,8
Total	37	99,9

Note:

- Second language of native Kurdish speakers was Turkish.
- Second language of native Arabic speakers was Turkish.

Processes conducted with the test group

Before application, both groups received and completed the “Speech Anxiety Scale” in the pretest. Then, the students were allowed to make a 5 minutes long improvised speech where they introduced themselves and their families and the speeches were assessed by experts using Turkish Rhetorical Skills Scale. Arithmetic mean values of the data were calculated by the author after the

assessment forms were submitted by the experts. The same processes were conducted for the posttest as well.

Detailed information about drama and applications were provided to the students in the test group and students were motivated for participation in the studies.

During the study, activities were conducted for 8 weeks and 3 hours per week with the exception of the pretest-posttest applications. Attention was paid to the stages of drama activity and warmup, impersonation and assessment stages were meticulously conducted. Course syllabus was prepared based on verbal self-expression achievements depicted in Turkish curriculum.

Conducted Drama Exercises

The researcher served as the drama leader in each play and provided information about drama activities. Drama leader gave detailed information to students on the drama topic, idea, events, etc. and guided the groups to act which play and when. In drama exercises, plays titled *The Chair of Dreams*, *We are with Whom This Week*, *I am a Seller in the Market*, *The Soccer Fan*, *I am at the Parliament*, *I am a Presenter*, *From Land to Land*, *I am the Driver or the Passenger* were presented. Warm-up, animation and assessment studies were conducted based on the drama principles provided in the *Entertainment Services (2014)* booklet prepared within the context of Ministry of National Education Project to Empower Vocational Education and Instruction System (MEGEB).

Warm-up and harmonization studies: Warming-up by walking: Piaffing accompanied with music or tambourine rhythm and walking with an increasing and then decreasing speed on a muddy road, a field covered with grass, on a balance beam, on broken glass, on mushed tomatoes, on banana peels, on hot sand and on ice, etc. (warm up)

Free walking: Saying “hi” and shaking hands while walking, walking by touching shoulders, ears and hair, smiling, looking at someone as if in a cage without or with communication, with specific emotions (happy, sad, fearful, shy, angry, etc.) (warm up).

Main Exercise Examples

Practice 1

The chair of dreams: The teachers asks the students to determine the administrative personnel or branch teacher that they would recreate in the play they will perform the next week and will reenact the educational staff in the school. One of the teachers is aggressive, another is tolerant, another is rude, another is polite, another is extremely religious, another is stolid, another is a poet, another is obsessed with symmetry, and another is meticulous. Drama leader informs the students that they would discuss the problems they experience in classes and solution proposals in a 9-teacher committee. The teacher makes the students arrange the desks and tables in the room so that the class would resemble a meeting room. There are 9 chairs in the meeting room that represent 9 different teaching branches. Following the warm-up exercises, teacher opens the meeting acting as the school principal. Turkish, mathematics, social studies, religious culture and ethics, science, English, citizenship, painting, physical education and music teachers play their roles to narrate the problems they experienced in their classes acting their specific parts under the direction of the principal (improvisation). Proceedings were written down and the meeting continues with the next 9 teacher set.

Practice 2

We are with whom this week: A play is constructed to animate famous artists, authors, soccer players, movie stars, etc. Six students play the role of the infamous, while 12 students enact their fans. For this purpose, drama leader arranges the fans in a half moon order in the classroom and invites the famous people into the stage. The famous people include Nobel laureate author Orhan Pamuk, singer and composer Orhan Gencebay, movie star Polat Alemdar, soccer player Arda Turan, health specialist Canan Karatay and politician Bülent Arınç. For students to enact these roles that they

chose voluntarily and to initiate the dialogue, drama leader asks the following question: “What are the difficulties you experience in your private life due to your profession? Can you briefly discuss?” After this question is answered, the meeting continues with the questions asked by the fans (improvisation).

Practice 3

I am a seller in the market: Teacher asks the students they would do which goods they would sell and why if they were stallholders in the market and asks them to think about it. The desks are lined in the classroom to create stalls. Nine students become sellers and nine become customers. One of them sell vegetables, another fruits, another lemons, another shoes, another dresses, another drapes, another fish, another toys and another sells underwear. Drama leaders directs the customers to sellers to initiate the process where hard bargains were exchanged (improvisation).

Practice 4

The soccer fan: Teacher talks about the negativities that the soccer fans cause and explains them that the sports should be the language of peace. Groups are created in the class that include the fans of particular teams and were asked to be the fans of another team and to act in empathy. The classroom is transformed into a coffee house where the sports are intensely discussed. Violent acts experienced in soccer games are mentioned and the measures that should be taken to establish a language of peace and to minimize violent attempts in soccer are discussed. In the coffee house, fans of Galatasaray, Beşiktaş, Fenerbahçe, Trabzonspor and Bursaspor are present. The talk goes on with discussions on derby games and comments on players.

Practice 5

I am at the Parliament: Teachers asks if the students were a minister of state, which one they would like to be and lets them elaborate on that thought. When the ministry they would like to govern is determined, they are informed that a cabinet meeting is planned and necessary preparations are conducted. The class is transformed into a cabinet meeting hall and the drama leader calls the meeting to order as the prime minister. In the agenda, there are discussions on the failing educational activities due to the increase in terror activities and proposals for a solution on this problem. The minister of defense is nervous and restless, interior minister is indecisive and stressed, ministry of national education is quite relaxed and stolid, ministry of tourism is concerned about the developments, ministry of health is helpless, environment minister is calm and relaxed, and the others follow the cue of the prime minister.

Practice 6

I am a Presenter: Teacher asks the students to enact news anchors with different characters. One of the anchors is joyful and presents the news very rapidly. Another is nervous and speaks loudly. Another is calm and speaks eloquently. Another has a rich voice and stresses the phrases in a loud tone. Another is sullen and nonchalant. Another is argumentative and speaks slower than necessary. Another has accurate emphasis and intonation, speaks distinctly and uses gesticulations and mimics effectively. While the anchors present the news, audience notes the positive and negative aspects of their presentation. After the news reports are completed, anchors and audience discuss the assessment results.

Practice 7

From land to land: Teacher asks each student to enact a province. For instance, the student who plays the role of Istanbul summarizes the region where the city is located, its population, neighbors, touristic places, cultural activities, transportation, climate, etc. of the province and states that it is an important center for touristic trips and express that (s)he would be happy to host visitors. This is in a way an advertising competition. After the necessary preparations are completed, 18 provinces are introduced / promoted in the classroom.

Practice 8

I am a passenger /driver: Teacher makes the students to transform the classroom into a minibus with 18 passengers by joining the student desks. Minibus is taking its passengers between two locations in Van city center. Assistant to the driver opens the door for waiting passengers who immediately fill the minibus. Some could not find a seat and have to stand while travelling. Driver takes the wheel and the journey begins. One of the passengers is an elderly woman, and continuously talks about the clumsiness and frailness of her daughter in law. Another is a fisherman, carrying fish in a plastic bag to his home, which smells very bad in the minibus and other passengers complain about the smell. Another passenger is a calm citizen who fills his horse race ticket. Another is a

teacher and reads a book. Another is a young university student who already sleeps to give his space to an elderly woman who is standing next to him. The driver ignores passengers who complain about stepping on each other's foot and press on to each other. He listens to the song "shiki shiki baba" playing on the radio loudly and enjoys himself.

After each drama session, relaxation exercises were conducted. Application was terminated after the posttest was conducted.

Processes conducted with the test group

Pretest-posttest applications were conducted in the same manner as the test group. Control group applications followed the activities planned in Turkish curriculum. Course syllabus was prepared based on verbal self-expression achievements depicted in Turkish curriculum.

Data collection tools

Speech Anxiety Scale (SAS) and Turkish Rhetorical Skills Scale (TRSS) were used in the study.

Speech Anxiety Scale

Speech anxiety data were obtained using "Speech Anxiety Scale (SAS)" designed by Sevim (2012).

SAS is a five-point Likert (1: Never, 2: Rarely, 3: Sometimes, 4: Mostly, 5: Always) grading scale including 20 items. Scale items include three sub-dimensions. Items 1 – 11 are related to "speaker-centered anxiety," items 12 – 17 are related "environment-centered anxiety," and items 18 – 20 are related to "speech psychology-centered anxiety." All 20 items in the scale are negative statements.

The lowest scale score is 20, and the highest score is 100 points. Coefficient ranges, score ranges, SAS grading data and comments on grades are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3. *Assessment ranges for speech anxiety score arithmetic means*

Points range	Score range	Grade	Comment
1.00–1.80	20-36	Never	Very low anxiety
1.81–2.60	37-52	Rarely	Low anxiety
2.61–3.40	53-68	Sometimes	Intermediate
3.41–4.20	69-84	Mostly	High anxiety
4.21–5.00	85-100	Always	Very high anxiety

It could be observed in the above table that 20-36 score range is evaluated as "very low anxiety," 37-52 score range is evaluated as "low anxiety," 53-68 score range is evaluated as "intermediate level anxiety," 69-84 score range is evaluated as "high anxiety," and 85-100 score range is evaluated as "very high anxiety."

SAS used to measure speech anxiety of students was tested for reliability with a pilot application. A pilot scheme was implemented with 100 7th grade students, and as a result Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the scale for the present study was found as 0.812. This finding demonstrated that the scale was reliable and usable for this study.

Turkish Rhetorical Skills Scale (TRSS)

Turkish Rhetorical Skills Scale (TRSS) was used to assess students' speech skills. The scale includes the dimensions that measure sound, presentation, wording and expression, concentration on speech and considering the audience skills. Scale sub-dimensions and items were discussed with five Turkish education experts and elaborations resulted in the application of the scale as is, without implementing any changes.

The scale contains 24 items; 20 are positive, 4 are negative statements. The scale was developed by Derya Çintaş Yıldız and Mustafa Yavuz (2012). It is a 5-point Likert-type scale and the responses include “I completely agree, I somehow agree, I disagree, I completely disagree.”

Before the application was conducted, a pilot scheme was implemented with 100 7th grade students, and as a result Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the scale was found as 0.857. This finding demonstrated that the scale was reliable and applicable.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed with SPSS 20.0 software package. Related samples t-test was used to assess test or control group measurement results, independent samples t-test statistics was used for test and control group measurements in the analysis of pretest-posttest results obtained with students’ speech anxiety and Turkish rhetorical skills scales.

Findings

In this section, the data obtained as a result of analyses conducted on the findings of students’ Turkish verbal skills and speech anxiety data collection tools are presented and interpreted. Findings are presented under different subtitles categorized under research questions.

1. First research question findings

Comparison of test-control group students’ “Turkish verbal skills” pretest scores are presented in Table 4 below:

Table 4. *Turkish verbal skills independent samples t-test results*

	Groups	N	X	SD	t(35)	p
Pretest	Test	18	67,5556	9,01125	,219	,828
	Control	19	66,8947	9,30290		

Test and control group pretest scores are compared in Table 4. Findings demonstrated that there was no obvious difference between test and control group mean pretest scores. Statistical analysis showed that there was no significant difference between test and control group mean pretest scores ($p: .828 > 0.05$; $t: .219$). This data demonstrated that the test and control group students had similar verbal skill levels at the beginning of the applications.

2. Second research question findings

Findings on whether there was a significant difference between test group “Turkish verbal skills” pretest and posttest results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. *Test group Turkish verbal skills related samples t-test results*

		N	X	SD	t(17)	p
Test Group	Pretest	18	67,5556	9,01125	-10,212	,000
	Posttest	18	89,4444	6,36370		

Table 5 demonstrates that there is a difference of 22 points between test group pretest and posttest mean scores favoring the posttest results. Statistical analysis showed that there was a statistically significant difference between these scores favoring the posttest ($p: .000 < 0.05$; $t: -10.212$). This finding shows that drama application was quite effective on the development of students’ Turkish verbal skills.

3. Third research question findings

Findings on whether there was a significant difference between control group “Turkish verbal skills” pretest and posttest results are given in Table 6.

Table 6. Control group Turkish verbal skills related samples t-test result

	N	X	SD	t(18)	p
Control Pretest	19	66,8947	9,30290	-3,682	,002
Group Posttest	19	78,2632	12,37310		

Table 6 shows that control group pretest mean score was 66, whereas posttest mean score was 78. It was determined that this numerical difference was statistically significant as well ($p: .002 < 0.05$; $t: -3.682$). The difference demonstrated that conventional instruction applied in the control group was effective in the development of students’ Turkish verbal skills.

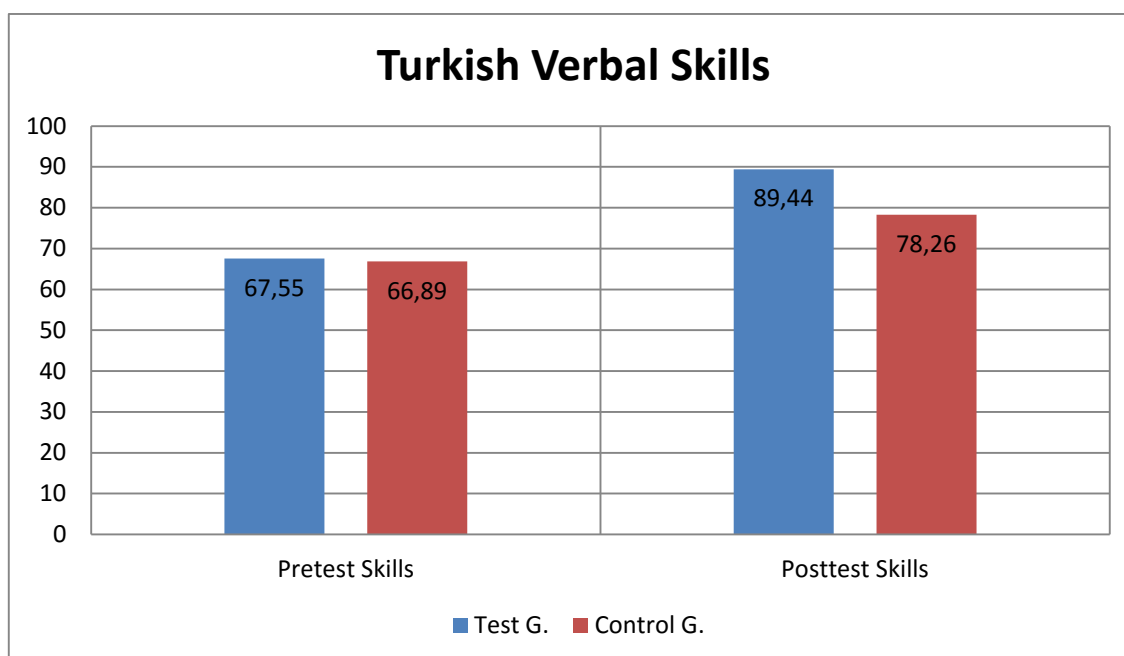
4. Fourth research question findings

Findings on whether there was a significant difference between test and control group “Turkish verbal skills” posttest results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Turkish verbal skills independent samples t-test results

	Groups	N	X	SD	t(35)	p
Posttest	Test	18	89,4444	6,36370	3,427	,001
	Control	19	78,2632	12,37310		

Table 7 demonstrates that there was a difference between test and control groups posttest scores favoring the test group. Test group mean score was 89, while control group posttest mean score was 78. This numerical difference favoring the test group was found to be statistically significant ($p: .001 < 0.05$; $t: 3.427$). The findings demonstrated that drama method implemented in the test group had more effective consequences on students’ Turkish verbal skills when compared to the conventional method. Verbal skill findings are given in Graph 1.



Graph 1. Test-control groups pretest-posttest Turkish verbal skills findings

Graph 1 demonstrated that, while there was no significant difference between pretest data, the difference became significant in the posttest data favoring the test group. The graph clearly reflects that drama was more effective on students’ Turkish verbal skills compared to conventional method.

5. Fifth research question findings

Findings on whether there was a significant difference between test and control group “Turkish speech anxiety” pretest results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. *Turkish speech anxiety independent samples t-test results*

	Groups	N	X	SD	t(35)	p
Pretest	Test	18	56,6111	8,45209	,068	,946
	Control	19	56,3684	8,22064		

Table 8 demonstrates that both test and control group speech anxiety mean scores were 56. When the result is interpreted based on the assessment range (20-36 points “very low anxiety,” 37-52 points “low anxiety,” 53-68 points “intermediate level of anxiety,” 69-84 points “high anxiety,” and 85-100 points “very high anxiety”), it was determined that Turkish speck anxiety levels for both test and control groups were “intermediate level anxiety (53-68).” Statistical analysis showed that the difference between control and test groups speech anxiety levels was not significant (p: .946 > 0.05; t: .068). This result demonstrates that both test and control groups had similar speech anxiety levels before the application.

6. Sixth research question findings

Findings on whether there was a significant difference between test group “Turkish speech anxiety” pretest and posttest results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. *Test group Turkish speech anxiety independent samples t-test results*

		N	X	SD	t(17)	p
Test	Pretest	18	56,6111	8,48624	10,162	,000
Group	Posttest	18	36,9444	5,48229		

Table 9 demonstrates that test group posttest Turkish speech anxiety mean score was 36. It was observed that this score corresponds to “very low anxiety” in speech anxiety assessment range (20-36 points: “very low anxiety”). Statistical analysis showed that there was a significant difference between pretest and posttest scores favoring posttest results (p: .000 < 0.05; t: 10.162). The finding demonstrates that drama instruction method had a significant effect on students’ speech anxiety.

7. Seventh research question findings

Findings on whether there was a significant difference between control group “Turkish speech anxiety” pretest and posttest results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. *Control group Turkish speech anxiety independent samples t-test results*

		N	X	SD	t(18)	p
Control	Pretest	19	56,3684	8,22064	3,263	,004
Group	Posttest	19	47,6842	8,47252		

Table 10 demonstrates that control group posttest Turkish speech anxiety mean score was 47. It was observed that this score corresponds to “low anxiety” in speech anxiety assessment range (37-52 points: “low anxiety”). Statistical analysis reflected that there was a significant difference between pretest and posttest scores favoring posttest results (p: .004 < 0.05; t: 3.263). The finding demonstrates that the conventional instruction method had a significant effect on students’ speech anxiety.

8. Eight research question findings

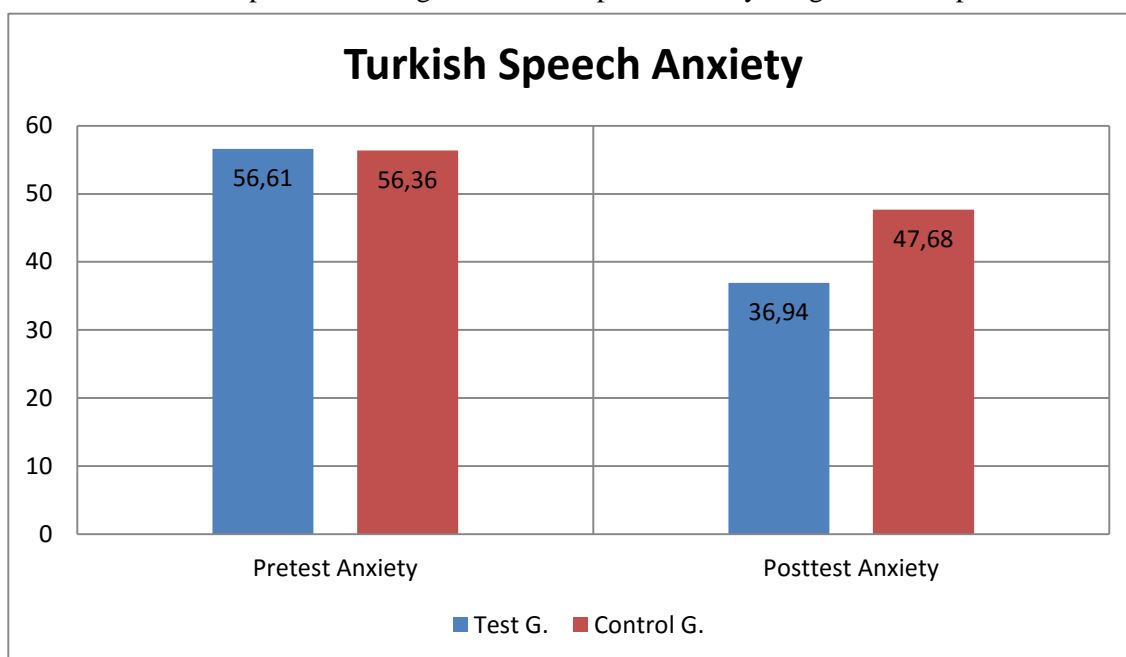
Findings on whether there was a significant difference between test and control group “Turkish speech anxiety” posttest results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. *Test-control groups posttest independent samples t-test results*

	Groups	N	X	Sd	t(35)	p
Posttest	Test	18	36,9444	5,48229	-4,459	,000
	Control	19	47,6842	8,47252		

Table 11 demonstrates that test group posttest speech anxiety was at a very low level (20-30 points: “very low anxiety”), while control group speech anxiety was at a low level (37-52 points: “low anxiety”). Statistical analysis identified that there was a significant difference between test and control group posttest mean scores favoring the control group ($p: ,000 < 0.05$; $t: -4.459$). These results demonstrated that drama method was more effective on reducing students’ Turkish speech anxiety than conventional method.

Pretest-posttest findings on Turkish speech anxiety are given in Graph 2.



Graph 2. *Test-control groups pretest-posttest Turkish speech anxiety findings*

Graph 2 shows that, while there was no significant difference between the groups in pretest data, it could be observed in the posttest scores that Turkish speech anxiety significantly decreased in test group where drama instruction was implemented. The graph clearly reflects that drama was more effective on Turkish speech anxiety of the students when compared to the conventional method.

Results and Discussion

Speaking is the most effective of the four basic language skills (speaking, writing, reading, listening) that the student utilizes in daily life and provides socialization. Proper communication of the student with the outer world is directly proportional with her or his speaking skill. Students who refrain from expressing themselves, could not express themselves, could not articulate, would be unsuccessful in all fields of (Kara, 2009: 151). In other words, for one to self-realize and be successful in life, it is necessary for this individual to be efficient in verbal skills. Thus, the speech anxiety of the individuals that form the society should be removed at school age using effective learning methods, so that they would achieve active verbal skills. In the present study where the drama method was assayed, the following results were achieved based on the research questions:

Results on Turkish verbal skills:

- There was no significant difference between test and control group Turkish rhetorical skills mean pretest scores ($p: .828 > 0.05$; $t: .219$). In other words, both test and control groups commenced in the study at similar verbal skill levels before the experimental applications (Table 4).
- Comparison of test group pretest and posttest scores demonstrated that the “drama” instruction method was quite successful in development of students’ Turkish verbal skills ($p: .000 < 0.05$; $t: -10.212$) (Table 5).
- Comparison of control group pretest and posttest scores demonstrated that the “conventional” instruction method was successful in development of students’ Turkish verbal skills ($p: .002 < 0.05$; $t: -3.682$) (Table 6).
- It was determined that there was a significant difference between test and control group posttest Turkish verbal skill scores favoring the test group ($p: .001 < 0.05$; $t: 3.427$). The result showed that the “drama” method was more successful in developing Turkish verbal skills of the students when compared to the “conventional” method (Table 7).

Results on Turkish speech anxiety of the students:

- Test and control group Turkish speech anxiety pretest scores demonstrated that both test and control group students had intermediate level speech anxiety before the study. There was no significant difference between Turkish speech anxiety pretest scores ($p: .946 > 0.05$; $t: .068$) (Table 8).
- While test group pretest Turkish speech anxiety was at “intermediate level” ($X = 56.61$), it was observed that posttest speech anxiety was at “very low level” in the same group ($X = 36.94$). Statistically, it was determined that there was a significant difference between pretest and posttest scores favoring the posttest scores ($p: .000 < 0.05$; $t: 10.162$) (Table 9). This result indicated that the effect of “drama” instruction method was significant in reduction of students’ Turkish speech anxiety.
- While control group pretest Turkish speech anxiety was at “intermediate level” ($X = 56.36$), it was observed that posttest speech anxiety was at “low level” in the same group ($X = 47.68$). Statistically, it was determined that there was a significant difference between pretest and posttest scores favoring the posttest scores ($p: .004 < 0.05$; $t: 3.263$) (Table 10). This result indicated that the effect of “conventional” instruction method was significant in reduction of students’ Turkish speech anxiety.
- It was determined that there was a significant difference between test and control group posttest Turkish speech anxiety scores favoring the test group ($p: .000 < 0.05$; $t: -4.459$). While test group posttest speech anxiety mean score was at “very low level” ($X = 36.94$), control group Turkish speech anxiety mean score was at “low level” ($X = 47.68$) (Table 11). The findings demonstrated that “drama” method produced more successful results on students’ Turkish speech anxiety when compared to “conventional” method.

Based on the study findings, it could be argued that drama method should be used frequently to develop students’ Turkish verbal skills and to minimize their Turkish speech anxiety. Literature review would demonstrate several studies that reported drama was effective on communication skills of the students (Akoğuz, 2002; Arslanm et al., 2010; Ataman, 2006; Bayrakç1, 2007; Durukan, 2012; Kara, 2000; 2008; 2007; Susar Kırmızı, 2007; 2008; Maden, 2010c; Ünsal, 2005). The findings of the present study is consistent with the results of the above mentioned studies.

Aykaç and Çetinkaya (2013) investigated the effect of drama on verbal skills of pre-service Turkish teachers in their study. Study results demonstrated that drama method yielded more successful results in development of pre-service teachers’ verbal skills and their speech time when compared to the traditional method. Maden (2011a), in a study, investigated the effect of role cards on verbal skills and attitudes of students. Findings of that study showed that role cards were more effective on students’ verbal skills and attitudes when compared to the conventional method. There are several studies in the literature that reported similar results on verbal skills.

Both the results of the present study and similar studies found in the literature demonstrate that “drama” instruction method is an effective approach that should be utilized in development of students’ communication skills and primarily the verbal skills.

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An Exploration of English Language Teachers' Perceptions of Culture Teaching and Its Effects on Students' Motivation

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Abstract

As the seamless connection between language and culture is commensurate with related research carried on language and culture; language is greatly affected and structured by cultural values, attitudes and beliefs. The goal of the present study is to investigate and analyse English language teachers' perceptions and opinions about the integration of target culture into the foreign language courses. In the same vein, this research aims at finding out the connection between the instructors' thoughts about the integration of the target culture elements and students' motivation in English classes. Having been randomly selected on a voluntary basis, the participants of the study included 7 English language instructors, working at a Turkish state university. Semi-structured interviews were implemented as the instrument to elicit data. The results were analysed qualitatively and indicated that the instructors espouse the incorporation of target language culture into the courses; however they cannot allocate enough time to have culturally embedded courses. They claim that these two inextricably connected fields are to be evaluated concurrently in L2 courses. As for the effects of target culture teaching on students' academic achievement and motivation, they unanimously agree that it has a positive and motivating impact on their proficiency level of English.

Keywords: EFL Learners, Target Language Culture, Cultural Differences, Teachers' Perceptions, Cultural Awareness

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Introduction

At the outset, describing the culture phenomenon appropriately is of great importance on the grounds that this study focuses on the inherent connection between language and culture. Trinovitch (1980) describes culture as: "... an all-inclusive system which incorporates the biological and technical behaviour of human beings with their verbal and non-verbal systems of expressive behaviour starting from birth" (p. 550). In other words, culture is summed in behaviours, thoughts of people living in a certain area and cultural support can help in resolving the differences between communities. Accordingly, it is known that language functions as one of the most significant ways of transmitting cultural knowledge in today's globalized world.

As the seamless connection between language and culture is commensurate with related literature, it is not wrong to state that culture and language also crisscross with each other through cumulative human experience. Additionally, some progress has been made towards understanding that a scrupulous investigation into the learners' idiosyncrasies would help them explore the means for embracing a new language and culture concurrently. Bearing these facts in mind, the incorporation of target culture elements into the foreign language courses is of great importance. When the needs of the foreign language learners are taken into account, English language and its indigenous milieus would form the basis for building cultural competency and carry out acculturation process gradually and appropriately.

At this point, the key role of language teachers in terms of their effectiveness in incorporating cultural elements into their courses ensues, the result of which is that teachers' perceptions and classroom practices determine the extent of culture integrated courses in EFL classes. The extant literature on the relation between target language and its cultural features shows that language educators prioritized the integration of cultural issues into their teaching practice (Eryaman, 2008). The majority of studies have focused on the positive impact of integrating target culture elements into the courses in terms of student's success and motivation (Byram, & Morgan, 1994; Kramsch, 1998; Mitchell & Myles, 2004). In this vein, a comparative and contrastive analysis of two cultures would function as a pedagogical means of motivation. In spite of these prominent studies in this field, there exist a great need for additional studies touching upon the intertwined connection between language and culture. Therefore, this current study is of great importance in terms of providing up to date data with regard to the acquisition of a foreign language and its culture concurrently.

Literature Review

The Definition of Culture

The concept of culture is one of the prominent issues in foreign and second language teaching. Defining the term 'culture' in a comprehensive way is a really daunting task and accordingly there exist lots of different opinions and viewpoints on the definition of the term. Tang (2006) postulated that there is no single definition for that general word 'culture' in spite of efforts and studies to realize the matter comprehensively. For Brown, "culture" includes tangible and intangible aspects of the society, it binds the members of that community and functions as a 'glue' (2007, p. 188).

From these definitions, it is clear that culture includes many different entities and it consists of a great number of individual components. Similarly, most of the scholars in this field expound on the significance of analysing culture and its components. Kramsch defines culture as "membership in a discourse community that shares a common social space and history, and common imaginings" (1998, p. 10).

The Relationship between Culture and Language Learning

To start with some important terms about culture teaching, cross-cultural awareness is a related term discussed in that field and regarded as a prerequisite in forming an understanding towards other communities. As Damen postulated, “cross-cultural awareness is the force that moves a culture learner across the acculturation continuum from a state of no understanding of, or even hostility to, a new culture to near total understanding, from monoculturalism, to bi- or multi-culturalism” (1987, p. 141).

Intercultural competence is again one of the most significant terms in that field and it refers to the ability to communicate with various people from other national and geographical groups. As it is widely recognized by ELT practitioners and instructors, foreign language education is the most versatile tool in order to help the learners’ development of intercultural competence. Actually foreign language education is not the sole way to have intercultural competence, but it is regarded as the major source of having knowledge and skills to communicate better by integrating discourse elements to your daily speech patterns. As İşısağ (2010) described in his study about intercultural competence, this ability can be defined as turning intercultural encounters into intercultural relationships. In other words, readiness for relativizing the specialties and features of another person from a different social group will make it possible to form a mutual understanding and respect between the cultures.

In a similar vein, Alptekin (2002) draws attention to the students’ intercultural communicative competence rather than native-like competence. The use of English as a world language removes the boundaries and for that reason focusing on the cultural features of English people is meaningless in that sense. The teachers aim at promoting a dynamic view of cultures which holds the belief that culture as a phenomenon cannot be evaluated in a territorialized way, limiting that comprehensive term to the boundaries of countries.

The Place of Culture in EFL Classes

In the 1920’s, Sapir (1921) stipulated that language and culture of a certain community could not be analysed as separate entities on the grounds that language is the most significant way of describing human experiences and features of a people. Members of a language community eminently provide information about their way of life and assumptions about communicative purposes underlining the construction of the world. At that point, the rudiments of the matter had already been studied (Gumperz, & Hymes, 1972; Kaplan, 1966).

As an undeniable fact, language and culture have an interdependent relationship and this relation is described with different terms in some studies such as *linguaculture* (Friedrich, 1989) and *languaculture* (Risager, 2005). Given the fact that the culture exerts considerable influence on language patterns and pragmatic use of it in a certain community, it is of great importance for a language learner to make great effort to develop his/her cultural awareness in that process. On the face of this fact, Lessard-Clouston (1997) contended that foreign language teachers teach and their students acquire the cultural elements of that community regardless of the fact that whether culture is overtly included in the curriculum or not. Pulverness (2003) asserts that ‘due to the undeniable growth of English as an international language, cultural content as anything other than contextual background began to be included in language teaching programmes’.

There has been a great concern for the dialectical relation between language and culture in the last a few decades and the pendulum has swung back to the other extreme. In this vein, Mitchell and Myles (2004) express that “language and culture are not separate, but are acquired together, with each providing support for the development of the other” (p. 235). Researchers and foreign language instructors have begun to realize the seamless connection between target language culture (TLC) and target language (TL) with the advent of Communicative Language Teaching in the late 1970s. This approach endeavours to provide the students with the necessary qualifications that would help them communicate in an intercultural setting.

Especially over the last decades, with the writings of some scholars such as Byram (1989; 1991), Byram and Morgan (1994) and Kramsch (1988; 1991; 1998), most of the foreign language instructors espouse a view based on the fact that there exist an intertwined relation between language and culture. Without adding the cultural and contextual differences of a language during the course, the teacher would be insufficient in presenting the pragmatic aspects of everyday language. For that reason, culture is considered 'as a fifth skill' apart from the other skills in language learning process (Savignon, 1997). If the focus is only on the syntactic and lexical features of the foreign language, then the learners of that language would be candidates of becoming a 'fluent fool.' According to Bennett, "A fluent fool is someone who speaks a foreign language well, but does not understand the social or philosophical content of that language" (1993, p. 9).

Brown (2007) succinctly indicated that acquiring a second language is acquiring a second culture. A language consists of culturally loaded rudiments (Alptekin, 1996, Pennycook, 1989) and in that sense the learners of foreign language would need these elements in order to fully comprehend societal and contextual differences during communication process. If this is not the case, they become culture-bound individuals who are likely to make inappropriate and inaccurate value judgements about others' cultural characteristics (Izadpanah, 2011).

Additionally, the learners would have a chance of forming a world view by being familiar with some other cultures and their some other features apart from language (Eryaman, 2007). Language would play a role in reflecting these features as Kramsch asserts "Common attitudes, beliefs and values are reflected in the way members of the group use language, for example, what they choose to say or not to say and how they say it" (2001, p. 6). In other words, the beliefs and background values are manifested in the way a society live or communicate with other people.

Teachers' Perceptions

As one of the most important topics in ELT, the relation between target language culture and language itself has been discussed throughout the decades. Similarly, language teachers adopt the bandwagon of language and culture teaching approach in their courses and try to integrate related elements to their teaching practice. While doing this, they try to develop some innovative methods and atmosphere that are conducive for the integration and development of intercultural competence. Pedagogical documents and the application of suitable teaching practices would enable the instructor to facilitate the inclusion of the term 'culture' in their courses.

The materials used to address cultural issues in their teaching practices are to be selected after a detailed analysis of the classroom atmosphere and student profiles. If this is not the case, the students would feel distinctly indisposed to participate in the courses. On the other hand, another group of language teachers often treat culture as supplemental or incidental to the 'real task' (Fantini, 1997) because they generally focus on the everyday speech patterns and practical side of communication. Also Reid showed that only one third of language teaching programs offer a course in culture (1995/1996, p. 3). Even though the importance of incorporating cultural aspects of the foreign language is a well-known fact for language teachers, there exist some problems appearing in the application of this knowledge.

Given the fact that the previous knowledge of a language instructor directly affect the subject matter materials and methods used during the course, it is crucial that teacher educators in ELT programs are knowledgeable in target language culture. Current national English projects are not adequate to provide the learners with necessary skills of communication in a cultural setting. New programs and curricula are to be developed in order to place a greater emphasis on the integration of cultural facets in the teaching practices. On the other hand, to what extent do the teachers include these issues depends on their personal viewpoint as Holme (2003) indicated.

Bayyurt contends that 'the background of individual teachers influences their attitude towards the incorporation of culture into their language teaching' (2006, p. 243). Faas (2008) also expressed that having less access to the opportunities related with European life style such as travelling and

sightseeing, social attitudes result in developing nationalistic identities which inevitably lead them to take part in various ethnic divisions. In order to eradicate the hostile feelings towards TLC, the learners of that foreign language should be exposed to the cultural components of the language while experiencing it by direct contact. When they have enough knowledge about their native tongue and target language together with their cultural sides, it would be easier to form a mutual understanding between these two cultures and communities.

On the other hand, neither the instructor of the course nor the foreign language learner can be knowledgeable about all the cultural aspects of the target language community. The instructors' task is to guide students to generate positive attitudes and approaches towards TLC to form a bridge between two cultures by explaining and relating it to events of his own. If the learner is successful enough to integrate the new forms with what they already know by making a comparison with their own cultural forms, it means that the student is really conscious in evaluating the perspectives and implicit elements of the society.

Language and culture are inseparably linked and most of the researchers in that field are of the same opinion about this fact (Kramersch, 1988; Seelye, 1984). Some language teachers are well aware of the fact that there exists a continuous interplay between the linguistic and cultural elements of a foreign language. On the other hand, some researchers uphold that English as a lingua-franca should be taught in a culture-free context. Undoubtedly, the language instructors' perceptions about TLC permeate in every part and phase of their teaching processes. The personal view of the instructor also affects the way in describing and determining the techniques to teach cultural awareness and other related terms in foreign and second language classrooms. To do this, the language teacher should be well aware of some commonly used terms in language teaching if s/he is to foresee the difficulties that students may face during that process.

Undoubtedly, the linguistic competence of the foreign language learners is regarded as a prerequisite for the formation of an intercultural understanding. However, some instructors are not of the same opinion about that matter because they prefer to allow the students to make mistakes from the very beginning before being linguistically competent in that foreign language. In a study by Ho (2009), the researcher questions the teachers' challenge of having a traditional or intercultural understanding in language courses. The results of the study show that adopting an intercultural understanding is necessary if the aim is to help the learners internalize the inextricable relation between language and culture. This relation may be regarded as an abstract phenomenon; however cultural variables embodied by the referred foreign language are the concrete part of this process.

Kramersch (1993) contends that EFL learners have to gain insight into their own culture if they want to have an intercultural understanding. The use of the term 'intercultural' refers to the fact that the learner has to mediate between these two cultures if the aim is to form a mutual understanding. At that point, it is meaningful to describe the term intercultural communicative competence with other words and it is defined as "the ability to ensure a shared understanding by people of different social identities, and the ability to interact with people as complex human beings with multiple identities and their own individuality" (Byram, Gribkova, & Starkey, 2002, p. 10).

The Role of Teachers in Preparing Students for Meaningful Culture Learning

Most of the studies in this area confirm the common-sense notion that the instructors should guide students insofar as possible to use the target language in a culturally appropriate manner (Riedler & Eryaman, 2016). In line with the facts above, Brown (2007) clarifies the teachers' role in the culture learning process: "Teachers can play a therapeutic role in helping learners to move through stages of acculturation. If the learner is aided in this process by sensitive and perceptive teachers, he can perhaps more smoothly pass through the second stage and into the third stage of culture learning, and thereby increase his chances for succeeding in both second language learning and second-culture learning" (p. 33-46). If this is not the case, the students run the risk of experiencing miscommunication and misunderstanding or they might use the wrong addressing style or writing

system when faced with a cultural setting. Damen (1987, p. 5) affirms that there exist certain reasons for the limitations of teachers' efficiency as cultural guides:

1. Teachers do not know what 'culture' to teach
2. Until recently only a few textbooks of methodologists have been available to assist teachers in the direction of culture learning.

The Importance of Culture Integrated Courses on Students' Motivation

In a qualitative study, Önalın (2004) showed that teachers' main aim in giving cultural information in their classes is to "develop a global understanding of other cultures and people." This point is really significant in motivating students because students would feel themselves inclined to learn the language just out of curiosity. While incorporating the cultural components of the language during the classes, the teachers use this aspect in order to evoke students' attention.

Once the students and the instructors achieve their objective of acquiring the pluricultural nature of the foreign language, the pupils would definitely feel more motivated towards other constituents of culture. The students may occasionally feel that the two cultures are utterly disparate, hence they could find it difficult to adapt from one to the other. At times like these, the instructors are in charge of steering them to the right direction by indicating the common aspects of these two cultures.

The influence of motivation in the field of FLE has been indicated by scholars like Gardner and Lambert (1965; 1972). In order to motivate and encourage students in that process, culture classes and such kind of activities have a great role in their understanding of cultural background. Such types of activities not only encourage them to learn more about the target language culture but also increase students' interest in that field.

Research Questions

Without interfering in the emergent nature of qualitative analysis, the questions listed below were posed:

1. How do the instructors of English define culture?
2. What is the place of target culture in English as a Foreign Language classes?
3. What role does the incorporation of target culture play in students' motivation during EFL courses?
4. How much time is distributed to integrate cultural elements of the language in EFL classes?

Methodology

Introduction

The current study was conducted to elicit teachers' perceptions about the integration of target language culture into foreign language classes through qualitative methodology. The detailed information about the participants, and the data collection and analysis processes will be explained in separate titles.

Participants

Data were gathered from seven English Language instructors, working at a School of Foreign languages at a Turkish state university. The participants of the study were chosen randomly and the participation to this study was utterly voluntary. Before the implementation of interview questions, a written consent was received from the participants of the research. One of the respondents was male and six of them were females.

The teaching experiences of the instructors ranged from 4 to 20 years. The educational level of the teachers was as follows: 4 of the participants had MA degrees while 2 of them had only BA degrees. One of them was pursuing MA degree and additionally the last participant was a PhD candidate. Three of the teachers were graduates of English Language and Literature departments of several universities. One of the participants is a graduate of Western Languages and Literatures

Department. The rest of the participants were graduates of English Language Teaching Department. Additionally, the teachers were inquired about their visits to the countries where English is spoken as the native language. The vast majority of the participants (5 of them) stated that they had been abroad before; however only three of these five participants have been in a country where English is spoken as a mother tongue. According to the responses taken from the participants, the most popular one visited by them is England. 3 of them visited some different countries including Italy, France and Czech Republic. Additionally, they were on a visit to these countries for just a few weeks. The ages of the participants ranged between 31 and 49 years and that's why the implementation of an interview is the best avenue to obtain the necessary results related with the research.

Data Collection

The purpose of this research was to understand the teachers' perception of the factors that are effective in promoting an understanding between the students' own culture and target language culture. To this end, qualitative research techniques were employed as interviews suit the objective of this study. Qualitative method is substantially creative and subject to emerging themes at the core (Creswell, 2012). To a great extent, it is contingent upon the strenuous efforts and conceptual capabilities of the researchers along with their insights. In addition to these points, it is a matter of forming a balance between the amount of evidence and data while seeking the best fit for the analysis of antithetical viewpoints.

To eliminate the barriers of using quantitative techniques in a social context, the instrument of the study was chosen as interviews on the grounds that interviews give the researcher the opportunity to gain verbal insight into ELT teachers' perceptions about the integration of cultural elements into their classes. Given the chance of reflecting on their experience, the participants select some significant points of their experience from their stream of consciousness. As individuals' consciousness ensures access to social and educational issues, every word that people use in telling their stories is a microcosm of their consciousness (Vygotsky, 1987).

The aim of in-depth interviewing is neither to form theses nor to get answers to certain questions. As the individuals' stories are worth listening to and having an interest in, it is not possible to convey the core meaning of educational issues only with numbers. That is why people whom we interview are hard to code with numbers, and why finding pseudonyms for participants are a complex and sensitive task (Kvale, 1996). Interviewing can be regarded as the best avenue of inquiry in making sense of the participants' experiences and evaluating their 'subjective understanding', thereby yielding results for researchers to conceive new ideas in the field.

As for the questions in interviews, Dörnyei (2003) postulates that some external feedback is indispensable in the process of writing questions especially when an initial item pool is prepared. Before directing these questions to the participants, the items in the interview went through different processes in order that the researcher could be sure the questions are clear enough for the subjects to respond correctly. After the theme and scope of the study were introduced and presented to the participants, the interviews were conducted with one participant at a time between 10-15 minutes. With the aim of deriving the results of the survey and exploring teachers' perceptions about the integration of target culture in EFL classes, a semi-structured interview was conducted by the researcher. As the interviews are implemented so as to learn about the complexities and unknown sides of the phenomenon, the design and even the focus of study have to be seen as 'emergent' (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, pp. 208-211). However, an overemphasis of the 'emergent nature' can be construed and interpreted as a sign of being nonchalant or looseness.

The interviews were conducted in Turkish, in the participants' mother tongue, in order for them to carry out better verbal communication. Using the mother tongue during the interviews allows the respondents to feel freer in expressing their opinions and elaborate more clearly on their viewpoints. These interviews lasted for approximately 2 hours. The data emerged from the interviews which were transcribed verbatim (Poland, 1995) after being audio-taped. As the interviewer should have a neutral standpoint throughout the process, the aim of the researchers is to direct the questions

with ‘a certain sense of naiveté, innocence and absence of prejudgements’ (Moustakas, 1994, p. 85). In the same way, the transcription of the interviews was fulfilled without adding any personal comments or ideas.

Data Analysis Procedure

One of the widely decried features of the quantitative research method is its turning human beings into numbers, for that reason the aim of the researcher espousing qualitative research technique is to attract attention to the significance of human experiences. Without denigrating the possibility of collaboration, the goal of this study is to gain insight into the experiences of individuals about social and educational issues. In order to channel the facts, terms and significant points appropriately, the researcher must have some passion about the subject of the research and sustain the process with the inclusion of new aspects, typical indicators of qualitative research’s emergent nature. In addition to the role of the instrument to gather reliable and valid data, human interviewer can be a marvellously smart, adaptable, flexible instrument who can respond to situations with skill, tact, and understanding (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 107). Data collection procedure was implemented with these facts in mind and this enabled the researcher to have reliable data and facilitated the process of data analysis.

Throughout the study, the researcher tried to explore teachers’ perceptions about the integration of cultural elements and analysed the data accordingly. The interview was designed for the realization of this aim and tried to answer certain questions.

Results

Introduction

At the outset, the study of compendia and other works are absolutely fundamental to gain an insight into the core of the study. Hyman (1954) stated that without a certain and pre-determined structure for their work, the researchers may increase the chance of distorting what they learn from their participants. Such pre-reading is a must in order to respond correspondingly to what emerges as the research proceeds.

Taking into account these basic characteristics of qualitative method, the analyst aims to explore the direction that makes the most sense after the data were read in an iterative manner to grasp all constituents at the core of the interviews. To capture all variations in participants’ teaching practices that are on line with their perceptions, the researcher kept the flexible mindset while allowing for evolving and emerging themes in due course time.

Data Analysis

Having been selected randomly, the teachers were directed a pre-determined sets of questions related with the purpose of the study. Interviews were made individually with the participants in order to let them feel comfortable during the interview and were only interjected to make the gist of their ideas clear. Before the implementation of the interviews, the teachers taking part in the study were informed succinctly to acquaint them with the theme and purpose of the study. Additionally, all of the names in this research are pseudonyms and quotations are given by using these pseudonyms instead of participants’ real names.

Table 1. Background Knowledge about Interviewees

Pseudonyms	Age	Gender	Teaching Experience	Pedagogical Education
1) Ayşe	29	Female	Six years	Boğaziçi University
2) Mehmet	31	Male	Seven years	Cumhuriyet University
3) Ece	40	Female	Seventeen years	Cumhuriyet University
4) Sevgi	39	Female	Sixteen years	Cumhuriyet University
5) Ahsen	49	Female	Twenty-six years	Ondokuz Mayıs University
6) Zeynep	37	Female	Fourteen years	Dokuz Eylül University
7) Ece	31	Female	Eight years	Hacettepe University

The instructors were given the chance to emphasize any pertinent point without constraining time. The analyst should be astute observer of the participants' gestures and body language in order to exploit these details in the pattern recognition and analysis process. Some instant questions arose during the interviews and this gave rise to modification in the order of some questions. After the completion of the interviews, the recordings were transcribed verbatim and read in an iterative way. Thereafter, the teachers' perceptions, beliefs and ideas about the integration of target language culture were categorized under certain headings.

Results

The Definition of Culture

In this current study, the aim was to elicit the teachers' perceptions, beliefs and practices about the place of culture in English language courses. Their practices in relation are pre-eminently significant in terms of motivating students who are on track or presenting the positive aspects of target culture incorporation for the participation of indisposed pupils in language courses. First and foremost, the teachers should recognize the fact that cultural attitudes play a paramount role in forming an understanding of another country and related culture.

It is perfectly plain that teachers cannot only utilize the traditional definition of culture in the process of determining the elements of curriculum. Teachers should avail themselves of the opportunity to keep track of technological developments and developing cultural features of peoples. Almost all of the instructors defined culture by adding a list of features related with the term 'culture.' Observable aspects of culture (eating habits, arts, customs and behaviours) and invisible parts (values, attitudes) of the phenomenon were included in these broad definitions. Some instructors expressed their viewpoints with a holistic approach. Interestingly yet not surprisingly, the teachers emphasized the difficulty of defining the term in one concrete way. Of seven instructors having been interviewed, five teachers converged in the sociological sense of culture.

The Place of Culture in EFL Context

As for the place and importance of culture in foreign language classes, the vast majority of the participants stated that culture is an indispensable part of language and communication. They also expressed that the teachers should adopt an eclectic approach while focusing on the cultural matters in their courses. It is not wrong to state that modernist definition and conception of culture persevere in their minds. Additionally, the participants stated that target language culture should be addressed in a systematic way without overshadowing the locus of native culture. Upon being directed the question whether teaching the target language culture is subordinated to teaching the language itself, they stated these two broad concepts should be inserted in foreign language classes concurrently.

Taking into account the focus and purpose of the study, the integration of cultural elements is momentous and vital in terms of students' success in the field. As teachers' main purpose in giving cultural information in foreign language classes is to help them develop a global understanding of other cultures, the course curriculum and activities should be determined and designed accordingly. Despite consensus and mounting evidence about the importance of cultural knowledge, most of the teachers feel that they have to focus on grammatical and lexical points and skip the cultural elements due to time constraints.

In conjunction with the assumption that cultural knowledge is decisive in students' continuum of development in learning English, *Ayşe* stated that she tries to teach target language culture; however, she sometimes fails to do so due to time constraints in English courses. She also added perception level of students along with the existence of low achievers in English courses limits the incorporation of cultural features into the courses. According to her, English should be evaluated in the global world context because you cannot refer to a 'pure English culture' in your courses. She claimed there was a distinctive English culture in 14th and 15th centuries; however, in today's world you can only teach and share the usage of certain expressions in communicative settings.

The possibility of assimilation in the event that teachers try to impose target language cultural values on students is a contentious issue. As the structure and cultural background of a foreign language have a significant role in predisposing the learners towards a certain way of thinking, the process of foreign language acquisition should be evaluated meticulously. Furthermore, cultural attitudes play a paramount role in restructuring the students' cultural conceptions, accordingly the instructors should attach great importance to the incorporation of cultural elements while trying to form a balance between native culture and target culture.

The students' culture-bound behaviours must be observed non-judgmentally in order to encourage them insofar as possible to endorse the target language community features as an alternate way of behaving. The students may sometimes feel perplexed or uncommunicative in the presence of different themes and cultural features related with the target language. The teachers' role here is to help them form a positive understanding about the foreign language and the community in which it is spoken without denigrating the importance of native culture.

On the basis of the findings above, it would make sense to claim the teachers unanimously agree and advocate the incorporation of target culture into the courses while trying to allocate enough time for the sake of students' cultural competence. The concerted efforts of language teachers have a paramount importance in that continuum. The students may sometimes be reticent about responding to culturally embedded questions or activities; nevertheless the teachers would have great impact on the process by integrating miscellaneous communicative activities into the courses.

In addition to the perceptions mentioned above, the participants stated they did not adhere to course books as a reliable source of cultural information. The reference to cultural elements in course curriculum and subject materials should be beneficial to some extent; however they regard native speakers of English as the best source of learning the target language culture. Since they do not have that opportunity all the time, they try to use realia and appropriate materials as a source of cultural information. In conclusion, foreign language course curriculum should cover linguistic and cultural information on equal terms on the grounds that cultural background information is crucial in establishing appropriate communication.

The Contribution of Cultural Information to Students' Motivation

The integration of cultural information into the foreign language courses has some benefits and it runs the gamut from readiness to communicate with native speakers to understand the culturally embedded units in a text. The participants stipulated that the inclusion of cultural elements in English courses makes a great contribution to students' proficiency level by motivating them to learn more about the language itself and the related cultural background. The participants of the study unanimously agree that the students' communicative skills can be honed to perfection with the contribution of target language cultural elements.

The vast majority of the participants stated that the teachers of English language should systematically deal with the questions directed by students about the 'culture' phenomenon. In other words, they are in favour of teaching culture in the lessons. On the other hand, some interviewees articulated that contrastive analysis should be made between the target culture and native culture of students in order not to allow for the possibilities of assimilation. Apart from this aspect, some participants claimed that it is required to attach equal importance to different cultures and nationalities. They also preferred to prioritize the subjects that would appeal to the interests of the students and accommodate the needs of these learners.

Analysing the enunciations and statements of the interviewees, it can be asserted that a great majority of the participants advocates the incorporation of cultural components into the courses. The prevailing idea about that topic was the emphasis that should be put on the pragmatic sense of culture as the background knowledge. As pragmatic sense of culture has a significant role as a mediator between people, the function of the culture in this direction should not be underestimated in English

courses. *Begüm*, a female English instructor, expressed that in reading courses they had to include cultural features of the language as these items enable the students to comprehend the gist of the texts. Through her statements, it is explicit that the students having an interest in English courses are far more knowledgeable in target language culture and try to direct related questions during the courses.

The teachers participating in the study unanimously agree that there exist an inseparable connection between culture learning and language acquisition. When they were asked to clarify the gist of discourse in a more elaborate way, they added that meticulous care should be provided so that the students can gain the cultural and linguistic patterns contemporaneously, albeit challenging. Another observation shared by the interviewees was the fact that the students having an enormous amount of cultural knowledge about the target language community surpass others in terms of language capacity and lexical knowledge.

The Role of Textbooks in Teaching the Culture of the Target Language Community

Most of the participants gathered around the common idea that the use of English language course books written abroad is critical in transmitting the correct discourse patterns and language dynamics together with the general cultural characteristics of the community. Using an English coursebook written in Turkey by some Turkish authors can yield advantageous results to some extent, especially in conveying the grammatical use of the language. On the other hand, these books are inadequate in presenting the cultural features with the help of authentic materials. As expressed clearly in a saying, “You cannot see the forest from a tree.” Although textbooks are not enough to reflect the cultural side of the language, almost all the participants are of the same mind in using English textbooks written abroad by native speakers of that language.

From cultural facet, a dilemmatic problem arises because *Zeynep* and *Begüm* have different ideas and viewpoints. They stated in their interviews that cultural elements of our own culture should be enshrined to transmit them to the next generations. When the students are exposed to foreign language culture to a great extent, this may result in their assimilation. If this is not the case, the students should learn the culture of at least a few countries in order to make a comparison between them.

Regarding the reflection of the teachers with whom we made an interview, we noticed that they complain about students’ being indifferent to cultural issues and linguistic elements of English language. Despite the fact that the teachers strive to instil the cultural elements and speech patterns of the language, they sometimes fail to attract the attention of the students. Undoubtedly, this fact cannot be generalized for all the students and departments at this university because the participants added that the students being successful, curious and involved in the courses helped us to form an exuberant classroom atmosphere in terms of culture integrated activities.

Ahsen also noted that the students should be aware of cultural differences between the two cultures, whence the teachers should make a comparison of the two communities in order to make the course more enjoyable. When we probed into this statement, she held that she followed the socio-cultural trends both domestically and globally. She elucidated that if the activities included in the course books are totally unfamiliar to students, they feel unsympathetic towards foreign language culture. As English courses are two hours per week in almost all of the departments at this university, it is generally not possible to listen to text book CDs or incorporate other different communicative activities.

Ayşe expounded on the employment of course books in foreign language courses, specifically in English courses. Through her statements, it is understood that she favours the use of these coursebooks inasmuch as the students, at least more enthusiastic ones, learnt lots of items that can be used to express themselves in certain instances. Furthermore, she tends to advocate the utilization of these books in the name of appealing to students’ interests and motivation. It is obvious that the students taking interest in English courses endorse the employment of books written abroad because these books arouse interest and make contribution to students’ academic achievement.

Zeynep overtly stated that this kind of books just exhibit the available facade of popular culture. Therefore, the cultural values are presented stereotypically. She added that she tried to form a balance by including our own cultural values during these courses. To exemplify, she asked some questions to her students about national holidays of Turkey if the text books mention the Independence Day of America. In this way, they learn which words to use in expressing their ideas about a certain topic. She stated “When they asked to express their own cultural values in English, it immediately caught their attention because they had not been given the chance to mention themselves and had never stood out.” It is plain that the students appreciate these kinds of activities and regard them as enjoyable tasks to implement for the sake of language acquisition.

The Role of English Language Instructors in Teaching Target Language Culture

ELT teachers should be equipped with the cultural background information about the communicative patterns of the target language. The overwhelming majority of the participants stressed that monumental aspects of the culture should be incorporated into the courses together with the everyday life speech patterns in order to accommodate the needs of the learners. The participants believe in their own need to acquire the cultural knowledge about the way native speakers use the language in communicative ways.

On the other hand, some of the participants stated that the internalization of target language culture would have harmful effects on Turkish culture. When the instructor has this attitude towards the integration of target language culture, it would not make sense to mention the advantages of culturally embedded courses. Conversely, the aim of educating the learners to have intercultural competence in the world arena would be attained when the instructor do not regard target culture as a threat to the native culture. This obviously reveals that there is a distinct connection between the teacher’s attitude and the degree to which culture is incorporated.

In conclusion, the teachers emphasized the significance of incorporating target culture elements in order to help students achieve a native-like proficiency. On the other hand, they focused on the constraints of this approach and the impact of student profile on the determination period of the curricula. Although they regard the term ‘culture’ itself as a confusing phenomenon, they added that they try to analyse and interpret it by keeping up-to-date on recent developments. The dynamic side of culture necessitates studious efforts of English instructors in order that they can enable the learners to acquire the components in the latest trend and speech patterns. Another issue focused by the participants was the necessity of cultural courses so as to prepare the learners for the linguistically and non-linguistically patterns of the target language speech community. As language is accepted as the main medium through which cultural meanings are conveyed, the successful command of language is dependent on the extent of cultural knowledge.

Discussion and Conclusion

As it is imperative to address to the interwoven relationship between culture and language, the teachers feel the need to develop students’ communicative abilities to be agents of world peace in today’s multicultural world. It was frequently recognized that culture contributes a great deal to the language proficiency level of students. As culture and language are not two separate entities, the teachers preferred to include these two at the same time. They are all aware of the fact that culture teaching raises acceptance and appreciation of other societies. In sum, integrating culture into the language teaching syllabi and curricula has a motivating role on language acquisition process.

As Hofstede (2005) contends, “Studying a language without being exposed to its culture is like practicing swimming without water.” (p. 11). As it is easily recognized from this statement, most of the educators in the field gather around the idea that the students should be presented cultural knowledge in order that they can acquire better communication and comprehension skills. In the same vein, the instructors strive to enact and incorporate academic tasks and make the cultural input comprehensible and applicable for the students.

Most of the participants united in the common idea that the teachers should help the learners form tolerance towards target language culture and dispel the prejudices against the stereotypes in certain communities. As affective barriers bring about many problems in exchanging information in target language culture, the first objective should be to overcome these barriers in order not to inhibit development of cultural awareness.

The participants also claimed that they do not know how to handle the culture phenomenon on the grounds that it is a broad and general term. As some teachers are not well-equipped with the cultural, paralinguistic and discourse elements of the language, they refrain from incorporating cultural sides and skip these elements. However, they observed the rise in the motivation level of students when the subjects appeal to them and they find a relation or similarity with their own cultural elements. That's why the instructors should present discourse elements of both languages in the courses.

As parallel with the findings elicited from a great number of studies in the field, teachers are of the same mind about the culturally embedded courses and its place in ELT curricula. Byram, Esarte-Saries, and Taylor (1991, p. 111) stated that learning about other cultures promoted personal improvement. By the same token, the teachers aim at enabling learners to develop a knack for English learning and communicating appropriately in cultural settings. They should be quick to distinguish prodigies from other students or low achievers. Culture teaching curricula is determined and organized according to the qualities or learning styles of the different student profiles when the multiple intelligence theory is taken into account. The learners should also be exposed to culture-rich content and rich sources of acculturation to internalize the communicative side of the language. This may help students to immerse in cultural components of the language and make most of the courses.

Teachers' Role in the Process

Teachers are regarded as the main agent in helping the learners to develop cross-cultural awareness in foreign language courses. Liddicoat (1997) claim that "The teacher, who has to deal with the learners own cultural expectations and understandings and at the same time to introduce them to the new cultural viewpoints enshrined in the target language, is the cultural mediator between cultures" (p. 4). Acknowledging the inevitability of cultural information in teaching methodology would have an impact on instructors' teaching practices, hence the activities incorporating communicative side of the language would make up for the deficiency of cultural knowledge about the target language community.

As it is a precarious situation to be caged in a mono-cultural milieu, the teachers have the role of broadening students' horizon by making them acquainted with different cultures and societies. That is to say, the teachers believe that they should incorporate the cultural features of the language for the sake of the learners' language proficiency and education as a human being. The results of this study are in line with one implemented by Robinson (1981) as his participants elaborated that foreign language study would give a person the key to another cultural milieu, which would lead to an understanding of other people and life styles.

The upshot is that the participants of the study reflected the importance of cultural perception and intercultural training. They also drew attention to the influence of cultural knowledge exerted over the individuals' thoughts and ways of interpreting the world. Linguistic and extra linguistic aspects of the language should be presented in a way that motivates students to explore the language with an inquisitive mind.

Students' Motivation and Achievement

Cultural knowledge associated with target language instils the learners with an innate impetus to internalize the features of the language. At that point, it would not be wrong to state the necessity of culturally orientated activities and courses in foreign language classroom curricula. When the learner virtually settle himself to cultural environment of the class, it will be possible to respond to statements

effectively and speak the language fluently in terms of discourse elements. Interlocutory situations in which participatory interactions take place have a contributing role in enhancing students' communicative competence.

Only when the students internalize the cultural elements of the speech community can they master the linguistic and lexical components of language. In other words, the teachers all agree that manipulation of syntax and lexicon is not enough to respond to certain statements in cultural settings. Sometimes, local and national reservations inhibit the development of cross-cultural awareness; at that point the teacher would take part in as a mediator in English classes and help them incorporate their home culture into the courses.

Limitations of the Study

At the heart of much controversy about qualitative research lies the opinions pertinent to the limited number of subjects participating in the study. The participants of the study included 7 English language instructors working at a Turkish state university. For that reason, the findings and results of the study cannot be generalized to other foreign language instructors; however the results of the findings are significant in reflecting the teachers' practices in classroom environments when their viewpoints about the components of target culture are taken into account. On the other hand, quantitative analysis has some advantages in that aspect inasmuch as the researcher has the chance of directing the related questions to a great number of respondents. Besides, the analysis phase of qualitative research depends on the preconceptions or insights of the researcher. In quantitative research, the results are more objective in a way because they are interpreted with the help of numerical findings.

Pedagogical Implications

The following recommendations for the integration of cultural knowledge in English courses can be suggested:

1. Teachers should incorporate cultural activities personalizing the linguistic content of the language. Discussion activities and role plays should be employed to help them discover the differences and similarities between their own culture and TLC while enabling them to internalize the culturally embedded behaviour patterns of the language.
2. The activities should invoke identification with students' native culture. This can be achieved by simulating them to talk about themselves while drawing the differences between two different peoples. Embedded within this claim is that a contrastive approach will reinforce the students socio-cultural awareness.
3. Selecting appealing aspects of TC is crucial in engaging learners in English courses and it would be conducive to help them form tolerance towards other nations. The courses including the distinctive features of the community and the language would be effective in accelerating language acquisition process.
4. The classroom atmosphere should create opportunities for students to advance their knowledge of target language culture and the instructors should incorporate interesting facets of culture such as food, eating habits or traditional celebrations etc. The inclusion of different activities will function as a pedagogical means of motivation by activating their interests in English study.

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Improving Preschool Teachers Attitude towards the Persona Doll Approach and Determining the Effectiveness of Persona Doll Training Proceduresⁱ

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Abstract

The study features two basic steps. The first step of the research aims to develop a scale to measure the attitude of preschool teachers towards the Persona Dolls Approach and to verify its validity/reliability through a general survey. The cohort employed in the research was drawn from a pool of preschool teachers working in and around the cities of Çanakkale and Mardin, Turkey during the 2011-2012 academic year. The first sampling taken with the purposive sampling method was carried out in June 2011 with 187 preschool teachers employed in schools in and around the city of Çanakkale. Validity was measured through the application of structure and scope verification procedures, while reliability was established using the test - re test method and internal consistency procedures. The resulting analyses presented a scale with KMO Value (Kaiser Meyer Olkin) of 0.812 and an internal consistency value of 0.916, where a value approximate to +1.00 indicates a high level of internal consistency. The second step of the research involved a cohort of 46 preschool teachers from Mardin and surrounding districts, 23 in the trial group and 23 in the control group. The aim was to assess whether the trial group teachers would present a change of attitude following a two-day training in the Persona Doll Approach. A pre test-post test and control group trial method was employed for this purpose. The groups were equalized taking into account the validity-reliability studies related to the teacher survey and attitude scales from the first step of research, and related and unrelated Group T Tests were applied in data analysis. At the conclusion of the experimental model, comparing pre and post-test results, significant levels of positive attitude change were perceived in terms of measurable variances among teachers in the experimental group receiving instruction in the Persona Doll Approach. These results would appear to imply the positive effects of training in the Persona Dolls Approach for teachers in the experimental group.

Keywords: Early childhood, Respect for Diversity, The Persona Doll Approach, Validation and Reliability Study, Pre School Teachers Perception of The Persona Dolls Approach Scale , Training in The Persona Doll Approach

ⁱ This study was produced from the master's thesis titled "Kimlikli Bebekler Yaklaşımı Eğitiminin Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Öğretmenlerinin Kimlikli Bebekler Yaklaşımı'na İlişkin Tutumları ve Kimlikli Bebeklerin Kişilik Özelliklerini Algılamaları Üzerindeki Etkisi". The master's thesis has been supported by Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University Scientific Research Projects Coordination Unit. Project Number: 2012/002"

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Introduction

Supporting the acquisition of respect for diversity among individuals is of utmost importance to create social consciousness where by communities can exist in harmony in a spirit of tolerance and free of prejudice. Early childhood is the optimal period for the acquisition of such aptitudes. Early childhood is a time when the child is naturally keen to explore their surroundings and to interact and communicate with those around them. Between the ages of 0-6, children begin to acquire the values, habits and behaviours of their community. This period of development has a life long impact on the individual, which is significant not only for the mental, physical and spiritual well-being of the child but also for their social and emotional development (Ekmişoğlu, 2007).

Individuals begin forming their earliest prejudices as early as the age of two and a half. It is possible to raise tolerant individuals with respect for diversity if these values begin to be taught during early childhood. If children are educated effectively from this early phase in which they begin to develop prejudices, by the time they leave early childhood they will have developed awareness of their own individuality, realised that they are distinct from others and that both they and others possess a variety of distinct personal and psychological attributes. They will understand that gender, social identity and physical attributes may vary among different individuals. The child will have realised that they are part of a family and also of a larger social group, and so will have laid the basis of their cultural identities, languages and attitudes, in addition to their ethnic and cultural entities. The child will have realised that they belong to a social network within a community, within an urban context, which in turn is situated within a broader, state context (Ekmişoğlu, 2007; Divrenği and Aktan, 2010).

Perceptions of the notion of diversity vary in different societies and cultures, so that those who are perceived of as 'different' may, in some cases, be subject to discrimination, may even be dehumanised or punished. In communities where those who are perceived of as 'different' are accepted, such individuals are enabled to become productive members of society (Eryaman, 2006, 2007). Those considered 'different' and labelled as such include the mentally and physically handicapped, those with various chronic physiological ailments or mental disorders, such as the blind or partially sighted, persons from different ethnic groups, or those who are eg. gifted, obese, dwarfed, bespectacled, wear braces or of different skin color.

The primary reference work on respect for diversity is the approach developed by Derman-Sparks and Carol Brunson-Philips at the beginning of the 1980's. The Anti-Bias Curriculum, which focused on the themes of prejudice and discrimination, was first developed in 1989 in the U.S. by the Child Development specialist and educator Louise Derman-Sparks. Her work developed, in collaboration with the ABC Task Force, into a publication (DermanSparks,1989), and as a result of such initiatives, the Anti-bias Curriculum emerged as part of the multicultural education program. It was subsequently confirmed that this program offered teachers the opportunity to reflect on their own prejudices while acting as an effective guide for educators approaching the issue of diversity with children. The programme addressed diversity as variety within the community (Derman-Sparks & Ramsey, 2006).

The anti-bias curriculum is by no means to be considered as a mere adjunct to an existing curriculum program, but as a proactive, activist approach to be integrated within all aspects of curriculum. For it to be effective, the approach necessitates application in every phase of schooling, from the establishment of the basic curriculum framework, though the development of teaching procedures and regulations, to the pragmatic level of how teachers interact with their pupils and the instructional methodologies which they adopt during implementation (Samuels and others, 1996).

Effective programs based on respect for diversity are currently conducted in preschools and primary schools in the United States (Eryaman, 2008). The greatest responsibility in applying such respect for diversity programs falls on the educators, the teachers assuming the role of instructor.

Teachers in the area of early learning bear the critical responsibility of ensuring the growth of respect for diversity along with the individual development of each child. The research of Selma Greenberg (in Sparks 1980) demonstrated the impact of education on the social and intellectual development of children, stressing the critical importance of learning respect for diversity at this age within the framework of individual development.

In order to introduce preschool children to the notion of diversity, to provide them with an enriching experience of the concept and to encourage them to respect differences, in the early 1980's Kay Taus, a preschool teacher in California created dolls with varying physical attributes that represented the diverse cultures within the classroom, She also made complete sets of clothing and wrote stories reflecting the persona of each doll to be shared with the pupils. In 1989, Louise Derman-Sparks and her team in the USA carried on Kay Taus's work, adopting the dolls as an effective tool which could be used to combat all types of prejudice. The dolls were used particularly effectively among children from communities in which there existed severe discrimination. In 2000, such dolls were brought to the United Kingdom by Babette Brown as part of an EU Comenius Project, and training with the dolls ensued, primarily in Germany, but also in a number of other European countries such as Austria and Iceland. The use of the Persona Dolls Approach today is widespread in the USA, UK, Australia and certain European countries such as Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands and Iceland (Smith, 2009; Divrengi and Aktan, 2010).

The Persona Dolls approach has a very positive effect in increasing knowledge and understanding about prejudice among preschool teachers. It helps them to empathise both with children and with their peers and enables them to evolve personal sensitivities and attitudes in addition to effecting how they express their feelings and attitudes. The approach also positively effects teacher self-esteem. Additionally, creating the identities and personal narratives of the dolls serves as a significant opportunity for teachers to cooperate purposefully with families and colleagues.

Global research on the Persona Dolls Approach is limited. Among the more notable studies are those carried out by Glenda MacNaughton (1997), Elaine McClements (2004), Eve Cook (2004), Buchanan (2007), Babette Brown (2008), Nicola Ann Irish (2009), Carol Smith (2009) and Jesuvadian & Wright (2011).

Biersteker and Ngwevela (2002) investigated children's understanding of prejudice using a limited number of Persona Dolls in quad-cultured preschools. The results indicated that the anti-bias approach consolidated pupil and teacher behaviour, helping them to empathise and solve problems. Teachers who received anti-bias training were seen to become more aware of their personal attitudes and more inclined to alter their teaching methods as a result. McClement's research, with interviews, observation and surveys targeting 3-6 year olds and their teachers (2004) focused on the positive impact that Persona Dolls might have on understanding discrimination. The research indicated that the Persona Doll Approach was highly effective working with children. Research by Buchanan (2007) on emotional literacy, using available classroom materials related to emotions and the persona dolls indicated the effectiveness of the approach in specific aspects of all five areas of emotional literacy competence. The study on whether persona dolls were being used in relation to the curriculum topics of equality and discrimination carried out in 2008 by Babette Brown revealed teachers' unwillingness to utilise the approach or to address issues of discrimination in school. The most comprehensive research on the Persona Doll Approach was the doctoral thesis of Carol Smith (2009) based on her work carried out in South Africa. The research included 420 early childhood educators from both rural and urban schools and a variety of socio-economic backgrounds. The efficacy of the Persona Doll approach was measured through teacher surveys, observation, interviews and instructor reports. The research findings indicated that the Persona Dolls Approach was capable of minimalizing discrimination both among teachers and children, and that it also promoted the development of empathy and self-respect.

When the above research is cross-referenced with that of Glenda MacNaughton (1997), Eve Cook (2004), Buchanan (2007), Nicola Ann Irish (2009), Jesuvadian and Wright (2011), we find that studies related to aspects of diversity, prejudice, discrimination and equality yielded similar results.

Concurrent to research being carried out on the Persona Dolls Approach in other countries, the Foundation to Promote Women's Initiatives (KEDV) (2006) project entitled "Erken Çocuklukta Kültürel Çeşitliliğe Saygı Projesi" ("Respect for Cultural Diversity In Early Childhood" Project) was the first Turkish research project completed on this topic. The project's scope was to develop an educational program on respect for diversity and to raise awareness on the matter among parents and teachers working in early childhood education in schools, in order to help children cope with discrimination. The program ran for two years. The principles of the respect for diversity program were included in the National Preschool Education Curriculum in 2006 (MEB, *Ministry of Education*, 2006), which was revised and updated in 2013. Divrenği (2007), in her post-graduate thesis surveyed 685 preschool teachers about the notion of respect for diversity. The research indicated that teachers believed that they were impartial towards individuals of difference and that cultural background or differences in nationality did not factor in their interactions with their pupils. The teachers also believed that schools should provide equal opportunity for all students. This research enabled Divrenği (2007) to develop the "Scale of Respect for Diversity in Early Childhood". The reliability coefficient of this scale was measured as 0.91. The qualitative research of Üner (2011) looked at the effects of Respect for Diversity training, taking 15 preschool teachers' opinions into account. The studies confirmed that the training had a positive effect on all aspects of child development. Additionally the training was found to have enabled the children to develop self-awareness and empathy, an informed respect for diversity and better, more meaningful relationships with individuals dissimilar to themselves.

The first application of the Persona Doll Approach in Turkey was carried out by Aktan Acar and Kamaraj (2006) and aimed at teaching the values of peace to a group of ten children aged 3-6. The later application and research project in which the researcher took part was the Persona Dolls regional project organized within the context of SPO(DPT)-SODES in 2011. The project was carried out over two phases, in partnership with the Boğaziçi University Peace Education Application and Research Center (BEUAM), the Çanakkale 18 Mart University (Çomü) and the Mardin Ortak Kadın İşbirliği Derneği (*Mardin Women's Cooperative Association* (MOKİD)). The first phase included the manufacture of Persona Dolls in the MOKİD workshops, providing employment for women of socio-economically disadvantaged background. Teachers with no previous Persona Dolls experience were selected from schools within and around Mardin, and received initial instruction on the approach during the second phase of research.

In the literature, no previous research had been carried out in Turkey in relation to perceptions of the role of the Persona Doll Approach in introducing the notion of diversity at preschool level, and as a tool enriching the child's daily experience by discouraging or preventing prejudicial behaviour, while also supporting the development of problem solving skills and alternative strategies. Looking at the internationally published work on this subject, while qualitative research is plentiful, validated quantitative studies appear to be lacking. As this is the first academic work of this kind on the Persona Dolls Approach, it is believed that it will fill an important void in the related literature and act as a significant point of reference for future research (Seminar Notes, 2011).

Scope of the Study

The research has two main objectives. The first is to develop the Okul Öncesi Öğretmenlerinin Kimlikli Bebekler Yaklaşımına İlişkin Tutum Ölçeği (*Scale of Preschool Teachers Attitude towards the Persona Dolls Approach*) (OÖÖKBYİTÖ), and complete reliability and validity studies, the second goal is to determine any changes taking place in teacher attitudes towards the approach. To that end, the following questions guided the study:

- 1) Is the pre-school teachers perception of the Persona Dolls Approach scale (OÖÖKBYİTÖ) valid and reliable?

- 2) Did results concerning the attitude of preschool teachers towards the approach vary according to the teacher's place of work, gender, age, number of pupils in class, the presence of children of diversity in class or whether they were previously introduced to the concept or not?
- 3) Did post-test results in the trial group differ in any significant manner from pre-test results?
- 4) Did post-test results in the control group differ in any significant manner from pre-test results?
- 5) Did the post-test results for experimental and control groups show any significant bias in favour of the trial group in terms of changes of attitude towards the Persona Dolls approach?

Method

Both scanning and experimental quantitative research models were employed in this research. In the scanning model, the aim being to seek to portray a situation as it previously existed and continues to do so, within which the subject of the research, whether event, individual or object, is defined as is (Karasar, 2005). Experimental models being based on specific research tools developed by the researcher to determine the relationships between cause and effect through observation. While the focus of the scanning model is to observe a given situation, in the experimental model the researcher seeks to capture data of their own construction through observation (Gökçe, 2004). Varied patterns of research approaches are found in the experimental model. One of these is the pre-test post-test model with trial and control groups. In this model two impartially assigned groups are identified, one as the experimental or trial group, the other as control group. Both groups are subject to (Pre-test) and later Post-test survey applications following the intervention.

The Study Group (Cohort)

Two separate study groups were used in this research. The first was the cohort selected to participate in the study to develop the scale for validity and reliability, the second was the test-control group chosen to participate in the experimental studies. Individuals were selected for participation in the test through the Purposive Sampling method (Cohen, Monion ve Marrison, 2007). The research cohort was drawn from a pool of individuals who were preschool teachers employed in schools in and around the Turkish cities of Çanakkale and Mardin during the 2011-2012 academic year. The teacher survey and the preschool teachers attitude towards the Persona Dolls Project (OÖÖKBYİTÖ) scale were two of the baseline data acquisition tools employed during this pre-application pilot study, which was conducted before research commenced, and averages were taken of the scale's sub-dimension standard deviations (6.98). The sample size formula was developed on the basis of these deviations (Karasar, 2005). The outcome of the calculations was 187,16. $N: ((z* ss)/e)^2 = ((1.96*6,98) / 1)^2 = 187,16$. Based on this, in June 2011, a more accessible cohort of 187 teachers from schools in and around Çanakkale was selected to take part in the study in the first step of research, by the researcher experienced in the Persona Dolls Approach, and focusing on OÖÖKBYİTÖ validity and reliability. The trial group was defined as the scale development group. In September 2011, as part of a DPT- SODES project, 23 preschool teachers from in and around Mardin with no previous knowledge of the Persona Doll Approach were recruited through random sampling to form the trial group in the experimental research model, constituting the second step in the research. Both trial and control group members were teachers selected for purposive sampling according to their level of voluntary participation.

Table 1. *Frequency and Distribution Percentage Among the Scale Development Group by Demographic Attributes.*

	F	%
Location of assignment		
City center	45	24,1
Town center	101	54,0
Suburban neighborhoods	20	10,7
Village	21	11,2
School type		
State School	170	90,9
Private School	17	9,1
Gender		
Female	177	94,7
Male	10	5,3
Age		
Ages 21-25	64	34,2
Ages 26-30	65	34,8
Ages 31-35	58	31,0
Education Level		
High school	2	1,1
Associate degree	22	11,8
Bachelors	155	82,9
Higher Degree/doctorate	8	4,3
Characteristics of diversity among children in class		
Handicapped	17	41,5
Immigrant	1	2,4
Different Race	2	4,9
Ethnic minority	3	7,3
Language minority	12	29,3
Combination	6	14,6
PD training uptake		
During education		
Yes	38	20,3
No	149	79,7
During professional career		
Yes	26	13,9
No	160	85,6

The Table indicates that of the teachers taking part in the scale-developing phase of the research, 54,0% were employed in suburban neighbourhoods, 24,1% in urban centers, 11,2% in villages and 10,7% in towns. 90,9% of the subjects were employed in state schools while 9,1% were employed in private schools. 94,7% of the teachers were female while 5,3% were male. 34,8% of the teachers were between the ages 26-30, 34,2% between 21-25, and 31,0% were between the ages of 31-35. 82,9% were graduates of a preschool teaching faculty, 11,8% held associate degrees in child development and education, 4,4% held a higher degree/doctorate and 1,1% were graduates of a girls vocational high school child development program. 43,0% of teachers participating in the first phase of research have pupils of diversity in their classes. 41,5% of these are disabled, 29,3% are language minorities, 7,3% are ethnic minorities, 4,9% are of a different race, 2,4% are immigrants and 14,6% are a combination of the above. 20,3% of the teachers taking part in the scale development work were trained in the Persona Dolls Approach during the course of their education, 13,9% were trained during their professional careers.

Table 2. *Frequency and Distribution Percentage Among Trial and Control Group by Demographic Attributes.*

	Trial Group		Control Group	
	F	%	F	%
Location of duty				
City Center	2	8,7	6	26,1
Town center	20	87,0	14	60,9
Suburban neighborhoods	1	4,3	3	13,0
Village	0	,0	0	,0
School type				
State School	23	100,0	23	100,0
Private School	0	,0	0	,0
Gender				
Female	20	87,0	20	87,0
Male	3	13,0	3	13,0
Age				
Ages 21-25	5	21,7	5	21,7
Ages 26-30	13	56,5	12	52,2
Ages 31-35	5	21,7	6	26,1
Education Level				
High school	0	,0	0	,0
associate degree	0	,0	1	4,3
Bachelors	23	100,0	22	95,7
Higher Degree/doctorate	0	,0	0	,0
Characteristics of diversity among children in class				
Handicapped	1	20,0	4	36,4
Immigrant	0	,0	0	,0
Different Race	0	,0	0	,0
Ethnic minority	0	,0	1	9,1
Language minority	2	40,0	5	45,5
Combination	2	40,0	1	9,1
PB training uptake				
During education				
Yes	1	4,3	0	,0
No	22	95,7	23	100,0
During professional career				
Yes	0	,0	0	,0
No	23	100,0	23	100,0

Table 2 indicates that 8,7% of the teachers in the trial group worked in central urban schools, 87% in suburban neighbourhoods and 4,3% in towns. 26,1% of teachers from the control group worked in central urban schools, 60,9% in town center schools and 13% in suburban neighbourhoods. All the teachers forming the test and control groups are employed in state schools. 87% of the teachers were female, 3% were male. 21,7% of the trial group teachers were between 21-25, 56,5% were between 26-30 and 21,7% between 31-35. The control group age distribution was: 21,7% between 21-25, 52,2% between ages 26-30 and 26,1% between ages 31-35. All teachers in the trial group held degrees in preschool teaching. 4,3% of the control group teachers held an associate degree on child development and education, 95,7% held preschool teaching degrees. The trial and control groups do not include teachers with higher degrees. 21,7% of the class populations consisted of students of diversity in the trial group teachers' classes, of which 40% are language minorities, 40% present a combination of attributes and 20% are disabled. Of the 47,8% of students of diversity in the control group teachers' classes, 45,5% are language minorities, 9,1% present a combination of

attributes and 36,4% are disabled. Only 4,3% of the trial group received any formal training in the Persona Doll Approach during their studies or professional careers. The remaining values of the trial and control groups amount to 0%.

Methods of Data Gathering

Two data acquisition methods were used to gather the research data. The first was the Teacher Survey developed by the researcher to identify the demographics of the preschool teachers, the second was the Preschool Teachers Attitude Towards the Persona Dolls Approach Scale (OÖÖKBYİTÖ) which was developed and tested for validity-reliability in the context of this research.

Teacher Survey: The initial measurement tool used within the research was a survey designed by the researcher to evaluate teacher demographics and opinions on the Persona Dolls. The survey tool was a questionnaire consisting of 18 items. Thirteen of the multi-choice questions focus on teacher demographics including the location of the teacher's school, the type of school, the institution to which the school is affiliated, teacher gender, age, level of education, number of years in active teaching, age group of pupils taught, number of pupils in class and their profiles. Five of the questions are intended to test teacher pre-knowledge concerning the Persona Doll Approach. Once the teacher survey was prepared, it was reviewed by five academic specialists and checked by three preschool teachers. The recommended changes were applied as necessary to finalize the survey. The survey takes approximately 5 minutes to complete.

The Preschool Teachers' Perception of the Persona Dolls Approach Measure (OÖÖKBYİTÖ): The Measure, as its name suggests, is intended to measure teacher attitude towards the Persona Doll Approach and the topic of respect for diversity. Teachers were asked to answer all sub-dimensions of the test according to their personal points of view and attitudes. The measure contains five sub-dimensions in total. The first factor consists of ten steps; the second, thirteen; the third, twelve; the fourth, six; and the fifth 7 steps, making a total of 48 in all. The sub-dimensions of the scale are: the objectives of the Persona Doll Approach, teacher perception of the approach, children's attitude towards respect for diversity and prejudices, children's attitudes towards their feelings, and teacher understanding of self-competence. OÖÖKBYİTÖ employs a five-point likert scale consisting of the following options: Strongly agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Strongly disagree. The teachers are asked to select the item that most reflects their opinion. Twenty-seven of the listed items on the scale reflect positive perceptions and attitudes, one point reflects the contrary. Rather than using the final score, it is important to take the median of the final average into account. All the results are evaluated between 0 and 5. The main criteria in this assessment are determined by dividing the number of options minus 1 with the number of criteria (Tavşancıl, 2010). Using the value $4/5=0.8$ as base, the total and sub-dimension assessment measures were estimated as follows: 1.8 very low attitude, 1.9-2.7 low attitude, 2.8-3.6 average, 3.7-4.5 high attitude, 4.6-5.0 very high attitude. This scale takes approximately fifteen minutes to complete.

Data Analysis

The data garnered from the Teacher Questionnaire completed at the onset of the research was scanned for frequency and percentage distribution, which is represented below in table format.

To apply the necessary tests for validity at the onset, the scale was reviewed by five academic specialists for scope. Structural validity was determined using factor analysis with the varimax rotated technique, a method within the expander factor analysis approach, the sub-dimensions of the scale being thus determined. Also various hypothesis tests were carried out to test the structural validity of the scale based on median values of total and sub-dimensional data within OÖÖKBYİTÖ in the context of Teacher Survey data.

A reliability scaling is aimed for the second phase. The first step in determining test reliability is to assess test-retest reliability. The preliminary and final test results obtained from the 30 preschool teachers previously instructed in the Persona Doll Approach were analysed with the Pearson product-

moment correlation coefficient. The internal consistency of the test was determined by Cronbach's alpha operations that rely on the variance of each test item.

Based on the article analysis work, the total and sub-dimension distribution of points for the OÖÖKBYİTÖ was found to be within normal values. According to independent variables, it was decided to use parametrical statistic techniques in the hypothesis tests to determine the total and sub-dimension OÖÖKBYİTÖ averages. The independent sample test is done in situations where the independent variables are grouped in twos; One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is implemented when three or more categories are formed. Within the ANOVA procedure; the Scheffe test is used as a Post-Hoc technique while for descriptive statistical values, the Levene test, the Eta square values, in situations where meaningful differences can be seen in the "F" test and when the variances of the Levene test are homogeneous ($p < .05$); The Tamhane Test is used instead, Post-Hoc when the variances are heterogeneous ($p < .05$). All results alligned with the scope of the research are double-checked and the significance level has been determined as 0.05.

Data from the experimental study carried out as the second phase of research

GD - T1 – Independent Variable – T2

GK- T1-T2- measured results based on this model are analysed according to the research hypotheses, enabling statistical conclusions to be reached. The randomly selected teacher experimental and control groups were instructed within OÖÖKBYİTÖ before their training in the Persona Dolls Approach. The Shapiro-Wilkstests were used to test the sub-dimension and aggregate scales, as the trial groups contained less than 30 individuals. The Shapiro-Wilks test results proved inconsequential, distribution being therefore deemed normal, hence parametrical techniques were selected for analysis. Independent samples were taken from both experimental and control groups of teachers to equalize the OÖÖKBYİTÖ preliminary test results; Dependent group testing was completed to analyse the variations between pre and post-tests. In this phase of research, the results were tested one way and their significance levels were taken as 0.05 minimum.

The statistical calculations within this research were carried out using the SPSS program.

Findings

Findings on Content/ Scope Validity of OÖÖKBYİTÖ

Local and international resources were investigated before developing the OÖÖKBYİTÖ. Mainly the focus was on the scanning of international literature as local sources on the subject remain limited. Characteristics of the sixty-four point Persona Doll Approach were determined from the data acquired from this research. A set of sixty-four questions were developed in a five scale Likert format according to these characteristics. The preliminary scale developed from this set of questions was reviewed by five academics familiar with the Personal Dolls Approach and possessing expertise in the area of content validity, whose opinions were sought. Forty-eight steps unilaterally agreed upon by the academics were introduced to the scale. The revised scale was then handed over to a Turkish linguist for content correction. The prepared scale was then experimentally applied with a cohort of 30 teachers at weekly intervals, to ensure a lack of cognitive or language issues. This determined the final form of the scale.

By seeking feedback from academic expertise during the process of developing the scale OÖÖKBYİTÖ, the content validity of the tool was effectively addressed. The experts, while reviewing each step within the context of the scale, also took into account any omitted characteristics or steps, which assessment data was included in their form reports. As a result of the expert assessment review of OÖÖKBYİTÖ, sixteen points were removed from the scale, and no new additions were made.

Another way of validating the scope of the test is by analysing the strength of differentiation yielded within the test. The step differentiation article values are obtained by comparing the points

received by individuals in the upper and lower quartile frames (27%) with the Independent Group T Test (Büyüköztürk, 2010). The objective is to determine whether the answer to the question varies in a meaningful way between the upper and lower groups and thus assess its effectiveness in differentiation. An independent sampling group test was used to determine any significant differentiation in the step and overall points between the upper and lower 27 percentile groups. The Pearson analysis done to determine whether each step of the scale was in appropriate relation to the overall points, revealed significant correlation between the steps and the points ($P < .001$), while independent sample testing carried out to determine differentiation between the upper and lower groups was satisfactory in determining the distinction of each step (at least $p < .01$). The results verify the high validity of the test in terms of scope.

Findings Related to The Structural Validity of OÖÖKBYİTÖ

Factor analysis is the most important step in determining the structural integrity of a test. The objective of factor analysis is to express a high number of articles with fewer factors. The first step in determining the factor structure of OÖÖKBYİTÖ is to carry out an untransformed basic components analysis. The Varimax Rotation and Kaiser Normalizing techniques are used to name and analyse the uncovered factors.

The expanding factor analysis uncovers the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value first. Scientifically, a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of over 50 signifies the sample size of the assessed scale to be sufficient for factor analysis (Tavşancıl, 2010). As seen in table 3, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of the scale factor is 0.812. Based on the result, the sample size was deemed adequate for research. The Barlett Test resulted in a 0.001 statistical result, strengthening the scaled characteristics' attributes as a multi-dimensional feature. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Barlett test results indicate the expander factor analyses to be statistically interpretable.

Table 3. *KMO and Barlett's Test Values of OÖÖKBYİTÖ.*

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Sample Adequacy		,812
Barlett Test of Sphericity	Ki-Square Value	5254,432
	sd	1225
	p	,000***

*** $p < .001$

Factor analysis is carried out using two separate techniques. If the researcher has written the steps before analysing the sub-dimensions, the factor analysis Eigen values must be realised as 1 and above. The researcher is however expected to determine the sub-dimensions and complete the factor analysis according to the determined number of factors revealed. Five sub-dimensions of the OÖÖKBYİTÖ were first established for this research, and analysis operations were carried out on these five factors. The Eigen values of the five sub-dimensions resulted in values over 1,00 (minimum 2,658) in factor analyses realised with the Kaiser Normalizing and the Varimax Perpendicular Turning Methods. The total variance in the five factors measures 46,438 %. The variance amounts are 14,213% for the first, 10,628% for the second, 9,572% for the third, 6,708% for the fourth and 5,317% for the fifth factors. In a test with structural validity, the total variance of all sub-dimensions must be above 40% (Büyüköztürk, 2010; Tavşancıl, 2005). The OÖÖKBYİTÖ sub-dimensions resulted in a variance of 46,438%, thus confirming the high structural validity of the test.

Table 4. *Expander Factor Analysis Results for OÖÖKBYİTÖ.*

Factor	Eigen Value	The stated Variance Percentage	Total Percentage
1	7,107	14,213	14,213
2	5,314	10,628	24,842
3	4,786	9,572	34,413
4	3,354	6,708	41,121
5	2,658	5,317	46,438

For an article to be included in a factor, its significance within that factor must be above 0.30' (Büyüköztürk, 2010). Analysis based on this assumption revealed that sixteen articles were found to have significance value of below 0.30 in all five factors. This led to their removal from the scale. Table 5 displays the factor significance of the remaining forty-six articles. This solution presents a weighted value of 0.30 and above for all articles.

Table 5. *Factor Coefficients of Points Pertaining to OÖÖKBYİTÖ.*

Articles	Factors				
	1	2	3	4	5
27	,902				
26	,878				
25	,848				
28	,826				
24	,720				
35	,709				
41	,703				
32	,561				
23	,511				
29	,374				
38		,776			
37		,757			
34		,738			
33		,728			
39		,684			
30		,564			
31		,496			
40		,471			
36		,471			
42		,438			
44		,312			
14		,308			
15		,305			
11			,788		
12			,764		
13			,756		
21			,588		
17			,556		
1			,543		
18			,478		
22			,471		
3			,445		
4			,427		
2			,367		
9			,367		
5				,719	
6				,714	
7				,695	
8				,546	
16				,497	

19	,346	
10		,692
45		,572
20		,505
43		,355
47		,353
46		,311
48		,307

Factor 1; Consisted of ten articles, this factor is cited as appropriate to the said articles in relation to the " Objectives of the Persona Doll Approach". Factor 2; Consisted of thirteen articles, related to "Teacher Perception of The Persona Dolls Approach". The twelve-item sub-dimension entitled "Children's Perceptions of Prejudice and Respect for Diversity" is the third factor. Factor 4 is the six-step sub-dimension entitled "Children's Attitudes Towards Feelings". The fifth factor is entitled "Teacher Perceptions of Proficiency" and contains seven items.

Another method for determining the structural validity of a scale is by calculating the correlation between the sub-dimension points in question and the test aggregate points calculated for expander factor analysis. The relations between the total and sub-dimensions of the OÖÖKBYİTÖ are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6. Relationship Between Total and Sub-dimensional OÖÖKBYİTÖ Points

n:187	Total	Fac.1	Fac.2	Fac.3	Fac.4	Fac.5
Total	1	,754(***)	,726(***)	,605(***)	,701(***)	,703(***)
Fac.1		1	,486(***)	,231(***)	,386(***)	,478(*)
Fac.2			1	,271(***)	,330(***)	,413(***)
Fac.3				1	,394(***)	,218(**)
Fac.4					1	,385(***)
Fak.5						1

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

In a valid test, the correlations between total points of the sub-dimensions must be statistically meaningful, with high levels of correlation between them (Tavşancıl, 2010). The correlation of the OÖÖKBYİTÖ total points and sub-dimensions was at the highest level for the 1st factor (0.75). The lowest correlation was revealed for the 3rd factor at (0.61).The total points for all dimensions and their correlations are statistically meaningful at the 0.001 level. In a validated test, a medial level of correlation between sub-dimensions indicates that the test may yield statistically meaningful results. The highest correlation coefficient among the OÖÖKBYİTÖ sub-dimensions is between Factors 1 and 2 and is valued at 0.49. This result is statistically relevant to the 0.001 level. The lowest correlation coefficient is found between Factors 3 and 5 (0.22). This result is statistically significant at the 0.01 level.

Additionally, hypothesis tests were carried out during the structural validity control of the scale based on the median values of the complete and sub-dimension OÖÖKBYİTÖ data. The first step involved testing the total and sub-dimension distribution normality of the OÖÖKBYİTÖ.

Table 7. Results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Conducted to Review Total and Sub-dimension Points Distribution of OÖÖKBYİTÖ

	fac1	fac2	fac3	fac4	fac5	Total
N	187	187	187	187	187	187
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	1,751	,802	1,481	1,680	1,358	,432
Z						
p	,104	,541	,055	,057	,051	,992

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

None of the "z" values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test applied to the OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimensions are statistically significant. Results indicate the points distribution of OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimensions as normal, parametrical statistical techniques were used to determine the differences between the OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimension point aggregates.

Table 8. *The One Way Variance Analysis Result of OÖÖKBYİTÖ Total and Sub-dimension Points According to the Place of Employment Variable.*

Scales	Source of Variance Source	Squares of Aggregate	sd	Squares Average	F	p
Fac.1	Inter Group	3,838	3	1,279	4,484	,005*
	Within Group	52,202	183	,285		
	Total	56,039	186			
Fac.2	Inter Group	,836	3	,279	1,023	,384
	Within Group	49,866	183	,272		
	Total	50,702	186			
Fac.3	Inter Group	,262	3	,087	,336	,799
	Within Group	47,545	183	,260		
	Total	47,807	186			
Fac.4	Inter Group	,374	3	,125	,573	,633
	Within Group	39,758	183	,217		
	Total	40,132	186			
Fac.5	Inter Group	,109	3	,036	,167	,918
	Within Group	39,843	183	,218		
	Total	39,952	186			
Total	Inter Group	,359	3	,120	,977	,405
	Within Group	22,452	183	,123		
	Total	22,812	186			

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

Table 8 displays the one-way variance analysis according to the place of work variable applied to the OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and subgroup points. Only the "Objectives of the Persona Dolls Approach" subgroup displayed any meaningful statistical result at the 0.01 level. As the teacher's place of work diversifies, their attitude towards "the objectives of The Persona Dolls Approach" begins to differ. Since in the variance analysis of "the Objectives of The Persona Dolls Approach" sub-dimension, significant distinctions were found; the Scheffe Test was conducted to find the variant root groups as no significant distinction was observed between variances at that level. The Scheffe test concluded the OÖÖKBYİTÖ sub-dimension points on "the objectives of The Persona Dolls Approach" of the teachers working in villages to be significantly more positive than their colleagues working in towns.

Table 9. *Results of the Mann-Whitney U test on the Gender Variables Within the OÖÖKBYİTÖ Total and Sub-dimension Points.*

Sub Dimension	Gender	N	Row Average	Row Sum	U	z	p
Grand Total	Female	177	96,10	17010,50	512,500	-2,237	,025*
	Male	10	56,75	567,50			

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

Table 9 displays the results of the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test on the OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimension points according to the scale development group gender variable. Women

score N=177 and men score N=10 in the gender variable. N=10 causes distribution to drop below 30, leading to a deviance from norm. Thus, the non-parametric unbounded Mann-Whitney U test was conducted rather than the parametric unbounded U test. According to the analysis carried out, all sub-dimensions except Factors 2,3 and 4 displayed a significant statistical discrepancy of at least 0.05 between the scale total and average points. All these differences were in favour of female preschool teachers. The female teachers scale points on „Objectives of the Persona Dolls" ($p<.01$), the "Teachers Perception of Proficiency" ($p<.05$) and their attitude on the general level ($p<.05$) was significantly more positive than in their male counterparts.

Table 10. Results of the OÖÖKBYİTÖ One Way Variance Analysis of the Total and Sub-dimension Points Based on the Age Variable.

Scales	Source of Variance Source	Squares of Aggregate	sd	Squares Average	F	p
Fac.1	Inter Group	2,394	2	1,197	4,106	,018*
	Within Group	53,645	184	,292		
	Total	56,039	186			
Fac.2	Inter Group	1,509	2	,754	2,822	,062
	Within Group	49,194	184	,267		
	Total	50,702	186			
Fac.3	Inter Group	,031	2	,016	,060	,942
	Within Group	47,776	184	,260		
	Total	47,807	186			
Fac.4	Inter Group	,066	2	,033	,151	,860
	Within Group	40,066	184	,218		
	Total	40,132	186			
Fac.5	Inter Group	,904	2	,452	2,129	,122
	Within Group	39,049	184	,212		
	Total	39,952	186			
Total	Inter Group	,585	2	,293	2,423	,091
	Within Group	22,226	184	,121		
	Total	22,812	186			

Table 10 displays the only statistically significant result obtained from the one way variance analysis of the age variable among preschool teachers taking part in the scale development work. This was in the OÖÖKBYİTÖ "Objectives of The Persona Dolls Approach" subgroup total with subgroup point significance of 0.05. As teacher ages diversify, their attitude towards the "Objectives of The Persona Dolls Approach" also diversify. As significant distinction in the variance analysis of the "Objectives of The Persona Dolls Approach" sub-dimension was found; the Scheffe Test was conducted to find the variant root groups as no significant distinction was observed between the variances at this level. The Scheffe Test resulted in significantly higher positive results for the 21-25 age group compared with the 26-30 group in the OÖÖKBYİTÖ "Objectives of The Persona Dolls Approach" sub-dimension points.

Table 11. The Relationship Between the Number of Students in Class and the OÖÖKBYİTÖ Total and Sub-dimension Points.

Factors	Number of Students
fac1	-,106
fac2	-,149(*)
fac3	-,056
fac4	-,063
fac5	-,057

Total	-,126
<i>*p<,05</i> <i>**p<,01</i> <i>***p<,001</i>	

Table 11 shows the variable correlation of classroom size and the relationship coefficient between the OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimension points. A 0.05 negative correlation was revealed between classroom size and the OÖÖKBYİTÖ sub-dimension of "Teacher Perception of the Persona Dolls Approach". As student numbers in classes dropped, teacher perception of the Persona Dolls Approach improved inversely.

Table 12. *Independent Sample Group Test Results of the OÖÖKBYİTÖ Total and Sub-dimension Points According to the Existence of Children of Diversity.*

Scale	Presence of student with diverse attributes	N	Exp. Av.	Std. Variation	Std. Error	t	sd	p
Total	Yes	43	3,9294	,36074	,05501	-1,885	185	,061
	No	144	4,0434	,34394	,02866			

p<,05 **p<,01 *p<,001*

Table 12 shows the results of the OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimension test executed with the scale development group, according to the presence of diverse pupils in class. The analysis only lead to a 0.05 level of meaningful discrepancy in factor 5 (The teachers perception of proficiency). The discrepancy was in favour of teachers lacking diversity among pupils in class. Teachers lacking diversity among pupils in their classes perceive themselves as more competent regarding the Persona Dolls Approach. The OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimension points of teachers with pupils of diverse backgrounds differentiate according to the specificities of the diversity.

Table 13. *Results of the OÖÖKBYİTÖ Total and Sub-dimension Independent Samples Test on "Attitudes to the Persona Dolls Approach" According to the Receipt of Training as Student or Professional*

Scale	Trained in persona dolls during education.	N	Exp. Av.	Std. Variation	Std. Error	t	sd	p
Total	Yes	38	4,2696	,35023	,05681	5,292	184	,000***
	No	148	3,9548	,32105	,02639			
	Trained in persona dolls during professional career.							
Total	Yes	26	4,2417	,36931	,07243	3,607	184	,000***
	No	160	3,9829	,33439	,02644			

p<,05 **p<,01 *p<,001*

The results of the Independent Samples Test based on whether the trial group teachers received training in the "Persona Dolls Approach" as students or as professionals for the OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimension points is displayed in Table 10. All subgroups with the exception of Factor 3 (The Children's Attitude on Prejudices and Respect of Diversity) led to a minimal distinction of 0.01. The teachers who received training in the "Persona Dolls Approach" had a significantly more positive outlook on the project than those who had not. Table 13 displays the results of the OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimension independent sample tests conducted according to whether the teachers of the sample development group are trained in the "Persona Doll Approach". The analysis concluded that except Factor 3 (The Children's Attitude Towards Diversity and Prejudice) and Factor 4 (Children's Attitude to Emotions) all sub-dimensions and scale aggregates displayed a minimum significant variance of 0.05. The teachers who received training in the Persona Dolls approach were discovered to have a significantly more positive approach compared to those who lacked said training.

The results obtained are important evidential factors verifying the structure of the scale.

Findings on the Test-Repeat Test Reliability of OÖÖKBYİTÖ.

The scale test was conducted twice with a group of 30 preschool teachers with prior knowledge of the Persona Dolls Approach over a weekly interval to determine the test - re test reliability of the questionnaire. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis method was applied between both pre and post-test results for this purpose. Table 14 displays the OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimension reliability coefficients for both test and re-test. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis revealed a significant statistical relationship between both OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and each of the sub-dimension test values. This confirms OÖÖKBYİTÖ test re test reliability.

Table 14. Reliability Coefficients of the Total and Sub-dimension OÖÖKBYİTÖ Test - Repeat Tests.

Scale	n	r	p
Objectives of the Persona Doll Approach	30	,842	,000***
Teachers' Perception of the Persona Dolls Approach	30	,783	,000***
Children's Attitude towards Diversity, Respect and Prejudice	30	,676	,000***
Children's Attitude Towards Emotions	30	,654	,000***
Teachers' Perception of Proficiency	30	,613	,000***
Total	30	,781	,000***

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

The highest result among the test – re-test reliability coefficients was from the first sub-dimension (Objectives of the Persona Doll Approach). The lowest coefficient of 613 belongs to the fifth sub-dimension (The Teachers' perception of Proficiency).

Findings Regarding the Internal Consistency Reliability of OÖÖKBYİTÖ.

The internal consistency of OÖÖKBYİTÖ at both total and sub-dimension levels was determined with Cronbach's Alpha Process for each step. The internal consistency coefficients are shown in Table 15.

Table 15. Coefficients of the Total and Sub-dimensional Levels of OÖÖKBYİTÖ

Scale	n	Cronbachalfa	p
Objectives of the Persona Dolls Approach	187	,924	,000***
Teachers' Perception of the Persona Dolls Approach	187	,847	,000***
Children's Attitude Towards Diversity, Respect and Prejudice	187	,817	,000***
Children's Attitude Towards Emotions	187	,753	,000***
Teachers' Perception of Proficiency	187	,579	,000***
Total	187	,916	,000***

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

The total points for the OÖÖKBYİTÖ internal consistency coefficient were calculated as 0.916. The result obtained was close to +1,00 indicating a considerably high value for the general internal reliability of the test. The highest internal consistency coefficient among the scale sub-dimensions was revealed in relation to the "Objectives of the Persona Doll Approach" sub-dimension. The lowest internal consistency coefficient is 0.579 and refers to the "Teachers' Perception of Proficiency" sub-dimension. The median of all internal consistencies is 0.806. These results indicate a high reliability for OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimension internal consistencies.

Experimental Study Findings

In the second step of the research, the cohort from the pre test-last test control groups were equalized taking into account the results from the teacher survey form which was validity-reliability tested in the first phase of research and the OÖÖKBYİTÖ results. Parametric techniques were used in the analysis of data. Information related to the groups is shown in Table 16.

Table 16. *The Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Trial Group Teachers According to Their Knowledge Level of the Persona Doll Approach.*

Trained in the Persona Doll Approach During Professional Career					
		Yes	No		Total
Test Group	F	0	23		23
	%	0	100,0		100,0
Control Group	F	0	23		23
	%	0	100,0		100,0

Knowledge Level Regarding The Persona Doll Approach						
		High	Medium	Low	None	Total
Test Group	F	0	0	5	18	23
	%	0	0	21,7	78,3	100,0
Control Group	F	0	0	0	23	23
	%	0	0	0	100,0	100,0

Table 16 shows that non of the teachers had been trained in the Persona Doll Approach during their professional careers. 21,7% of the teachers forming the control group had "low" knowledge of the Persona Doll Approach. 78,3% had no knowledge whatsoever. None of the control group teachers were knowledgeable about the "Persona Doll Approach".

The third question of the research; "Has the attitude of the control group shifted in any significant way between the two tests?" was answered by reapplying the OÖÖKBYİTÖ after a two day Persona Doll Approach training. An Associative Group test was applied to test the variances between the scale total and sub-dimensional points between the trial groups pre and post tests. The results are given in Table 17.

Table 17. *The Total and Sub-dimension Points of the Trial Group OÖÖKBYİTÖ Preliminary and Sub- dimension T Test Results:*

Scale	Exp. Av.	N	Std. Deviation	r	t	sd	p
Pre Fac.1	3,2319	23	,26939	-,031	-10,246	22	,000***
Last Fac.1	4,5036	23	,52252				
Pre Fac.2	3,7425	23	,54026	,287	-4,037	22	,001***
Last Fac.2	4,2375	23	,43447				
Pre Fac.3	4,0978	23	,46442	,812***	-1,182	22	,250
Last Fac.3	4,1667	23	,44381				
Pre Fac.4	4,5362	23	,39872	,743***	-,299	22	,768
Last Fac.4	4,5580	23	,52129				
Pre Fac.5	3,9379	23	,46953	,574**	-3,120	22	,005**
Last Fac.5	4,2174	23	,46164				
Pre Total	3,9093	23	,27147	,719***	-7,084	22	,000***
Final Sum	4,3366	23	,41431				

*p<,05 **p<,01 ***p<,001

According to the findings displayed in table 17, in the Associative Group test applied to assess the total and sub-dimension variations between the preliminary and final tests in the trial group, all sub-dimensions and the test's total average, excepting Factors 3 and 4, displayed significant variances at a minimum of 0.01. The differences were in favour of the post-test. The post-test of the trial group marked increases in the teachers' positive perceptions of the Persona Doll Approach and their perceptions of proficiency sub-dimensions. However, the preliminary and final tests did not display any significant variances between the two tests on the "attitudes of children towards prejudice and the concept of respect of diversity" and "the children's attitude towards feelings". Significant differences prove the Persona Dolls trial group was impacted in a positive manner by the Persona Doll training.

The fourth research question "Does the trial group's attitude in the post test differ from that of the preliminary test?" led to conducting an Associative Group test on the control group after a two day Persona Doll Approach and OÖÖKBYÏTÖ training.

Table 18. *The Results of the OÖÖKBYÏTÖ Total and Sub-dimension Associative Group Tests*

Scale	Exp. Av.	N	Std. Deviation	r	t	sd	p
Pre Fac.1	3,1541	23	,14879	,542**	-2,023	22	,055
Post Fac.1	3,2738	23	,33535				
Pre Fac.2	3,4993	23	,29993	,683***	1,415	22	,171
Post Fac.2	3,4231	23	,34116				
Pre Fac.3	3,9384	23	,30019	,163	,587	22	,563
Post Fac.3	3,8862	23	,35585				
Pre Fac.4	4,5238	23	,30560	,191	2,772	22	,011*
Last Fac.4	4,2768	23	,36253				
Pre Fac.5	3,7647	23	,30847	,313	-,938	22	,359
Last Fac.5	3,8357	23	,31042				
Pre Total	3,7478	23	,28143	,481*	-,504	22	,620
Final Sum	3,7768	23	,25955				

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

The data presented in table 18 shows the Associative Group tests analysing the difference between the control group pre and post-tests; These uncovered no statistically significant test totals or sub-dimension data with the exception of factor 4. "The children's attitude towards emotions", as measured in the second test, fell sharply in contrast to the first. The control group attitude towards the "Persona Doll Approach" remained similar in both tests.

The final question, defined as: " In the post test, between the experimental and control groups is any significant improvement demonstrated in favour of the trial group with respect to attitude to the Persona Dolls Approach?" aims to determine the effect of the Persona Doll Approach training on the trial group. To that purpose, the total and sub-dimension points of the post test in relation to both trial and control groups were assessed via independent test sampling with the findings shown in Table 19.

Table 19. Results of the Independent Sample Test on the OÖÖKBYİTÖ Total and Sub-dimension Points of the Trial and Control Groups

Scale	Group	N	Exp. Av.	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	t	sd	p
sfac1	Test Group	23	4,5036	,52252 ,33535	,10895 ,06992	9,500	44	,000***
	Control Group	23	3,2738					
sfac2	Test Group	23	4,2375	,43447 ,34116	,09059 ,07114	7,070	44	,000***
	Control Group	23	3,4231					
sfac3	Test Group	23	4,1667	,44381 ,35585	,09254 ,07420	2,364	44	,023*
	Control Group	23	3,8862					
sfac4	Test Group	23	4,5580	,52129 ,36253	,10870 ,07559	2,124	44	,039*
	Control Group	23	4,2768					
sfac5	Test Group	23	4,2174	,46164 ,31042	,09626 ,06473	3,291	44	,002**
	Control Group	23	3,8357					
S. Total	Test Group	23	4,3366	,41431 ,25955	,08639 ,05412	5,492	44	,000***
	Control Group	23	3,7768					

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

The trial and control groups post test OÖÖKBYİTÖ total and sub-dimension point averages displayed a minimum significant variance of 0.05. The variances were all in favour of the trial group. Following training in the Persona Dolls Approach, the trial group's attitude was improved significantly positive in comparison to that of the control group.

Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

The main focus of the research was to develop a scale, measuring attitude to the Persona Doll Approach and to determine the validity and reliability of the tool. The second objective was to determine the effectiveness of the approach by observing whether a change in attitude had occurred among the 23 preschool teacher trial group cohort which took part in Persona Dolls Approach training. The scale developed following step 1 of the research presented factor values between 0.902 - 0.305 for the 48 sub-dimension steps assigned to the five factors. The test-re test reliability coefficients of the scale vary between 0.613 and 0.842. The internal consistency coefficients of the scale vary between 0.924 and 0.579 (Cronbachalfa). Ultimately, the psychometric attributes of the scale were deemed sufficient. Following the hypothesis tests, whether the attitudes towards Persona Dolls differed according to variables such as teacher gender, classroom size, presence of pupils of diversity or being educated on the subject was also researched. The experimental work forming the second step of the research displayed the trial group teacher attitude towards the Persona Doll Approach to have improved significantly when compared with the preliminary test.

As no previous Turkish research on the Persona Doll Approach exists, the results will be evaluated internally and referenced with the appropriate overseas literature. The availability of only qualitative previous research on the matter could be considered a limitation.

When the first step of the research, the scale development work was analysed, the teachers who received training in the Persona Dolls Approach were found to have a significantly more positive approach compared to those who lacked any training. Education in the Persona Dolls Approach is an important influence on the attitude of teachers. Research conducted by Biersteker and Ngwevela (2002) of South Africa, demonstrated changes in the personal attitudes of teachers who took the training, and also changes to their teaching practices. Another study undertaken by Elaine McClements (2004) indicated that half of the participant teachers felt that the Persona Doll Approach had been very useful in their teaching of children, while certain difficulties attached to the approach cited by the teachers in their reports were attributed to insufficient training. According to the findings of McClements's research, the Persona Doll Training was influential on teacher attitude.

Another result of the scale development phase was the demonstration of how, as student numbers in classes dropped, teacher perception of the Persona Dolls Approach improved inversely. The teachers believed that the Persona Dolls Approach would be more successful in less crowded classes. Eve Cook's (2004) research in the U.K. arrived at similar conclusions as to how the Persona Doll Approach influenced teachers and pupils positively. According to her published reports, Cook points out in her research that teachers indicated positive opinions about the Persona Dolls, while the duration of its implementation and the difficulty of coping with a large number of pupils in the class were cited as disadvantages to the approach. These outcomes also support the current research findings.

Results obtained with preschool teachers taking part in the first step of the research –in which the scale was developed - within the parameters of criteria regarding preschool teacher attitude towards the Persona Dolls Approach were observed to have a more negative attitude towards the Persona Doll Approach in correlation to the level of diversity (handicaps, immigrant, ethnic, or language diversities) among the children of their current or previous class groups. The Fish Report (From 1985: Brown,1998) data indicated that teachers involved in inclusive teaching were making significant steps towards respect for diversity in their teaching, and that teachers in the process of engaging in the planning and provision of education for more diverse learning groups in which disabled children were included alongside those without disabilities on an equal footing, as envisaged within the curriculum, began to review and overcome their own prejudices which enabled them to develop respect for diversity and to better provide a non-discriminatory learning environment.

As a result of the initial stage of research, the scale development process, in which reliability was calculated as coefficient of the test repeat test approach, the highest points were awarded to the first sub-dimension entitled "The Objectives of the Persona Doll Approach". According to which dimension, the Persona Doll Approach aims to prevent prejudicial behaviours in children, improve empathy and the ability to solve problems, enable children to develop alternative strategies when faced with problems and aims to develop individuals respecting diversity, around which items its sub-dimension factors were duly organised. In research conducted by McClements (2004) teachers were found to be of the opinion that the Persona Doll Approach's main objective was, aside from addressing personal and social issues, to solve problems which arise in the classroom. One of the outcomes of Eve Cook's research (2004) was to confirm that children form empathic connections with the Persona Dolls during classroom implementation. The studies carried out by Carol Smith (2009) show that the Persona Doll Approach serves to enhance the self-esteem, empathy, and respect for diversity of both teachers and their pupils. These results also corroborate this research to some extent.

The preschool teachers in project phase 2, trial/control pre test- post test model who took part in two day Persona Dolls training were assigned to the trial group while preschool teachers with no such training were assigned to the control group. Both groups were balanced according to the validity-reliability analysed teacher survey and the OÖÖKBYİTÖ results compiled in the first step of research. The most striking result of this stage of research was in the post test in which attitude of the trial group was found to be significantly more positive than in the preliminary test. This outcome was an expected and desired outcome for the researchers. The final test OÖÖKBYİTÖ total, the aims of the

Persona Doll approach, the teacher's perception of the approach and the sub-dimension points of teachers' perception of proficiency all improved significantly over the preliminary tests. The sub-dimensions indicate that the Persona Doll Approach helps children to express their ideas and feelings and prevents prejudice-based, biased behaviour. The approach supports children in developing alternative problem solving strategies and helps them improve skills in this area. It was found that teachers readily considered that new approaches were necessary to support the development of positive identities in children and they expressed the need for self-improvement and practical applications with wider-scoped training before implementing the Persona Dolls Approach. Research carried out by Nicola Ann Irish (2009) on the efficacy of an emotional literacy acquisition intervention program aimed at raising the emotional literacy levels of preschool pupils through the implementation of Ububele-Persona Doll programs was conducted with a sample group of 35 participants in two separate preschools, one group functioning as the trial group, the other as the control group. The DANVA2 test which definitively measures factors related to emotional literacy was implemented in a pre – post test format with the participants. The Ububele-Persona Dolls were employed on alternate-weeks in classes over 12 weeks. The emotional literacy of pupils from the trial group was observed to have been significantly impacted at the end of the program. At the conclusion of the study, teachers from the control group were also instructed in the Ububele-Persona Dolls Approach. A further study conducted by Carol Smith (2009) involved evaluating survey participants' questionnaires from 420 early childhood teachers trained in the Persona Doll Approach for the purposes of the research. Survey results indicated the Persona Doll Approach training to be effective. These results support the findings of the present experimental research.

Although the Persona Doll Approach is a relatively new concept in the field of preschool education, its efficacy is well supported in the research. Persona Dolls and their stories can be used as effective tools against the prejudice and discrimination with which young children are faced from a very early age. Thus, it may be possible to raise a generation of tolerant individuals who live in peace in an ever-changing and evolving world, and who possess the skills of empathy and respect for diversity. Early childhood educational programs should address the issue of respect for diversity not only in intellectual, social and emotional terms but also in all areas of development. Teachers should be enabled to integrate the topic of respect for diversity into a greater number of activities throughout the curriculum. The Ministry of National Education could organize training programs under the heading of "Implementing Respect for Diversity Education Programs ". Degree programs could be modified to include such innovative and diverse approaches in education. The scale developed within the current research could be further applied with teachers working in other provinces, normed, and a similar scale dedicated to children's attitudes towards Persona Dolls could be developed, analysed for validity and reliability and utilised within experimental qualitative work with children and in longitudinal studies with teachers.

This article, an initial study on the subject of the Persona Dolls Approach in Turkey, is based on the work carried out during preparation of the first post-graduate thesis to be completed in this field. As such, it is anticipated that the principles defined within this study will provide benchmark material for any future research to be carried out in this area.

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Evolvement of Pre-service Language Teachers' Beliefs Through Teacher Education

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Abstract

In language teacher education, beliefs of language teachers about language learning and teaching have a powerful effect on the way they teach. Therefore, the quality of teacher education programs should be considered as an influential variable that might cause changes in pre-service language teachers' beliefs. The main purpose of this phenomenological study was to identify the beliefs future English language teachers hold toward learning and teaching, and the impact of the courses given in the program on altering their beliefs about learning and teaching a foreign language. The data gathered from twenty-three first year and twenty-one final year language teacher candidates through an open-ended questionnaire form were analyzed using content analysis. The results revealed that the program created an increase in their awareness and an improvement in their understanding of the processes inherent in foreign language teaching and learning.

Keywords: Pre-service language teachers' beliefs, English language education program, Language learning, Language teaching

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Introduction

Beliefs are frequently defined in relation to knowledge and behavior and teaching is viewed as a cognitive process that involves thinking (Borg, 2001). The study of beliefs in different fields has led to the emergence of a variety of meanings that has made adoption of a specific working definition of beliefs difficult (Pajares, 1992). Nevertheless, a number of researchers agree on the definition of beliefs as “psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (Richardson, 2003, p. 2). Teacher beliefs function as lenses through which their interpretations, behaviors, and decisions are refined and they are, therefore, considered powerful constructs that influence the way teachers perform their profession (Cross, 2009; Eryaman & Riedler, 2009; Johnson, 1999; Richards, 1998). The images of teacher as teacher-as-thinker (Richards, 1994) and the teacher as decision-maker (Freeman, 1996; Nunan, 1992) signify teachers’ conceptualizations of their work and the processes of thinking and decision making that mark their teaching (Richards, 1994).

Pre-service teachers enter education programs with strongly held pre-conceived beliefs about learning and teaching they have already generated by being immersed in educational environments during their schooling (Shulman, 1987; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Eryaman, 2006, 2007). These preconceptions about learning and teaching are constructed from two main sources (1) their learning experience as language learners, and (2) ideas learnt from pedagogical classes and experiences gained from school practicum during teacher education programs (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Their beliefs about language learning and teaching mainly originate from teachers they observe throughout classroom experiences before graduation from high school (Bandura, 1986; Lortie, 1975). School and instructional experiences form a framework that serves as an “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975). Researchers support this claim and assert that undergraduate students preparing to become teachers enter the programs with prior experiences as learners that have already shaped their beliefs about the subject matter and instructional practices during their formal learning process (Feiman-Nemser, 1990; Gregoire, 2003; Riedler & Eryaman, 2016; Rust, 1994; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2015). Nonetheless, there is also enough evidence to support that pre-service teachers’ beliefs about learning and teaching may be influenced by ideas gained from pedagogical classes and experiences from school practicum during teacher education programs (Johnson, 1994; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Through continuous observation and imitation, their previously established set of paradigms is adjusted and they are enculturated into teaching (Pajares, 1992). In line with this, their immature beliefs are challenged during teacher pedagogy programs (Lortie, 1975).

The empirical studies that have focused on change in pre-service teachers’ beliefs in different contexts appear to have yielded incongruent findings. There are two sets of claims about the impact of teacher preparation on teachers’ beliefs. One line of research asserts that teacher preparation programs and teacher training programs fail to alter pre-service teacher beliefs and in case they are influential, only restricted changes are detected (Johnson, 1994; Richardson, 1996; Tatto, 1998; Tillema & Knol, 1997). The other strand of research posits that teachers’ beliefs are primarily affected by their educational experiences including schooling and teacher preparation classes, professional education and classroom experience (Borg, 2003; Özmen, 2012). There is evidence to support that pre-service training leads to a change in teachers’ beliefs (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Chai, Wong & Teo, 2009; Farrell, 1999; Nettle, 1998).

Studies on teacher cognition claim that student teachers’ personal beliefs are deeply rooted and have a tendency to remain relatively stable throughout pre-service education programs (Eryaman, 2008; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Peacock, 2001; Tatto, 1998) due to the fact that prior beliefs are constructed early and hence reinforced over a long period of time (Pajares, 1992). The ample research on pre-service L2 teachers’ beliefs about learning and teaching reports that teacher education has either no or little influence on the development and transformation of pre-service teachers’ beliefs (e.g. Agathopoulou, 2010; Çapan, 2014; Kunt & Özdemir, 2010; Peacock, 2001).

Among the studies depicting insignificant or no change in language teachers’ beliefs, the aim of the study by Kunt and Özdemir (2010) was to identify possible variations regarding the beliefs of

pre-service English language teachers who took methodology courses at the beginning and at the end of their teacher education program. In order to understand the degree of change, they applied Horwitz's (1988) *Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory* (BALLI) as an instrument. The results showed that the beliefs of participants remained constant or changed to a small extent in certain areas suggesting that prospective teachers' involvement in methodology courses appeared to make a little or no impact on their beliefs. Çapan's (2014) examination of the development of pre-service EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers' beliefs about grammar instruction over a period of 10 weeks also demonstrated no change except for the importance of conscious knowledge; the only change observed after the practicum course was a decline in the participants' positive beliefs about the need for conscious knowledge of grammatical structures and their function. Similarly, Agathopoulos (2010) identified little change after the student teachers in her quantitative study took second language acquisition theories course. This course created no influence on seven out of the twelve beliefs held by the participants. The change was not impressive and failed to include all of the 'erroneous' beliefs. Another study providing evidence of stability in beliefs was conducted by Peacock (2001) who investigated changes in the beliefs of 146 trainee ESL teachers about second language learning over their 3-year program. He found that beliefs changed very little over the trainees' 3 years of study of TESL methodology. Majority of student teachers still had the belief that learning a second language simply means learning vocabulary and grammar rules.

Notwithstanding the substantial research on stability of pre-service teachers' beliefs, a number of researchers' presented findings that contradicted with the claims about the inflexibility of prior beliefs and insignificant effect of teacher education program on pre-service teachers' professional development (e.g. Bush, 2010; Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000; Chai, Wong & Teo, 2009; Farrell, 1999; Grijalva & Barajas, 2013; Mattheoudakis, 2007). In their naturalistic inquiry into development in student teachers' beliefs, Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000) observed that of the 20 student teachers participated in their study, only one participant's beliefs remained unchanged while in the other 19 cases there were notable changes. This result led the researchers to assert that "belief development was cumulative and gradual" (p.392). Bush (2010) also documented significant changes in pre-service teachers' beliefs over a three year period. The changes in beliefs were seen in several areas including "the length of time for acquisition, difficulty of language acquisition, the role of culture, the role of error correction, the importance of grammar, and the efficacy of audio-lingual learning strategies" (p.318). Likewise, the purpose of the longitudinal study by Grijalva and Barajas (2013) was to single out pre-service teachers' beliefs about English language teaching and learning and to understand how their beliefs changed because of gaining experience during their preparation as English teachers. Their findings suggest that pre-service teachers steadily became cognizant of the complicated issues inherent in teaching and the teaching preparation process provided them with the opportunities and theoretical basis to understand such complexities.

In Singaporean context, Chai, Wong, and Teo (2009) investigated the change in Singaporean pre-service teachers' epistemic beliefs and in their beliefs about learning and teaching over the course of their teacher preparation program by using an online survey before and after the nine-month long course work and practicum. Their findings demonstrated significant changes in epistemological beliefs and their pedagogical beliefs. They found that Singaporean pre-service teachers became more relativistic in their epistemological beliefs while adapting less constructivist-oriented beliefs about teaching. Furthermore, at the end of their teacher preparation program, they acquired the belief that language learning is an innate ability. Mattheoudakis (2007) also explored the evolution of EFL teacher beliefs about learning and teaching in Greece during a three-year teacher education program using BALLI. The results indicated that while there was a gradual and significant development in student teachers' beliefs during the program, their engagement in the teaching practice made a low impact on the development of their beliefs. Macdonald et al. (2001) enquired into EFL student teachers' beliefs before and after a twelve-week second language acquisition theories course given in a TESOL program and came to the conclusion that there was a movement away from the behaviorist views of learning which the subjects had previously held. The views of both undergraduate and postgraduate participants differed significantly before and after the course on issues relating to learning and language, which indicated its impact on some of the beliefs of their student teachers.

Regardless of the potential effect of teacher education programs on pre-service teachers' beliefs, previous literature on pre-service teachers' beliefs uncovers the need for transformation of pre-service teachers' beliefs in order to enable them to teach in new ways (Deng, 2004). In his Cognitive–Affective Model of Conceptual Change, Gregoire (2003) proposes that the process of altering teacher beliefs requires allowing teachers to articulate their beliefs, establishing conditions, which permit break down of pre-existing beliefs, and accepting that the process of conceptual change takes time. Thus, providing teachers with the necessary time to reflect on their beliefs is paramount to identification of their beliefs.

Weinstein's (1989) research echoes the need to make beliefs explicit in teacher education because of two reasons: first, by understanding pre-service teacher beliefs, teacher educators can be effective in teaching future teachers. Second, teacher educators' investigation of their own implicit theories contributes to strengthening of teacher education programs. Johnson (1994) expanding Weinstein's view claims that "understanding teachers' beliefs is essential to improving teaching practices and professional teacher preparation programs" (p. 439). In keeping with the aforementioned reasons, the goal of the study was to explore how student teachers conceptualize language learning and teaching and whether the education they receive during their undergraduate program creates a change in their language learning/teaching beliefs. With this aim in mind, this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What beliefs do pre-service language teachers hold regarding learning English?
2. What beliefs do pre-service language teachers hold regarding teaching English?
3. Are there any differences between senior and freshman student teachers' perceptions with respect to language learning and teaching?
4. How do pre-service language teachers think their beliefs about language learning and teaching have changed since they started language teacher education program?

The Study

This phenomenological study aims at exploring the impact of language teacher education program on the perspectives of teacher candidates about language learning and teaching and understand the extent of involvement in their beliefs. In order to have a more holistic picture of pre-service language teachers' belief structures about language learning and teaching, a qualitative approach was adopted unlike the quantitative approaches utilized in the majority of the studies in the field of beliefs. We used an open-ended survey format to elicit student teachers' beliefs.

Participants

A total of forty-four ELT undergraduates participated in this study. Because we wanted to see the effect of the program on their beliefs regarding foreign language teaching and learning, we selected our participants from the first and the fourth year students (N=23, N=21 respectively). At the beginning of the academic year, freshman and senior students were requested to express their opinions about language learning and teaching through written reports. While 33 of the participants were female, 11 of them were male. The age range of pre-service teachers was from 18 to 22 years (mean age = 21.08, SD = .28). All the participating freshman students attended the compulsory prep class (where the main foci were four language skills along with use of English) offered by the same department faculty prior to enrolling in undergraduate courses. All the participating senior students were regular seventh semester students who have not taken any fourth year courses before. During their three-year education, seniors were offered pedagogical courses such as second language acquisition, teaching methodologies and linguistics.

Data Collection

Since open-ended responses enable the researchers to obtain a direct view of a respondent's own thinking (Roberts et al., 2014), an open-ended survey was administered to the participants at the

beginning of the academic year; specifically prior to the beginning of school practice course senior students have to take in order to graduate. The time selected for the administration of data collection tool was intentional. We hoped to explain the possible changes in their beliefs without the intervention of school practice course, which highly requires reflective practice processes that can be instrumental in changing their “prior knowledge about the cognitive, social, emotional, and political aspects related to teaching” (Garza & Smith, 2015, p.12). The survey included the following three open-ended questions asked to both groups of students:

1. In your opinion, what is the best way to learn English?
2. In your opinion, what is the best way to teach English?
3. Have your thoughts about language learning and teaching changed since you entered the ELT program? If yes, how?

The completion of the qualitative questionnaire took around 40 minutes. The open-ended form was created in Turkish in order to reduce probable misunderstandings and “ensure accurate information retrieval” (Welch & Piekkari, 2006, p. 420). In order to enable them to fully express themselves, they are requested to make their beliefs explicit using their own words in their native language (Tsang, 1998). Their statements given below were translated by the researchers.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using qualitative content analysis to reach descriptive and interpretive accounts of the phenomenon. The constant-comparative method was employed in order to determine themes within the participants’ written reflections (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). The responses were thoroughly read, coded and emerging themes were highlighted. This procedure was repeated across participants to identify the shared themes and patterns. For cross-sectional comparisons (freshman vs. senior), the propositions under each theme were counted and quantified as frequencies and percentages.

Through this analysis, we were able to highlight the ways our participants constructed their knowledge within the program as well as their beliefs related to language learning and teaching beliefs. Consensus was achieved upon discussions on differences in order to enhance trustworthiness of the data (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). The accuracy and credibility of the findings were determined through member checking (Creswell, 2003). While coding the responses given to the first research question, we recognized that what they say about the best way of learning English refer to learning theories, thus operated within the framework of learning theories, which are given in the following table (Table 1).

Table 1. Codes and descriptions for language learning beliefs

Codes	Description
Nativism	L2 learning is similar to L1 acquisition process, which takes place through exposure to authentic oral input.
Behaviorism	L2 learning occurs through imitation, repetition, and reinforcement; it is learned in a procedural manner.
Cognitivism	L2 learning is the acquisition of knowledge, where the learner absorbs information, carries out cognitive operations on it, and stores it in memory.
Constructivism	L2 learning is actively constructed through the reorganization of the learners’ mental structures.
Social Constructivism	L2 learning occurs because of interactions between the individual and the situation.
Experiential Learning	L2 learning develops through meaningful experiences in everyday life that lead to change in an individual’s knowledge and behaviors.

The propositions that implied the aforementioned descriptions were labeled accordingly. For example, in case the importance of repetition and practice was mentioned, it was coded as behaviorism, or when chatting with foreigners is highlighted as a way of learning English, it was considered as an

implication of social learning. Speaking in English with peers was considered as an indication of social constructivist approach to learning.

As for the second research question, which is concerned about their language teaching beliefs, similar coding steps were followed. Instead of starting with predetermined categories, themes were created based on the meaning of the data. The themes were clustered under five categories: methodology, technique and activity, material, classroom atmosphere and teacher attribute (see Table 2).

Table 2. Codes and descriptions for language teaching beliefs

Codes	Description
Methodology	Propositions that talk about general classroom procedures
Technique and activity	Propositions that refer to a particular strategy or a specific practice activity
Material	Propositions that refer to instructional materials
Classroom Atmosphere	Propositions that refer to leaning environment
Teacher Characteristics	Propositions that talk about the impact of teacher characteristics on learning

The third research question involved understanding the impact of the education they received. The responses that reported change were coded.

Results

The results are presented in the order of research questions. In order to protect respondent privacy and to ensure anonymity rather than real names, pseudonyms were created and used for the quotations.

Language learning beliefs

The responses given to the first research question seeking participants' beliefs on the best way to learn English are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3: Freshman and Senior students' language learning beliefs

Codes	Freshman		Senior	
	F	%	F	%
Nativism	2	3.1	13	19.1
Behaviorism	6	9.2	7	10.3
Cognitivism	28	43.1	10	14.7
Social-Constructivism	7	10.8	11	16.2
Experiential Learning	19	29.2	22	32.4
Constructivism	3	4.6	5	7.4
Total number of Propositions	65		68	

Even though a similarity was observed in the total number of propositions, there were notable differences between freshman and senior students' responses. While the majority of senior students held experiential (32.4%), nativist (19.1%) and social constructivist (16.2%) beliefs regarding the best way of learning English, freshman students hold rather cognitivist (43.1%), experiential (29.2%) and social constructivist (10.8%) beliefs. The high frequency of cognitivist propositions found in the freshman group is a finding that deserves discussion. The high frequency observed in the responses is most possibly due to our participants' rather exam oriented high school experiences. This is also a proof that despite the importance given to the development of communicative competence in the national curriculum, the exam-oriented practices of teachers at Turkish high schools allow little space to achieve this goal and students are not given sufficient opportunities to improve their language

skills. Indeed, two of our freshman participants clearly mentioned the influence of centralized university entrance exam on their language learning beliefs:

“When I was studying for the university exam I used to believe that one can learn English by studying grammar and vocabulary, but here I understood that knowing grammar rules does not mean knowing the language” (Nurgül, Freshman)

“I used to think that grammatical knowledge was the core of language learning. For this reason, I rarely practiced language skills while getting ready for the exam....” (Arzu, Freshman)

Similar to our findings, in Peacock’s (2001) study on language learning beliefs of TESOL trainees, the participants viewed language learning simply as learning vocabulary and grammar rules. Contrary to the freshman, our senior participants focus more on nativist and experiential language learning.

“If I depart from my own English learning experiences, English is best learned by making it a part of our lives. It is important that we love the language and it becomes a part of our routine. And of course, English is best learned by speaking.” (Ahmet, Senior)

“I believe that English is best learned by listening and speaking. People should learn English just like they learn their mother tongue without depending on heavily on grammar rules.” (Mehmet, Senior)

This difference may stem from the pedagogical information and micro-teaching experiences seniors gained throughout their education. In line with this finding, the study conducted by Grijalva and Barajas (2013) report that pre-service teachers believed that English is learned by practicing the language and being involved in a number of learning activities. Following Grijalva and Barajas (2013) we also suggest that our senior students were affected by the courses given in the program.

In cognitivist approach, the emphasis is on promoting mental operations and therefore “the issues of how information is received, organized, stored, and retrieved by the mind” are emphasized (Ertmer & Newby, 2013, p.51). The participants expressed their cognitivist approach as follows.

“[English is best learnt] by reading, researching and writing a lot. You need to revise what you have learnt at school everyday.” (Sebahat, Senior)

“[English is best learnt] by putting the knowledge gained theoretically into practice.” (Erkan, Freshman)

“People remember what they see instead of what they hear. So learning should be supported by visuals. Then oral practices help improvement of English.” (Aslı, Freshman)

Riley (2003) describes three notions of the language learner; in behavioristic psychology, the learner is accepted as a physical organism, while learning is perceived as a decontextualized model of information processing in cognitive psychology and finally, there is constructivist, sociocultural and experiential psychology where the learner is viewed as a person with a social identity in a culture (as cited in Kohonen, 2006). The conceptualizations of our participants’ beliefs about language learning seem to display a similar picture with freshman students following the principles of behavioristic and cognitivist psychology, and senior students inclining to adhere to social-constructivist and experiential psychology of learning.

Language teaching beliefs

The responses given to the second research question seeking participants' beliefs on the best way to teach English is displayed in Table 4.

Table 4: *Freshman and Senior students' language teaching beliefs*

Codes	Freshman F	Senior F
Methodology		
Communicative Approach	1	10
Eclectic	-	3
Deductive	4	3
Learner-centered	3	4
Inductive	3	6
Task-based	-	1
Skill-based	2	1
Computer assisted	2	-
Number of propositions	15 (26.7%)	28 (39.4%)
Technique and activity		
Repetition	-	1
Integration of four skills	-	2
Interactive tasks	3	7
Using audio-visuals	-	1
Games	4	2
Speaking tasks	7	1
Multi-modality	1	1
Error-correction	-	2
Authentic tasks	-	3
Using infotainment	-	1
Individual work	1	-
Reading tasks	1	-
Vocabulary activities	2	-
Number of propositions	19 (33.9%)	21 (29.5%)
Materials		
Authentic Materials	2	1
Audio-visual materials	-	4
No coursebook	3	-
ICT tools	2	-
Number of propositions	7 (12.5%)	5 (7%)
Classroom atmosphere		
Stress-free and enjoyable	4	5
Interesting	3	-
Number of propositions	7 (12.5%)	5 (7%)
Teacher Characteristics		
Personal Qualities	7	7
Pedagogical qualities	1	5
Number of propositions	8 (14.2%)	12 (16.9%)
Total number of propositions	56	71

The responses show us that regardless of their year in teacher education, all the participants unanimously see teacher attributes and attitudes as elements of best language teaching practices (14.2% and 16.9% in freshman and senior groups, respectively). While both groups highlighted the

importance of teacher personal qualities, seniors differed in their emphasis on the pedagogical knowledge. The basic between-group differences were observed in the methodology, technique, and activity categories (26.7% and 39.4% for methodology; 33.9% and 29.5% for technique and activity in freshman and senior, respectively). The responses suggest that despite the fact that senior students expressed their beliefs regarding best language teaching from a wider and more holistic perspective, freshman students took language teaching more discretely and expressed their beliefs from a simplistic perspective. The following two quotes illustrate how senior students can utilize their theoretical background while describing the best way to teach English language;

“I think the best method to teach English is the task-based method. Accordingly, while the language to be presented should exemplify authentic use, the tasks should make the learners use language for real communicative purposes.” (Eda, Senior)

“English should be taught through speaking and learner-centered teaching methods. Instead of using classical grammar translation method, communicative approach or multiple intelligence method should be preferred because these methods encourage students’ active involvement.” (Esra, Senior)

Apparently, the following quotes from two freshman students show that they do not have the sufficient methodological background to elaborate on their beliefs.

“In my opinion, an English teacher should use English in the classroom and try to integrate games into the lesson to promote student participation.” (Pırl, Freshman)

“There should be a lot of practice accompanied with theory” (Umut, Freshman)

The most eminent difference between senior and freshman students’ written comments was definitely in the quality and depth of their descriptions. Senior students’ reflected their beliefs through using educational jargon that signals their acquisition of field specific content knowledge during their pedagogical courses. The terminology utilized by senior students, but not by freshman students, might be considered as an indication of their transformation and enculturation into the profession.

Change in language learning and teaching beliefs

As Table 5 illustrates, more than half of the student teachers reported that their beliefs regarding language teaching and learning changed over time (60% of freshman and 76% of senior). 40% of freshman and 24% of senior students reported no change in their beliefs, which might appear to support the existing research on the inflexibility of teacher beliefs and the lack of impact of the initial teacher education program on pre-service teachers’ beliefs. However, the cross-sectional analysis of the responses reporting “no change” showed that the great majority of these respondents (12 participants out of 14) were actually the participants whose responses for the first research question (the best way of learning English) fell into social-constructivist (N=4), constructivist (N=3) and social learning categories (N= 7). As these beliefs reflect the type of knowledge and skills that the program aimed at developing, it was observed that these beliefs were enhanced and remained constant.

Table 5. Percentages of change in respondents’ language teaching and learning beliefs

	Change (%)	No change (%)
Freshman	60	40
Senior	76	24

The most notable changes reported by both senior and freshman students are seen in grammar and vocabulary areas, and in their approach towards language skills. Both groups reported that in the past they considered grammar and lexical knowledge as two vital components of language, and approached language skills as separate entities. In our freshman group, beliefs regarding the importance of grammar and vocabulary have evolved and they started prioritizing listening and

speaking skills in an integrated manner. Senior students, on the other hand, consider not only listening and speaking but also the integration of all four skills in a contextualized manner.

“I used to think that I could learn English through reading and writing. But when I started this program, I realized that speaking and listening are the most important skills. When these two are learned the other skills and knowledge improve spontaneously.” (Beren, Freshman)

“Before, I thought that one can learn a language by studying only vocabulary, grammar and listening. I also thought people should start speaking only after they reach a certain proficiency level. But now, I think grammar should never be taught explicitly. I have also understood that all skills support each other, for example reading and writing contribute development of listening and speaking abilities.” (Öznur, Senior)

Several previous studies reported similar changes regarding beliefs about vocabulary, grammar, and communicative skills. For example, Mattheoudakis (2007) reported that while majority of students entering teacher education program emphasize grammar and vocabulary more, this percentage of agreement decreases at the end of the second year, and that the importance of communication reaches the highest level at the end of the final year. That pre-service teachers' viewing grammar as an essential component of learning a language changed after their enrollment in the program is also in line with Çapan's (2014) findings, which also depicted a decline in the positive beliefs of pre-service teachers toward conscious grammar knowledge.

While senior students previously advocated the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) which is also supported by their views of each skill as separate entities, after their four year education they mention that their ideas have changed greatly (76%) in favor of authenticity, communicative approach in addition to their opinion about one standard way of learning/teaching. According to senior students, there is no “one fits all methodology” since learners might have different needs.

“[Before entering university] I thought that I had a good command of English, then I realized that I cannot speak at all. I understood that knowledge of grammar rules and vocabulary is not enough to know the language. Now, I think that expressing yourself easily is the only proof of knowing English.” (Hatice, Freshman)

“In high school, I used to think that English is learned through rote memorization. I used to memorize word lists and tried to create formulas to memorize grammar rules. When I started university, I learned that actually there are a lot of different methods, and recognized that I could have learned the usage better if different approaches had been used.” (Sena, Senior)

The extent of reported change in freshman students' beliefs about learning/teaching was less than that of senior students (60% vs. 76%). Yet, although they expressed their views in broader terms, their emphasis was mainly on the authenticity and the importance of practice for developing language skills. A major difference observed is related to their standpoints: while senior students expressed their opinions from a teaching point of view, freshman students tended to verbalize their opinions from a learning perspective. The percentage of change explicitly expressed by our participants support the line of literature reporting development in student teachers' beliefs during the program.

Apart from knowledge and skills mentioned, our participants also stated changes in language learning approaches (see Table 6). The perspectival differences between freshman and senior students become apparent particularly in two categories. While expressing their beliefs at present, freshman students mentioned “exposure to authentic language learning experience” and highlighted the importance of “practice” for language development. Although the change from “rote learning” to exposure to language learning is promising, they still consider learners as receivers. On the other hand, only two seniors explicitly named an approach (GTM) among previously held beliefs. Concerning their present beliefs, they emphasized, “authentic language learning experiences”, “communication” and “catering for learner needs via different approaches” as core principles. According senior students' conceptions language learner is experiencer, rather than receiver. This also

strengthens the above suggestion that while freshman students have a learner's stance, senior students have a teacher's viewpoint.

We suggest that the shift observed in pre-service students' standpoints (from freshman to senior) is an indication of reconceptualization that occurs over time. These self-reported changes show that student teachers' beliefs are not consistent and fixed, and they are in stark contrast to those studies, which postulated that the teacher education programs are incapable of changing pre-service teachers' beliefs (Peacock, 2001; Tatto, 1998). On the contrary, as suggested by Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000) through personal experience "more theoretical beliefs become concretized" (p. 394).

Table 6. *Changes reported by freshman and senior students*

Before	Freshman	Senior	Now	Freshman	Senior
Knowledge & skills	F	F	Knowledge & skills	F	F
Speaking	-	2	Speaking is the proof of knowing a language	3	
Listening	-	1	Listening & speaking come first	1	
Reading	1	2	Grammar & speaking practices	1	
Writing	1	1	Frequent listening & speaking practices		2
Grammar	8	8	Reading & writing enhance grammar		1
Vocabulary	3	3	Skills-integrated		1
			Grammar in context & implicit grammar teaching		4
			Vocabulary in context & with collocations		1
Approach			Approach		
Language learning is an innate ability	1		Exposure to authentic language increases production ability	5	
Route learning	2		Interest and motivation enhance learning	1	
Listening to lectures	1		Exposure to different teaching methods	1	
GTM	-	2	Practice makes perfect	3	
			Grammar and speaking	1	
			Authentic language learning experiences		3
			Communication is at the core of language learning		1
			Different approaches catering for learner needs		3
			Use of technological tools		1

Conclusion

This paper deals with the results of a research study comparing freshman and senior pre-service language teachers enrolled in English Language Teaching department of a state university in Turkey. Our main aim was to identify pre-service language teachers' beliefs about English language teaching and learning at different stages of instruction while they were taking courses in the program. We assumed that the changes in their beliefs would be a reflection of the impact of the program on their beliefs. The main findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

1. The most notable difference between freshman and senior students' beliefs is observed with respect to language learning. Freshman students seemed to follow the principles of behavioristic and cognitivist psychology, whereas senior students were inclined to adhere to social-constructivist and experiential psychology of learning. This group viewed language learning as simply mastering vocabulary and grammar rules. On the contrary, our senior participants focused more on nativist and experiential language learning.
2. Intergroup differences were observed regarding language teaching beliefs as well. Although freshman group had rather an intuitive and unsound perspective, senior group displayed a more grounded and in-depth perspective. The latter group emphasized inductive approach and even named particular methods (such as Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Teaching). However, the former group perceived language teaching consisting of specific activities and techniques. Freshman students expressed language learning beliefs which were more intuition and experience oriented while senior students approached second language learning and teaching from an interventionist perspective.
3. Regarding the impact of teacher education program, there are two sets of evidence to claim that the education program had an impact on the development of their beliefs.
 - a) The visible difference between freshman and senior students' self-reported changes in their beliefs reflect the change in their conceptualization of teaching. Freshman students approach the issue from "learner" perspective and consider "practice" as the most essential path to language development. Senior students, on the other hand, look more from a "teacher" perspective and take language development as the accumulation of "experiences". This finding supports McLean and Bullard (2000) who stated that pre-service teachers were observed to go through certain stages during their teacher education; while at initial stages they view their role as imparting information; at final stages they conceptualize teaching as supporting learning.
 - b) The fact that differences emerged between freshman and senior students in terms of all three major categories of the current study, namely, beliefs about language learning, beliefs about language teaching, and reporting change overall indicates the instability of beliefs and the potential of courses given in teacher education program to change beliefs. Furthermore, senior students' choice of words, their integration of theory and terminology into their discourse pointed to an increase in their awareness and an improvement in their understanding of the processes of foreign language teaching and learning.

Studies have reported that teachers who lack preparation rely more on rote methods of learning (Darling-Hammond, 2006a). In our study, senior students were found to depend more on experiential/constructivist learning instead of traditional behaviorist rote learning principles, which suggests that they do possess the necessary preparation for language teaching to some degree.

Unlike previous research suggesting that teacher education is a weak intervention, and that by nature, pre-service teachers' beliefs are highly resistant to change (Kagan, 1992; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984), our findings demonstrated the impact of teacher education on changing teacher trainees' beliefs. Particularly, the results revealed that students started to build links between theory and practice creating some changes in previous beliefs. These findings lend support to Bush (2010) and Johnson's (1994) studies since the beliefs of senior year student teachers in the present study also seem to be affected by their formal training as displayed by their elaborate comments and consistent pattern of responses. Overall, the change in senior students' perceptions can be attributed to their undergraduate education that is based on constructivist and learner-centered pedagogies, while the change in freshman students' perceptions might stem from their experiences as language students

during their preparatory year in the department and language learning experiences in primary and secondary schooling.

To conclude, the findings of this study contribute to the development of our existing knowledge about the potential of language teacher education to positively change pre-service language teachers' conceptions of the complexities of language learning and teaching. We suggest that our evidence of flexibility and development in participants' beliefs justifies a view of teacher training as a variable in student teacher belief development.

Suggestions and limitations

Following Darling-Hammond (2006b), we suggest that English teacher education programs should provide opportunities for teachers to raise their consciousness on the nature of language learning and teaching and to enable them to articulate their beliefs that will inform their practice in their future careers. Further qualitative studies are needed to explore EFL teacher training over a long time so that more insights can be obtained regarding what actually happens in EFL teacher training programs. In a longitudinal design, pre-service teachers' changing or intact beliefs can be explored deeply starting from the initial years of the program to the end of it, and the follow-up can be made when they step into teaching profession. In this way, the consistencies or inconsistencies between their beliefs and practices can be determined, and the reasons for inconsistencies can be detected for further studies.

Undoubtedly, this study is not without limitations. There are two specific limitations to the present study. First, this is a narrow study focusing exclusively on pre-service language teachers at one state university. Therefore, generalizability of the findings may be a limiting factor. Second, the use of a self-report instrument might be considered as a limitation to research. Participants might not have fully expressed their mental and emotional states.

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Scores Assigned by Inexpert EFL Raters to Different Quality EFL Compositions, and the Raters' Decision-Making Behaviors

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the variability in and reliability of scores assigned to different quality EFL compositions by EFL instructors and their rating behaviors. Using a mixed research design, quantitative data were collected from EFL instructors' ratings of 30 compositions of three different qualities using a holistic scoring rubric. Qualitatively, think-aloud protocol data were collected concretely from a sub-sample of raters. The generalizability theory (G-theory) approach was used to analyze the quantitative data. The results showed that the raters mostly deviated while giving scores to very low level and mid-range compositions, but that they were more consistent while rating very high-level compositions. The reliability of the ratings of high quality papers (e.g. $g: .87$ and $\phi: .79$ respectively) was higher than the coefficients obtained for mid-range and low quality compositions. This result indicated that more reliable ratings could be obtained in the rating of high quality papers. The think-aloud protocol analysis indicated that the raters attended differently to different aspects of these three level compositions. Implications are given from performance assessment practice perspectives.

Keywords: Inexpert raters, generalizability theory, variability of ratings, writing assessment.

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Introduction

Performance assessment is a two-headed procedure that consists of real-life behavior observations or the simulation of that behavior, and in this sense assessing writing is performance assessment (Weigle, 2008) because it requires learners to show their actual writing performance. Assessing this performance is a difficult task due to the fact that the writing process has a multifaceted quality (Eryaman, 2008). The different aspects of writing performance make it challenging for raters to assess it. For example, social context may be a factor affecting the writing process (Baker, 2010). Further, the latter includes the language proficiency, conceptual knowledge and judgmental ability of the students (Heaton, 2003).

There are several arguments that suggest that assessing writing performance is a complex task. As writing is a complex part of language, assessing writing performance involves several variables. The first such variable is rater differences. While the rater's rating behavior is at one end of the spectrum (Gebril & Plakans, 2014; Lim, 2009), the rater's decision-making process is at the other end (Baker, 2010; Lim, 2009). Another issue is the rater's tendency to be severe or lenient (Huang, 2008; Lim, 2009). The rater's language background and rater training are also among the factors affecting the rating process (Chang, 2002; Shi 2001).

The effect of rubric type on writing scores is a second variable (Barkaoui, 2007; Han, 2013). Using different rating scales can contribute to scoring variance (Chang, 2002). While a holistic scale may be seen as suitable in some cases, an analytic scale may be favored in other circumstances (Bacha 2001; Knoch 2011).

The third and final variable is, inevitably, the learners. The learner's language proficiency (Huang, 2008;) and the effect of gender on writing scores (Green & Oxford 1995) are some factors which affect writing performance.

Beside the issue of the complexity of the writing assessment itself, the measurement of errors is among other issues associated with the assessment procedure (Brennan, 2011), because measuring the same trait more than once does not always give the same results, which raises the issue of the reliability of the measurement (Steyer, 2001). There are three theories which handle these issues, namely Classical Test Theory (CTT), Generalizability Theory (G-Theory) and IRT (Algina & Swaminathan, 2015; Brennan, 2010; 2011).

CTT is seen as the ancestor of G-Theory (Brennan, 2010; 2011). This theory is based on the equation that the observed score (X) equals the true score (T) plus random error (E) (Brennan, 2011). When a student is tested several times, the average of all the scores from these tests gives the true score in CTT (Rindskopf, 2015). Though this theory is frequently used in the social sciences, the most significant problem with the theory is its way of handling measurement error. While there are many factors affecting observed test scores, CTT brings together all the factors under the title of a single source of error (Brennan, 2010), and error is affected by investigator himself/herself even if s/he is not aware of this (Brennan, 2011). Because of this weakness of CTT, G-Theory was developed to deal with more than one error and with the extent to which various factors affect the errors (Matt & Sklar, 2015; Rindskopf, 2015). To give an example, imagine that each student is asked to write three short essays in a writing test and these essays are scored by two scorers; in this case, GT can be used to estimate the amount of variation which is caused by variation in essay topics and variation in raters (Rindskopf, 2015).

G-Theory is a theory that improves upon Classical Test Theory by investigating multiple errors and using analysis of variance (Brennan, 2010). Rather than reliability, dependability and generalizability are the terms used in G-Theory (Matt & Sklar, 2015). There are some strengths of G-Theory over Classical Test Theory. For example, G-Theory serves a wide range of areas, from education and business to medicine; similarly, it can be applied in a wide range of educational tests

and testing programs (Brennan, 2010). The conceptual framework that it provides is seen to be one of its most important strengths (Brennan, 2010). Despite its superiority over CTT, the use of G-Theory by researchers is relatively low, and it is thought that this reluctance to use G-Theory may be due to the “incomplete understanding of the conceptual underpinnings of GT, the actual steps involved in designing and implementing generalizability studies, or some combination of both issues” (Briesch, Swaminathan, Welsh & Chafouleas, 2014; p.13).

Overall, G-Theory enables the analysis of more than one measurement facet simultaneously in the assessment of error, reliability and variability in scores (Brennan, 2001). In this sense, this study used G-Theory as a methodological framework.

Given that there has not been much research into the scores assigned to different quality EFL compositions in a G-Theory framework with the use of think-aloud data to investigate rater behaviors, the present study investigated the variability in and reliability of the scores assigned by EFL instructors to different quality compositions within a G-Theory framework, and the raters’ decision-making behaviors while rating the compositions and simultaneously thinking-aloud.

Literature Review

To date, there have been many studies on the factors affecting EFL/ESL writing scores as a result of rater impact, scale type impact and learner impact. Below is a review of the literature about these factors.

Rater Impact on Writing Scores

One dimension of EFL/ESL writing assessment research has addressed rater impact on writing scores (e.g. Lim, 2009; Shi, 2001). In the main, think-aloud protocols, interviews (Chang 2002; Gebril & Plakans, 2014), inventories (Alaei, Ahmadi & Zadeh, 2014) and case studies (Shi, 2001) have been used in the conducting of such research studies.

In this context, rater impact on writing and the rater’s rating behaviors are among the notable facets. For example, Baker (2010) has found in a study that all raters have their own rating behaviors. Similarly, Lim (2009) argues in his doctoral dissertation that raters tend to give scores in two ways: using their own interpretation or judgment strategies. In addition, Gebril and Plakans (2014) have found that raters generally tend to use judgment strategies rather than interpretation strategies.

The rater’s decision-making behavior is another important feature of writing assessment studies. In a study, Huang (2008) found that decision-making was a significant factor that could decrease the variations in the writing scores. Moreover, Lim (2009) addressed three types of decision-making process, including general impression, personal reaction and first impression. In addition, Baker (2010) reached the conclusion, in his study, that raters mostly had a tendency to give scores according to their first impression. Alaei, Ahmadi and Zadeh (2014) have also noted in their study that scores given according to first impression are more time-saving and cost-effective.

The rater’s tendency to be severe or lenient also draws attention in the studies (e.g. Baker, 2010; Esfandiari & Myford, 2013; Huang, 2008; Lim, 2009). Esfandiari and Myford (2013) concluded from their study that teacher assessors were more severe than self-assessors and peer assessors, and that this situation gave rise to great variability in writing scores. On the contrary, Lim (2009) argued that differences in severity did not produce any significant variation in writing scores in the end. Furthermore, Huang (2008) has addressed this problem in terms of the numbers of raters and proposed that it is essential to prevent discrepancies in rater severity and leniency when a great number of raters participate in the assessing writing process.

The impact of raters’ L1 background on writing scores has been studied. For instance, Chang (2002) found in a study that there was little difference between the scores of native and non-native English speaker raters. Similar to this result, Shi (2001) found that there was no noticeable difference in the scoring of native and non-native English speaker raters. However, Huang (2008) found that raters’ language backgrounds had a significant effect on writing scores.

Several research studies have also examined whether rater training impacts upon writing scores (e.g. Alaei, Ahmadi & Zadeh, 2014; Chang, 2002). For example, Alaei, Ahmadi and Zadeh (2014) suggest in their study that rater training is an essential factor in making raters aware of their potential errors in the rating process. Similarly, Chang (2002) argues that rater training is necessary in order for raters to have the same or similar scoring philosophies and to provide inter / intra-rater reliability. Gebril and Plakans (2014) also suggest in their study that rater training is needed in order to purify and clearly articulate the scoring decisions. On the other hand, Esfandiari and Myford (2013) have argued that diversity in writing assessment scores could not be eliminated to a high extent with rater training. Recently, Han (2013) examined whether holistic scores could be as reliable as analytic scores when raters received detailed rater training. It was found that holistic scores were as reliable as analytic scores.

Scale Type Impact on Writing Scores

A second dimension of ESL writing assessment research has analyzed the impact of the rating scale on writing scores (e.g. Barkaoui, 2007; Chang, 2002; Han, 2013; Huang, 2008.). In his study, Chang (2002) found that there were significant scoring differences when raters used particular scale types. Similarly, Saeidi and Semiyari, (2011) suggested that there was a considerable difference between holistic and analytic scores. Barkaoui (2007) also noted this difference, but the findings of his study suggested that the holistic scale gave more reliable scoring results. In contrast, Knoch (2011) suggested that an analytic scale gave more reliable results and that this scale type had a significant effect on writing scores because of addressing a variety of descriptors differently from the holistic scales. Like Knoch (2011), Bacha (2001) favored analytic scoring in regard to its level of being informative compared with the holistic scale. Furthermore, Huang (2008) addressed the significance of the impact of rating scale types, and proposed that, unless rating scales provide a system for addressing the potential differences, they culminate in less consistent scores. In contrast to these findings, Alaei, Ahmadi and Zadeh (2014) found that some raters did not follow any holistic or analytic scale, but that they used their own rating styles which were not in accord with the criteria on rating scales. In addition, Rezaei and Lovorn (2010) also noted in their study that the raters had a tendency to give scores regarding the mechanical features of the students' writing, instead of the content, whichever scale they used.

Learner Impact on Writing Scores

A third dimension of study has addressed the scoring differences caused by learners (e.g. Baba, 2009; Huang, 2008; Lim 2009). The learners' proficiency levels in the EFL/ESL and language backgrounds are among the concerns of these studies. Huang (2008) suggested that ESL students had lower scores than Native English students; in addition, he argued that ESL students may have difficulty in understanding the writing tasks compared to Native English students and that they had difficulty while writing because of their linguistic deficiencies. Baba, (2009) has also reported a similar finding, asserting that the ability to use words appropriately to express ideas in a second language makes an excellent contribution to writing performance and scores. This finding is also supported by Kobrin, Deng and Shaw (2011).

There is some research which has studied the factor of gender. However, Lim 2009 has suggested that gender has little effect on writing scores, and that it is in favor of female learners. Green & Oxford (1995) have argued that women have a higher level of performance than men. Such research has focused on different aspects of writing, while examining the gender factor. For example, Breland, Bridgeman, and Fowles (1999) address this issue in terms of test types that have multiple-choice writing tests and essay writing, while Willingham and Cole (1997) address it in terms of prompts.

Quality of Papers

Very little research has examined the link between the quality of a paper (low, medium or high) and the reliability of and variability in the scores assigned by raters (e.g. Cumming, 1985; 1990; Huang et al., 2014).

Cumming (1985) found that three ESOL raters focused their attention on different qualities while rating the same composition. Next, Mendelsohn and Cumming (1987) examined the difference between the scores assigned to different level ESL compositions and the perceptions of 26 university professors from different academic disciplines (i.e., Engineering, English literature, ESL). The results showed that engineering professors agreed on the ratings of high and low quality papers but differed on the ratings of the middle quality papers. Further, engineering professors gave more importance to language features than to rhetoric and the organization of ideas, while ESL professors attended more to rhetoric and the organization of ideas.

Cumming (1990) investigated whether raters distinguish students' writing proficiency and language proficiency while rating compositions holistically and how the raters (6 experienced and 7 inexperienced) behaved in this decision-making process. The EFL/ESL teachers rated 12 compositions by students with different proficiency levels (intermediate and advanced) and writing expertise (average and professionally experienced writers) in their L1. The results showed that all teachers distinguished students' L2 proficiency and writing skills as separate, non-interacting factors. Further, the raters' concurrent verbal report analyses indicated that both groups of raters differed significantly in using most of the 28 common decision-making behaviors. For example, the inexperienced and experienced raters differed significantly in terms of their ratings for "content" and "rhetorical organization", but not for "language use". The rater reliability of inexperienced raters' ratings for content and rhetorical organization was higher than that of the expert raters. Additionally, both groups of raters' ratings for language use significantly differed from their ratings for content and rhetorical organization. Overall, the ratings of the experienced group of raters for the three components of writing were consistent.

In a TOEFL research Project, Cumming, Kantor and Powers (2001) developed a framework in respect of 10 experienced raters' decision-making processes while rating ESL/EFL writings. The data was collected through think-aloud protocols. The results showed that the ESL/EFL raters paid greater attention to rhetoric and ideas in the very high quality essays compared to very low quality essays. ESL/EFL raters paid more attention to rhetoric and ideas in high quality essays compared to very low quality essays, while they consistently attended to language features in the high quality essays compared to the very low quality essays. Native-English-composition raters behaved in a similar manner.

More recently, Huang et al. (2014) investigated whether the quality of essays (i.e., low quality vs. medium quality vs. high quality) interfered with the assessment of ESOL students' writing at a Turkish university, using G-Theory for analyzing the data. Five EFL raters rated 9 compositions (3 low, 3 medium and 3 high quality) by undergraduate level EFL students, both holistically and analytically. The G-Theory approach was used to analyze the data. Raters were found to be more consistent in rating high quality papers. Further, scoring methods greatly impacted on the scoring of high quality compositions. The above-mentioned variations in scores negatively affect the reliability, validity, and fairness of the judgments about a student's writing performance (Han, 2013; Huang, 2008, 2009, 2011).

As the above research literature has indicated, some research has investigated the scores assigned to different quality EFL compositions (Mendelsohn & Cumming, 1987; Cumming, 1985; 1990; Huang, et al., 2014), but not the link between the quality of the papers, the ratings and the raters' decision-making behaviors while rating compositions at these three levels. Further, among these studies very few of them have used think-aloud protocols to analyze rater behaviors, especially in rating different quality writing (Cumming, 1990), although some research has benefitted from it in examining rating process, validity and fairness issues (Connor-Linton, 1995; Cumming, 1990; Cumming, Kantor & Powers, 2001; Sakyi, 2000; Vaughan, 1991; Weigle, 1994). On the other hand, research literature has indicated that empirical studies that investigate rater variation should look closely at the rating process (Connor-Linton, 1995) because think-aloud protocol data provides the "richest evidence" on the raters' decision-making behaviors while rating compositions. Therefore, this study aims at bridging this research gap. The following main research question guided this study:

What is the variability in and reliability of the scores assigned by EFL instructors to different quality compositions and how do they behave while rating the compositions? Further, within the G-Theory framework, the following three specific research questions were asked:

- a. Are there differences among the holistic scores of the three different qualities of EFL papers?
- b. What are the sources of score variation contributing to the score variability in the holistic scores assigned to the different quality EFL papers?
- c. Does the reliability (e.g., dependability coefficients for criterion-referenced score interpretations) of the holistic scores differ among the scores assigned to the different quality EFL papers?

Further, the data derived from the think-aloud protocols with the raters were used to answer the following additional research question:

How do the raters make decisions while marking different quality EFL papers holistically?

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to examine both the impact of writing quality (low-medium-high) on the variability in and reliability of EFL writing assessments in Turkey, and also rater behaviors using a mixed-methods research approach. Quantitatively, rating variability and reliability issues were examined employing the G-Theory approach. Qualitatively, think-aloud protocols were used with raters to explain the quantitative results further. The main research question was to determine “if there were any differences in the rating variability and reliability of the holistic writing scores assigned by the instructors to three different qualities of composition, and if the raters behaved differently across different qualities of papers while rating”.

Context of the study

This study used writing quiz data, collected as part of the evaluation dimension of undergraduate classroom-based English examinations at the English Language and Literature Department of a state university in Turkey, where the medium of instruction is English. Generally, in the English Language and Literature Department, undergraduate classroom writing assignments and quizzes require undergraduate students to write an essay on one prompt in 45 minutes. Each time students are asked to write on a single topic that has been chosen for all students.

Obtaining Data

An instructor at the English Language and Literature Department of a state university provided the writing samples necessary for the analysis. Firstly, argumentative short compositions, written using a word processor computer program (e.g. Microsoft word), by EFL students who took English Writing Skills courses were selected. Secondly, the participant instructors were first informed briefly about the context of the study. Then, they were invited to participate in the study as volunteer participating raters. Five raters were randomly selected from among the volunteers to rate the essays. In addition, think-aloud data was collected from the raters about their rating processes. The purpose of the think-aloud protocols was to elicit how they arrived at holistic scoring decisions while rating very low, mid-range and very high quality compositions.

Selection of Writing Samples

The selection of the writing samples was undertaken as follows. Initially, all English instructors from three different universities were randomly allocated students' English writing samples, selected for data analysis from departmental impromptu writing examinations. The course teacher had not discussed the essay topics in class beforehand. Both tasks were argumentative and authentic in nature and the students were thought to be familiar with the content material used. The students were asked to respond to different argumentative writing tasks as an assignment.

Each instructor selected 10 argumentative essays written by nine undergraduate students outside of the class. These 30 papers were written by Turkish-speaking students as home assignments outside of the class and evaluated by the instructor as representing three different levels of quality (high, medium, and low) in order to maximize the differences among papers. A total of 30 papers were selected for this study.

Selection of Raters

The five participating raters were selected from volunteering lecturers with various teaching backgrounds, but who were at least studying for an MA degree in the field of interdisciplinary EFL and who had 1-3 years' experience in EFL teaching. They had similar teaching and assessing ESL/EFL writing experience. All the raters who participated in this experimental study are professionals in the field of interdisciplinary English language teaching and regular employees of three universities in Turkey.

These five raters were all graduates from different English Language Teaching or English Language and Literature departments in Turkey. They were Turkish native speakers of English. The ages of the raters ranged from 25 to 30. Their experiences in teaching EFL writing and marking EFL essays were similar.

Rating Scale

The instrument used in the study was a 10-point holistic scale, including five levels of score (see appendix A).

Training Raters to use the holistic scale in rating

The rating procedure for this study consisted of three phases. First of all, the names of the students were deleted from the papers and they were given unique codes to provide unbiased conditions for raters. Secondly, two hours of rater training was given to the participant raters about how to use the scoring rubric. Then raters gave grades for each composition using the holistic rubric.

Training Raters in How to Think-aloud

To train the raters to think-aloud, they were informed, in a two hour course, about what think-aloud is and about how the think-aloud procedure is handled. Then, the raters read some articles and book chapters about the think-aloud procedure. After that, they watched some sample videos about the procedure. Lastly, all of the raters made a sample think-aloud record, listened to the recordings and made comments about each other's. After the think-aloud procedure had been explained, each rater recorded their-rating procedure for 6 compositions (2 high, 2 medium, 2 low) without knowing the qualities of the papers while rating.

Quantitative Data analysis

Descriptive statistical analysis (mean and standard deviation) was conducted for the holistic scores of the low, medium, and high quality papers, respectively. The purpose of conducting descriptive statistical analysis was to obtain a general comparison of both the mean score and standard deviation differences among the papers of different qualities. Within the G-Theory framework, data were analyzed in the following three stages: 1) student nested within quality-by-rater (with paper quality fixed and all other facets random) mixed effects G-study; 2) student-by-rater random effects G-studies for low, medium, and high quality papers, respectively, and 3) calculation of G-coefficients (Huang & Foote, 2010).

Student nested within quality-by-rater mixed effects G-study

A student nested within quality -by-rater (s:q x r) mixed effects G-study analysis (with paper quality fixed and all other facets random) was conducted. The purpose of this G- study was to obtain variance component estimates for the six independent sources of variation: quality (q), student nested within quality (s:q), rater (r), quality-by-rater (q x r), student nested within quality-by-rater (s:q x r), and the residual (p:q x r).

Paper-by-rater random effects G-studies

Three separate paper-rater ($p \times r$) random effects G-studies were conducted for low, medium, and high quality papers, respectively. The purpose of these G-studies was to obtain information for comparison among the low, medium, and high quality papers, in terms of score variability and reliability. It was hypothesized that there would be differences among these compositions of different qualities. With the implementation of these G-studies, the three independent sources of variation, namely, student (p), rater (r), and student-by-rater ($p \times r$) for each quality level were obtained. Using the obtained variance components, G-coefficients for each quality level were then calculated in order to examine for reliability (cf. Huang, 2012).

Calculation of G-coefficients

Two different reliability coefficients (phi- and G- coefficients) related to decisions (the interpretation of the criterion-referenced level of scores and of the norm-referenced level of scores) can be calculated through G-Theory analysis (Shavelson & Webb, 1991). Based on the paper-by-method-by-rater ($s \times r$) random effects G-studies results, the G-coefficient and phi-coefficient for each level of paper quality (low, medium, high) were calculated. The purpose of calculating these coefficients for each level of paper quality was to answer the second research question: Does the reliability of scores differ among essays of three different qualities? The computer program EduG was used for the G-studies. EduG is a computer program “based on the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Generalizability Theory (G-Theory), and designed to carry out generalizability analysis” (EduG, 2015).

Qualitative Data Analysis

Think-aloud protocol analysis for this study was conducted in several steps, following Cumming, Kantor and Power’s (2001) protocol analysis approach. First, protocols were transcribed by two volunteer teachers and revised to a standard set of simple transcription conventions (c.f. Cumming, Kantor & Powers, 2001). Second, the transcriptions were double checked to assure accuracy by the researcher of this study and another researcher. Third, Cumming, Kantor and Power’s (2001) modified version of the schemes developed by Cumming (1990) and Sakyi (2000), (see Appendix B) was used to describe decision-making behaviors while rating EFL compositions. This analysis identified three general decision-making categories that the raters made during the ratings of compositions. These categories were a) “self-monitoring of one’s own rating behaviors”, b) “the composition’s realization”, and c) “rhetorical and ideational elements, or the composition’s accuracy and fluency in the English language” (Cumming, et al., 2001, p.16).

Results

This section includes quantitative and qualitative data analysis regarding the study. Descriptive analysis for the study is presented first, followed by G-Theory analyses, and, finally, the think-aloud protocol analysis is presented.

Descriptive Statistical Results

Each of the papers was rated holistically by five independent raters on a ten-point rubric. Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics (i.e., the mean and standard deviation) for the scores of the very low, mid-range and very high quality papers used in the analysis.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for very low, mid-range and very high quality papers

#Papers	Very low level		Mid-range		Very high level	
	m	sd	m	Sd	m	sd
#1	5.50	1.93	6.30	1.92	8.60	0.42***
#2	5.20	1.30	6.50	2.74**	7.80	1.64
#3	4.80	1.26	6.20	2.20**	7.70	1.30
#4	6.30	1.92	5.80	1.30	8.20	0.97
#5	4.90	1.43	7.00	1.22	8.00	1.37
#6	3.60	0.96*	7.00	1.46	8.40	1.08
#7	5.50	1.66	6.00	1.70	8.10	0.89
#8	5.20	1.35	6.40	2.27**	8.00	0.71
#9	5.00	2.37**	6.90	1.43	6.20	1.04
#10	5.80	2.17**	6.80	1.35	6.90	0.42***

Comparing the results of the very low, mid-range, and very high quality papers, the following three observations were made. First, the standard deviations for both the very low and mid-range quality papers are larger than 1.0, except for paper #6 in the low quality category; and, in the high quality category, except for papers #1, #4, #7, #8 and #10, indicating that raters scored the very high quality papers more consistently compared to the other two quality levels. Further, papers #9 and #10 in the low category and papers #2, #3 and #8 in the middle category have a large standard deviation of over 2, whereas, for the high quality papers, students #1 and #10 have standard deviations smaller than 0.5, indicating that the raters mostly deviated while giving scores to very low level and mid-range compositions, but that they were more consistent while rating very high level compositions.

G-theory Analyses

Student Nested within Quality-by-Rater Mixed Effects G-study Results

A student nested within quality-by-rater (s:q x r) mixed effects G-study analysis was conducted to obtain variance component estimates for the six independent sources of variation. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Variance components for random effects SXR:Q design

Source of variability	Df	σ^2	%
S:Q	27	0.25611	6.0
R	4	1.05621	24.8
Q	2	1.58343	37.2
RQ	8	0.38472	9.0
SRQ	108	0.97241	22.9
Total	149		100%

Table 2 reveals that the largest variance component (37.2% of the total variance) was attributable to the quality of the papers, in other words that there were considerable differences between compositions in terms of the standard of writing performance. The second largest variance component (4.39% of the total variance) was attributable to rater (r), in other words the raters differed in terms of the severity or leniency of their rating. The third largest component (22.9% of the total variance) was the residual variability arising from the interaction of the raters, the quality of the compositions and various unelucidated sources of error, whether systematic or unsystematic (Huang, 2007, 2008, 2012). The fourth largest variance component (9 % of the total variance) was attributable to quality-by-rater (qr), in other words there were large differences between raters in their ratings of papers of different quality. The fifth largest variance component (6 % of the total variance) was attributable to student nested within quality (s:q), in other words that scoring of students was very

different within each level of quality.

Table 3. *Variance components for random effects s x r G-study design (Low quality papers)*

Source	df	σ^2	%
S	9	0.29417	9.3
R	4	1.77750	56.4
SR	36	1.08250	34.3
Total	49		100%

Table 3 gives the student-by-rater results of the random effects G-studies for low quality papers. It reveals that the largest variance component (56.4% of the total variance) was attributable to rater (r), in other words that there was a considerable difference between raters in respect of the leniency with which they scored the ten low quality EFL papers. The second largest variance component (34.3% of the total variance) was the residual variability arising from the interaction of the raters, the papers and various unelucidated sources of error, whether systematic or unsystematic (Huang, 2007, 2008, 2012). The lowest variance component (9.3 % of the total variance) was attributable to the object of measurement, student (s), which reveals that the ten selected low quality EFL papers did not differ markedly in respect of quality.

Table 4. *Variance components for random effects s x r G-study design (middle quality papers)*

Source	Df	σ^2	%
S	9	0.07444	2.2
R	4	2.05028	61.3
SR	36	1.21722	36.4
Total	49		100%

Table 4 gives the student-by-rater results of the random effects G-studies for student papers of medium quality. These are similar to those in Table 3. They reveal that the largest variance component (61.3% of the total variance) was attributable to rater (r), in other words that there was a considerable difference between raters in respect of the leniency with which they scored the ten medium quality EFL papers. The second largest variance component (36.4% of the total variance) was the residual variability arising from the interaction of the raters, the papers and various unelucidated sources of error, whether systematic or unsystematic (Huang, 2007, 2008, 2012). The lowest variance component (2.2 % of the total variance) was attributable to the object of measurement, student (s), which indicates that the ten selected middle quality EFL papers did not differ markedly in respect of quality.

Table 5. *Variance components for random effects s x r G-study design (high quality papers)*

Source	df	σ^2	%
S	9	0.39972	26.4
R	4	0.49500	32.7
SR	36	0.61750	40.8
Total	49		100%

Table 5 gives the student-by-rater results of the random effects G-studies for student papers of high quality. They reveal that the largest variance component (40.8% of the total variance) was attributable to the residual variability arising from the interaction of the raters, the papers and various unelucidated sources of error, whether systematic or unsystematic (Huang, 2007, 2008, 2012). The second largest variance component (32.7% of the total variance) was attributable to rater (r), which indicates that there was a considerable difference between raters in respect of the leniency with which they scored the ten high quality EFL papers. The lowest variance component (26.4 % of the total

variance) was attributable to the object of measurement, student (s), which indicates that the ten selected high quality EFL papers did not differ markedly in respect of quality

Using the student-by-rater random effects G-studies variance component results, the G-coefficients for each quality were calculated and presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Dependability coefficients for ratings of low quality papers

	papers	raters	Phi coefficient	g-coefficiency
	30	5	.87	.79
High quality	10	5	.76	.64
Middle quality	10	5	.23	.10
Low quality	10	5	.58	.34

As shown in Table 6, the phi-coefficient and G-coefficient obtained for the ratings of high quality papers for the current five-rater scenario (.87 and .79 respectively) were higher than the coefficients obtained for the mid-range and low quality compositions, while the lowest coefficients were obtained for the ratings of middle quality papers (.10 and .23, respectively). Further, the results show that both the phi-coefficient and the G-coefficient obtained for the ratings of the low quality papers were more than two times higher than the ratings of the middle quality papers (.58 and .34, respectively).

Qualitative Data Analysis

The think-aloud protocols by 5 raters recorded for their rating procedure regarding the 6 compositions (2 high, 2 mid, 2 low) included different numbers of protocols. Table 7 shows the number of protocols and percentages for the three categories (self-monitoring, rhetorical and ideational, and language focus) in respect of the three qualities of composition (very high, mid-range and very low).

Table 7. Number and percentage of protocols for decision-making behaviors involving the three types of focus, for essays rated very low, mid range or very high

Very low level compositions						
RATERS	Self-monitoring focus		Rhetorical and ideational focus		Language Focus	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
R1	7	5.47	8	6.25	17	13.28
R2	2	1.56	10	7.81	16	12.50
R3	4	3.13	2	1.56	8	6.25
R4	5	3.91	6	4.69	13	10.16
R5	7	5.47	13	10.16	10	7.81
Total:128	25	19.53	39	30.47	64	50
Mid-range level compositions						
RATERS	Self-monitoring		Rhetorical		Language Focus	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
R1	3	2.10	7	4.90	12	8.39
R2	3	2.10	11	7.69	16	11.19
R3	5	3.50	1	0.70	7	4.90
R4	4	2.80	6	4.20	18	12.59
R5	5	3.50	6	4.20	39	27.27
Total:143	20	13.99	31	21.68	92	64.34
Very high level compositions						
RATERS	Self-monitoring		Rhetorical		Language Focus	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
R1	5	3.50	7	4.90	15	10.49
R2	6	4.20	9	6.29	16	11.19
R3	3	2.10	2	1.40	8	5.59
R4	3	2.10	5	3.50	20	13.99
R5	4	2.80	12	8.39	28	19.58
Total:143	21	14.69	35	24.48	87	60.84

Table 7 presents the number and frequency of protocols for all decision-making behaviors, including self-monitoring, ideational and rhetorical, and language for essays rated very low, mid range or very high by the EFL composition teachers. The results indicated that, firstly, even though the raters attended differently to different aspects of the three level compositions, the raters did more self-monitoring of their assessment behaviors for the very low level compositions (19.53 %). Yet, for mid-range and very high-level compositions the raters behaved similarly (13.99 % and 14.69 %, respectively). Further, the raters seem to have varied much in self-monitoring behavior while rating very low-level compositions. Next, the raters attended more to rhetoric and ideas when they rated very low-level compositions (30.47%) compared to compositions at the other levels (21.68 % and 24.48 % respectively). Further, the raters seem to be more consistent in this behavior while rating very high level compositions. Finally, when rating mid-range and very high-level compositions, the raters paid relatively more attention to language features (64.34 % and 60.84% respectively).

Discussion and conclusion

The first research question attempted to examine if there was any score variation among the scores assigned by the raters to the EFL compositions of different qualities. The descriptive results indicated that the raters mostly deviated while giving scores to very low level and mid-range compositions, but that they were more consistent while rating very high-level compositions. This is because “essays which fall in the midrange are often most difficult for readers to assess since they usually contain characteristics of high and low levels of writings” (Elbow, 1993 cited in Russikoff,

1995, p.2; Hamp-Lyons, 1991). For example, Mendelsohn and Cumming (1987) and Huang et al., (2014) found that raters differed on the ratings of middle quality papers.

The second research question examined the sources of score variation contributing to the score variability of the holistic scores assigned to the different quality EFL papers. The G-Theory analyses showed that there was a large difference in writing performance that could be attributed to the qualities of essays (37.2%). Further, raters did differ considerably from one another in terms of leniency in marking the 10 very low and 10 mid-range quality EFL papers (56.4 % and 61.3% respectively), whereas raters (r) (32.7% of the total variance) differed less from one another in terms of leniency in marking the 10 high quality ESOL papers. This G-Theory analysis confirmed the descriptive results, as there was more score consistency in the ratings of high quality papers. These results were consistent with those of a previous study (Huang, et al., 2014). Further, Esfandiari and Myford (2013) indicated that variability in writing scores stems from the type of assessment, and that teacher assessors could be more severe than self-assessors and peer assessors. Yet, Lim (2009) argued that severity differences did not produce any significant variation in writing scores at the end. In this context, Huang (2008) has proposed that it is essential to prevent discrepancies in rater severity and leniency when a great number of raters participate in the writing assessment process.

The third research question aimed at investigating the reliability of relative and absolute (ϕ -coefficient and G-coefficient) score differences assigned to compositions at the three levels of quality. The reliability coefficients for the ratings of high quality papers (g : .87 and ϕ : .79, respectively) were higher than the coefficients obtained for the mid-range and low quality compositions, with the lowest coefficients obtained for the ratings of middle quality papers (.10 and .23 respectively). Further, the coefficients obtained for the ratings of the low quality papers were more than two times higher than for the ratings of the middle quality papers (.58 and .34 respectively). This result indicated that more reliable ratings could be obtained for high quality papers. This result is in parallel with a study by Huang et al. (2014) which found that raters were most consistent in rating high quality papers. However, it was also found that the scoring method (holistic or analytic) greatly impacted upon the scoring of high quality EFL papers, but that the scoring method did not impact upon the scores for low quality papers.

Finally, the last research question was aimed at examining raters' decision making behaviors (self-monitoring, ideational and rhetorical, or language) while rating the three different quality compositions. The raters attended differently to different aspects of these three levels of composition. Specifically, while the raters did more self-monitoring of their assessment behaviors on the very low-level compositions (19.53 %), they behaved similarly for mid-range and very high-level compositions (13.99 % and 14.69 %, respectively). Further, there was much variation in self-monitoring behavior while rating very low-level compositions. Next, the raters attended more to rhetoric and ideas when they rated very low-level compositions (30.47%) compared to mid-range and high quality compositions (21.68 % and 24.48%, respectively). Further, the raters seemed to be more consistent in this behavior while rating very high level compositions. Finally, when rating mid-range and very high-level compositions, the raters seemed to devote relatively more attention to language matters (64.34% and 60.84%, respectively). There is a discrepancy between the results of this study and previous research in this respect: one study found that ESL professors gave more weight to rhetorical organization (Mendelsohn & Cumming, 1987), and some other studies have indicated that raters mostly give lower scores to compositions that have poor linguistic features such as lexicon and simple sentence structures (Engber, 1995; Russikoff, 1995; Song & Caruso, 1996; Vaughan, 1991).

There are two limitations that need to be acknowledged regarding this study. Firstly, the large residual variance component for low, mid-range, and high quality EFL papers (34.3 %, 36.4% and 40.8% respectively) in the G-studies indicates that other facets might have attributed to the score variance. Large residual effects may stem from hidden facets (Brennan, 2001). "The variance of the hidden facets is included in the residual variance, thus leading to a larger residual than when the facet is explicitly considered" (Huang et al., 2014, p.144). Secondly, this study included a single task type. However, available research has found that task types affect the variability and reliability of composition scores (Huang, 2008; Lee & Kantor, 2005).

In conclusion, the results of this study have proved that the link between paper quality and rating scores is variable. Moreover, this variation directly affects fairness issues. It can be inferred that teachers of writing and assessment professionals should receive comprehensive training regarding how to assess different qualities of composition (Huang & Foote, 2010; Huang et al., 2014). Finally, further research could investigate the link between task types, rater experience and scores assigned to different qualities of composition.

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Appendices

Appendix A: 10-point Holistic Scale

Score	Criteria
8.5-10	Natural English and no direct translation of idioms and phrases from Turkish. Excellent choice of vocabulary. Complete knowledge of syntax and morphology. Appropriate use of articles and prepositions. Good spelling, punctuation and capitalization. Topic is clearly stated. All parts of the text have excellent unity and coherence.
6.5-8	Sufficient naturalness of English and few collections of simple sentences and direct translations of idioms from Turkish. Good vocabulary choice. Extensive knowledge of syntax and morphology. Few random uses of articles and prepositions. A few spelling, punctuation and capitalization errors. Topic is rather clear. All parts of the text have good unity and coherence.
5-6	Lack of naturalness of English and not many direct translations of idioms and phrases from Turkish. Average vocabulary choice. Moderate knowledge of syntax and morphology. Some inappropriate use of articles and prepositions. There are several spelling, punctuation and capitalization errors. The topic is stated but it is not clear. All parts of the text have average level of unity and coherence.
2.5-4.5	Poor and informal English and frequent direct translations of idioms and phrases from Turkish. Weak choice of vocabulary. Limited knowledge of syntax and morphology. Serious errors in articles and prepositions. Spelling, punctuation and capitalization errors are common. The topic is unrelated. All parts of the text have poor level of unity and coherence.
0-2	Insufficient naturalness of English and many direct translations of idioms and phrases from Turkish. Very weak vocabulary choice. No evidence of knowledge of syntax and morphology. Nearly all the articles and prepositions are used wrong. Many spelling, punctuation and capitalization errors. Topic is missing. The text has nearly no unity and incoherent.

Appendix B: Decision-Making Behaviors While Rating ESL Compositions

Self-monitoring focus	Task fulfillment: rhetorical and ideational focus	Language Focus
Interpretation strategies		
* scan whole text	* interpret ambiguous phrases	* classify error types
* envision situation of writer	* discern rhetorical structure	* "edit" phrases for interpretation
* focus self on task rubric	* summarize propositions	
Judgement Strategies		
* establish personal response	* assess total output	* establish level of comprehensibility
* define and revise own criteria	* assess relevance	* establish error values
* compare with other compositions or anchor papers	* assess coherence	* establish error frequency
* distinguish interactions between categories	* assess interest	* establish command of lexis
* summarize judgments collectively	* identify redundancies	* establish command of syntax and morphology
* articulate scoring decision	* assess topic development	* establish command of spelling and punctuation
	* assess helpfulness in guiding reader	* rate language overall
	* rate content and organization overall	

Miscellany

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