

ACADEMIC STUDIES IN EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES-2019/2

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EDITORS

Asst. Prof. Dr. Ahmet DÖNGER

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Cetinje 2019



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Ivpe

web: www.ivpe.me

Tel. +382 41 234 709

e-mail: office@ivpe.me



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PREFACE

Educational sciences are a very comprehensive discipline. In other words; Educational sciences is a wide branch of science which includes Turkish and social sciences, mathematics and science, fine arts education and teaching technologies and education programs. Therefore, scientists working in this discipline have to deal with different parameters.

They also have to know and understand human psychology very well. On the other hand, the groups that they provide education are composed of individuals of almost all ages of the society. This will be achieved through the application of methods that ensure the development of education categories and diversity in line with the wishes of individuals.

In recent years, one of the topics that social scientists have focused on is how to ensure equal education. Unfortunately, in most of the underdeveloped countries in the world, people's inequalities in education are increasing. In the light of all this, it is our duty to produce information and to share it with societies. we hope that this book will be a light for new generations in the field of education.

We would like to take this opportunity to thank all our colleagues and writers for their efforts.

Asst. Prof. Dr. Ahmet DÖNGER

Asst. Prof. Dr. Hacı YILDIZ

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AN INVESTIGATION OF PRESCHOOL TEACHERS AND PRESERVICE PRESCHOOL TEACHERS' COMPETENCE TO INTERPRET CHILDREN'S DRAWINGS

Şenel ELALDI * & Esmâ KILIÇ**

1. Introduction

Drawing is an effective, alternative way of understanding the representative inner world of children whose verbal expression is more limited than adults (Malchiodi, 2005). Everyone who raises and works with children knows that every child is a universe, and there is no readymade formula applicable to all. Drawings are in fact the blueprints for each child's unique formula, and can be used to understand the most effective way to communicate with them (Wimmer, 2014). As part of their developmental process, children naturally draw and express their feelings and thoughts, their experiences with the environment, their observations about their environment through characteristic differences in their pictures (Hamama, & Ronen, 2009). Children's drawings which are seen a second language or a second voice to express their inner world, can be described as "keeping a mirror in their minds" or "opening new doors to a child's world" (Kırıçođlu, 2002). Features of children's drawings which are often qualitatively different from the drawings of adults arouse curiosity about how children approach drawings, why they draw, and about the role of the various cognitive, expressive and procedural factors involved in the drawing process. Therefore, children's drawings which appear so differently at different ages have generated enthusiasm in examining them as a way to study a range of developmental trends (Rosenblatt & Winner, 1989). Furthermore, since drawings are an additional, easily available tool for understanding daily behavior of a child, many research has adopted different perspectives in pursuing the study of children's drawings and has been interested in viewing children's drawings as reflections of children's personality and feelings, as focusing on children's cognition or intelligence, as indications of personality structure, as measures of intelligence, as reflections of children's concepts (Burkitt, Barrett, & Davis, 2003). There are also educational reasons for being interested in children's drawings, as the development of drawing skill may yield information about important parts of visual thinking as well as possible expressive skills. In

*Assoc. Prof. Cumhuriyet University Education Faculty, Sivas, Turkey. E mail: snlelaldi@gmail.com

** Senior student. Cumhuriyet University Education Faculty, Sivas, Turkey

clinical settings, children's drawings continue to be used to inform assessment, sometimes used as diagnostic aids (Leibowitz 1999).

Early research into children's drawings involved the collection of children's spontaneous drawings in order to obtain a classification of developmental changes. children's drawings provided a reflection or window into children's thoughts and feelings, and thereby provided information from which to draw conclusions about children's intellectual and emotional development (Burkitt et al., 2003). Freeman (1980), outlined a developmental progression in children's drawings from schematic drawings, through drawings in terms of visual appearance, and resulting in drawings that clearly aimed at representation of three-dimensional space. While the stories that children tell for their drawings in structured scribbling stage, up to the age of three and four, may change, from the age of four, in the so-called pre-schematic stage, the stories of children's drawings begin to show consistency and to include objects familiar to adults, such as flowers, trees or cars, but the child still does not attach any importance to the relations between the various objects in the drawing (Malchiodi, 2005). By this point, according to Piaget, children tend to draw what they know rather than what they see (Trawick Swith, 2013). In other words, children often draw parts of objects that they can't actually see because they are concerned with including features central to their concept of an object (Cox & Moore, 1994). Similarly, Freeman (1980) emphasized that pre-schematic stage, children had a tendency to draw hidden features of objects, for example, drawing the handle of a cup when the handle was out of their sight. Such observations lead to the suggestion that children were not drawing from an object in front of them, but rather were drawing from an internal mental model (Malchiodi, 2005).

Drawing is a complexly determined process and evaluating children's drawings is also a complicated task that requires profound understanding of various aspects and combining them to form insights into the child's psyche (Thomas & Jolley, 1998; Wimmer, 2014). In this regard, drawing interpretation is intended to do more than answer whether the drawing is appropriate for the chronological age of the child. Contrarily, it analyzes the child's style through the drawing tools, object selection and spatial distributions on the page and with some questions such as why the child chooses to draw in this way, why he chooses specific colors, etc. (Wimmer, 2014). The first step in such an analysis involves looking into graphic characteristics such as the intensity of pressure applied to the drawing tool, the location and size of elements on the page and the type of line produced (Wimmer, 2014). Simultaneously with the onset of symbolic thinking, the pictures of children from the age of three to four begin to include information on the subjective representations of their own lives (Bombi, Pinto & Cannoni, 2007). As the child begins to organize and plan in his/her

drawings, the positioning of the family members on the page is not random but contains symbolic information. The differences in the relational structure of the family and the integrity of the family are reflected in the family drawings of the children (Cherney, Seiwert, Dickey & Flichtbeil, 2006). Studies have shown that individuals' spatial closeness on paper is related to closeness in relationships. In addition, it is seen that they can scale in appropriate order among family members and tend to draw threatening and emotionally problematic individuals smaller. On the other hand, it was seen that children who had problems in family relations did not want to draw their families or produced limited pictures without some family members (Burkitt et al., 2003; Cherney, et al., 2006; Cox & Moore, 1994; Dunn O'Connor & Levy, 2002; Trawick Swith, 2013). The second step in an analysis involves a comparative developmental assessment. In other words, it includes comparing a child's drawings with those of his/her peers. For example, a human figure typical of three year-olds' drawings is different than five year-olds' (Wimmer, 2014). A child is expected to draw in an age appropriate way. Interpreting children's drawings without an understanding of how children draw at various age levels leaves the person who interprets vulnerable to misinterpretation. When interpreting children's drawings, the emphasis would be not on what the child drew, but on how he drew it. Since drawing analysis relies on developmental psychology theories, expected children of the same age to draw similar elements. On the other hand, assessing a child's his/her own individual developmental sequence is more important than comparing him/her with other children (Wimmer, 2014). Besides age, some other factors to be taken into account in comparative developmental assessment are gender of the children, their drawing ability, the type of topic which children drew, the exact terms used to provide a positive emotional characterization, the drawing materials used, and children's educational background (Burkitt et al., 2003). The third step is related to the color selection and the way they are combined. The meanings of colors are multiple and diverse in children's world and color choice is related to color preference. When a child likes a certain color, he/she tends to use it in most of his/her drawings. In this case, children vary their use of colors both in relation to their preference for certain colors and the emotional character of the figure they draw. According to Wimmer (2014), colors in children's drawings are often directly related to detecting their talents and strengths. There are some short steps in understanding the meaning of colors in children's drawings. For example, excessive use of a certain color should, in most cases, be interpreted in terms of the negative emotional qualities of that color. Balanced use of a certain color usually indicates its positive emotional qualities. The location is also important. A child draws differently at home than at kindergarten, whether he/ she uses different colors when drawing at his/her grandparents' house. In this regard, it is difficult to try to make

sense of the colors that children use. When the child wants to paint someone he/she loves, he/she will choose the color he/she loves and uses it enthusiastically (Güngör, Köksal Akyol, Subaşı, Ünver, & Koç, 2002; Yavuzer, 2007).

1.1. Factors affecting children's drawings

For many years, children's drawings were evaluated in terms of matching normative standards, but studies conducted over the past five decades showed that drawings express the children's inner worlds, and not only their technical ability. They provide significant information that helps parents make various decisions about their educational approach and improve family relations, the child's social relations, and more (Wimmer, 2014). Individual developmental characteristics as well as family and environmental factors affect children's drawings. Physical, social, emotional, perceptual and cognitive factors of the child also affect artistic expressions in the progress of the child development as a whole (Güngör, et al., 2002). In addition, the cultural structure of the society in which the child is living, the value given to religion and art are also influential elements in the child's drawings. In other words, drawings have been used for the assessment of personality, self-concept, relation to the family, values and attitudes in general (Kılınç, 2014).

1.1.1. Cognitive and motor processes

The majority of research on children's drawings has focused mainly on the variety of cognitive and motor processes involved. Rather than being simple outputs of children's mental states and representations, children's drawings include a variety of cognitive and motor processes and skills that the child plans and practices drawing. Furthermore, it has been shown that many of the interesting distortions that can be available in children's drawings (e.g. the presence of enlarged heads) have been indicated as the result of limitations in cognitive planning and motor practice rather than expressions of children's emotional state or personality (Burkitt et al., 2003). However, recent research has suggested that regardless of the role of cognitive and motor processes and skills, it can be said that the emotional state of the child may have an impact on the size of the drawing (Fava, 2014; Yavuzer, 2007).

1.1.2. Intelligence and personality factors

The drawing activity which emerges as an expression of the child's understanding, talent and the power of creation draws attention as an indicator of children's personality and cognitive development which is related to the development of a number of mental and motor functions of the child such as perception, attention, fine and coarse muscle development, eye-hand coordination (Yavuzer, 2007). More meaningful

and detailed figures are expected from the child who started scrabble activities in parallel with the advancing age. The absence of these figures means that the child maintains an activity below his or her age level. Intellectually superior children' ability of drawing good pictures was found higher than the ability of intellectually inferior children (Fava, 2014). The picture of an intellectually inferior child shows a complete lack of foresight and planning. The child can fit only one organ of the body into the existing space and neglects the key elements such as the mouth, hair and feet that a child with normal intelligence might have in mind (Yavuzer, 2007).

1.1.3. Socioeconomic status of families

Research in many societies has shown that children who grow up in socioeconomically poor environments generally have low academic achievement (Engle & Black, 2008). Because, inadequate environmental conditions do not provide sufficient support to the child's developmental stages (Perry & Szalavitz, 2006). Children who grow up in low-income areas often suffer from many negative factors. Socio-economic level, which is generally determined by parents' occupational and educational level, is also related to the thoughts and behaviors of parents regarding the upbringing and education of their children. It is seen that the parents at the upper socio-economic level have attitudes and thoughts that positively affect the child's development compared to the parents at the lower socio-economic level (Malchiodi, 2005). Children's drawings give us information about their lives, their culture and their choice of figures. Family is very important for the child and the child spontaneously uses family members in his/her drawings. One way to understand their life and the environment they live in is to watch their drawings. By looking at the pictures made by children, it is possible to figure out the communication patterns, sociocultural effects and behavioral problems of family members. In other words, drawing reveals the connections between cultural interaction and the identity of the child (Güngör, et al., 2002).

1.1.4. Peer interaction

Children also learn drawing from observing other children's drawing and being observed, talking and listening to other children, and teaching and sharing their skills and knowledge with each other (Thompson, 2002). This type of interactive learning is inevitable and effective. On the other hand, ritual interactions between children and teachers help children construct and internalize meanings and cultural value about drawing. For instance, after looking at the teacher's demonstration, children need to "decide whether they will transform their own actions to match the teacher's technique". That is, whether they will follow (Tarr, 2003, 25).

1.2. Purpose and Importance of the Research

This study can shed light on the importance of preschool teachers' competences on interpreting children's drawings. Drawings have been marginalized in the assessment field and have long been used as an assessment tool to understand children's mental and emotional status (Silver, 2001). Although the study of children drawings has been mainly conducted for educational reasons, besides aesthetic and clinical reasons, interpreting children's drawings is not dealt with at a desired level at university education. In this case, preschool teachers have felt inadequate themselves for this subject both in their education lives and during their careers. However, children's drawings and interpretation of them are parts of the work of preschool teachers and they are expected to understand what preschoolers are telling through their pictures. Therefore, the main framework of this study includes preschool teachers and preservice preschool teachers' competence on interpreting children's drawings. Although different studies have been conducted to evaluate children's drawings or teachers' views on drawing ability of children in different contexts, no studies on the competence of preschool teachers and preservice preschool teachers to interpret children's drawings take place in the literature. Therefore, this study will also shed light on being a pioneer study.

The main purpose of this study is to determine preschool teachers and preservice preschool teachers' competence on interpreting children's pictures and to reveal factors affecting children's drawings. In addition, some sub-aims of the study are as follows:

1. to determine preschool teachers and preservice preschool teachers' competence on interpreting children's drawings in terms of various variables (age and grade level for preservice preschool teachers and age and teaching experience for preschool teachers).
2. to determine the factors affecting children's drawings in terms of various variables.
3. to reveal the participants' views on their competence on interpreting children's drawings.

2. Method

Both quantitative and qualitative research methods were employed in this study. In the quantitative part, a descriptive research, which is convenience for a researcher to obtain the participants' opinions easily (Polit & Beck 2004), was utilized. In the qualitative part of the study, a case study that includes inquiry of a phenomenon or some factors such as environment, individuals, events, etc. in depth was used (Yin,2009).

2.1. Participants

The participants of the study consisted of 25 preschool teachers (all female) working in preschool institutions of a province in the Central Anatolia Region and 112 sophomore, junior and senior preservice preschool teachers (84 females and 28 males) attending Education Faculty of a state university located in this province during 2018-2019 academic year.

The participants of the qualitative part of the study were 22 preservice preschool teachers (17 females and 5 males) and 14 preschool teachers (all females) who want to be involved in the qualitative part of study on a voluntary basis and chosen from the same sample of the study.

2.2. Data Collection Tools

A twenty item questionnaire in order to relieve the competence of preschool teachers and preservice preschool teachers in terms of interpreting children's drawings and the factors affecting children's drawings was developed in the light of review of literature and experts (2 Associate Professor of preschool education, 2Assistant Professors of art education, 2 preschool teachers and 1 Turkish teacher). The instrument contained the sub-dimensions of Self efficacy in interpreting children pictures (11 items) and, Factors affecting children's drawings (9 items). Content validity ratios (CVRs) of the items are presented in Table1.

Table 1. Content Validity Ratios (CVR) of Questionnaire Items

Sub-scales	Item Num		N _N	CVR	CVI
Self efficacy in interpreting children pictures	1	I understand whether a child is drawing a picture that is appropriate for his/her development level and age	15	1.00	0.84
	2	I believe that drawing pictures is a way for a child to express himself/herself	14	0.86	
	3	I have knowledge about the tests used to interpret children's drawings	14	0.86	
	4	I've tried to interpret a child's drawings before	14	0.86	
	5	I can learn about a child without knowing him/her, just by looking at the pictures he/she draws.	13	0.73	
	8	I disapprove of commenting on a single picture	14	0.86	
	9	I believe that drawing pictures can be a diagnostic tool	13	0.73	
	10	I care about the child's telling the picture he/she has drawn	15	1.00	
	12	The fact that a child uses too much eraser in his/her drawings is an issue that I have to focus on	13	0.73	
	13	I disapprove of directing children when they are drawing pictures	14	0.86	
	14	I have knowledge about large objects and figures drawn in pictures by children	13	0.73	
Factors affecting children's drawings	6	Children are influenced by what they care about and draw their pictures	14	0.86	0.85
	7	Children reflect their emotions on their pictures	15	1.00	
	11	Children reflect their mental state to the pictures they draw through the colors they use	15	1.00	
	15	Gender of children affects the pictures they draw	14	0.86	
	16	That parents' and teachers' forcing children to draw pictures affects their pictures	14	0.86	
	17	There is a difference between the pictures drawn by the child watching television and the child not watching	13	0.73	
	18	Hanging pictures of children on a wall has a positive effect on them	13	0.73	
	19	Criticizing children's pictures positively motivates them	13	0.73	
	20	A child's adoption of drawing as a game is effective in his/her liking to draw pictures	14	0.86	
		Number of Expert: 15		NR: The number of expert to say Required	
	Content Validity Ratio (CVR): 0.49 Content Validity Index(CVI): 0.842 [(0.84>0.49) CVI> CVR]				

Content Validity Ratios (CVR), which were developed by Lawshe (1975) (as cited in Yurdugül, 2005, 2), are predictive factors for the content or construct validity of the measuring instrument. Through expert opinions (N = 15), each questionnaire items of the study was evaluated with regard to whether they measure the targeted structure, or despite being related to the structure, whether they are unneeded. To test the statistical significance of the CVRs, the content validity criteria table created by Veneziano and Hooper (1997) was used. The comparison of this value (0.49) with the calculated Content Validity Index (0.84) of the items was made. In this regard, the questionnaire was found to be statistically significant [(0.84>0.49) CVI> CVR].

Data collection tools of the qualitative part of the study were Interview Form for Teachers and Interview Form for Students prepared by the researchers in the light of the literature and expert opinions (1 Associate Professor and 2 assistant professors in the field of Educational Sciences, 1 assistant professor in art education, 1 Turkish teacher and 1 preschool teacher). Some of the questions asked to the participants in order to reveal their competence for examining and interpreting children's pictures and some factors affecting children's painting are as follows:

1. How do you evaluate the contribution of education given at university to your understanding and interpreting of children's drawings?

- Do you think that the importance of interpreting children's drawings is mentioned enough in university education for preservice preschool teachers?*

- Do you think that examining the pictures drawn by preschoolers at university education will be useful for preservice preschool teachers to gain experience for their future career?*

2. How do you evaluate yourself in understanding and interpreting children's drawings?

- Do you think you are sufficiently knowledgeable about it?*

- What do you need to do to improve yourself in this regard?*

- Do you believe that you need special training from an expert or can be gained through experience?*

- What do you think about the qualifications of teachers to interpret the drawings of preschoolers?*

3. Do you know how to proceed when you encounter problems in interpreting drawings in preschool?

- Do you know about factors affecting children's drawings in preschool era?*

• *What characteristics of teachers may help the emergence of an existing problem of preschoolers?*

4. *What do you think should be done to support preschool teachers' and preservice preschool teachers' interpreting children's drawings?*

2.3. Data Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using frequencies, percentages and arithmetic mean. The chi-square test was used to determine the relationship between variables and questionnaire items.

In the qualitative part of the study, each participant's response was coded as P1-SO/JU/ SE/ T-M / F (P: Participant; 1: Participant No; SO: Sophomore /JU: Junior/ SE: Senior/ T: Teacher; M: Male / F: Female) and then codes and themes were created through content analysis. The emerging themes were: Expectations from preschool education, Improving personal development, Things to do in case of problems and, Suggestions for interpreting children's drawings.

3. Findings

The distribution of the participants of the study is given in Table 2.

The distribution of the data given in Table 2 indicated that while 75.0% of the preservice preschool teachers were female, 25.0 % of them were male. In addition, the participants of the preschool teachers were all female. While 85.7% of the participants who were preservice preschool teachers were in the age range of 19-25, 9.8% were in the range of 26-30 age group, 2.7% were in the 31-35 age group and 1.8 % were in the 36-40 age group. On the other hand, 28.0% of the participants who were preschool teachers were in the range of 19 -25, 48.0% of them were in the range of 26-30 age group, 16.0% of them were in the 36-40 age group and, 8.0% of them were in the 36-40 age group. Of the participants who were preservice preschool teachers, 20.5 % were second grade students, 56.3 were third grade students and, 23.2 were fourth grade students.

Table 2. Distributions of the participants in the Study According to the Variables

	STUDENTS		TEACHERS		
	N	f	N	f	
Gender	Male	28	25.0	-	-
	Female	84	75.0	25	100
Age	19-25	96	85.7	7	28.0
	26-30	11	9.8	12	48.0
	31-35	3	2.7	4	16.0
	36-40	2	1.8	2	8.0
	41 and above	-	-	-	-
Grade Level	Sophomore	23	20.5		
	Junior	63	56.3		
	Senior	26	23.2		
The institution the participant teachers work	nursery class			2	8.0
	nursery school			9	36.0
	kindergarten			14	56.0
Teaching Experience of the preschool teachers	1-5			16	64.0
	6-10			7	28.0
	11 and above			2	8.0
Total	112	100	25	100	

As for the teacher participants represented in Table 2, 8.0% have been working in nursery classes, 36.0% in nursery schools and, 56.0 % in kindergartens. Furthermore, of the teacher participants, 64.0% have had 1-5 years of teaching experience, 28.0% have had 6-10 years of teaching experience and 8.0% have had 11 and more than 11 years teaching experience.

The arithmetic mean (\bar{X}) and standard deviation (SD) values of each item were examined and given in Table 5 (See. Appendix 1) to determine their self-efficacy in interpreting children's pictures and factors affecting children's drawings. The data obtained from the students have revealed that while the items with the highest average are: "I believe that drawing pictures is a way for a child to express himself/herself" ($Mean= 3.69; SD= .59$) and "I disapprove of commenting on a single picture" ($Mean= 3.69; SD= .58$), the items with the lowest average are: "I have knowledge about the tests used to interpret children's drawings" ($Mean= 2.05; SD= .96$), "I've tried to interpret a child's drawings before" ($Mean= 2.08; SD= 1.01$) and "I can learn about a child without knowing him/her, just by looking at the pictures he/she draws." ($Mean= 2.09; SD= .92$).

According to the data obtained from the teachers, while the items with the highest average are: "Gender of children affects the pictures they draw" ($Mean= 3.96; SD= .20$), "A child's adoption of drawing as a game is effective in his/her liking to draw pictures" ($Mean= 3.96; SD= .20$), "Children reflect their emotions on their pictures" ($Mean= 3.92; SD= .28$) and, "I disapprove of directing children when they are drawing pictures" ($Mean= 3.92; SD= .28$), the items with the lowest average are: "I have knowledge about the tests used to interpret children's drawings" ($Mean= 2.32; SD= .1.06$) and "I've tried to interpret a child's drawings before" ($Mean= 3.40; SD= .82$).

On the other hand, this study included the results regarding "Self efficacy in interpreting children drawings" and "Factors affecting children's drawings" and they were presented separately according to the items. Distribution of the items regarding "Self efficacy in interpreting children drawings" in terms of students' age and grade level and teachers' age and teaching experience is given in Table 3.

In Table 3, no statistically significant differences were observed between all the items related to Self-efficacy in interpreting children drawings and age and grade level variables of the students. When examining the teachers' views on the third item, namely, *I have knowledge about the tests used to interpret children's drawings* regarding the age variable, there was a significant difference between the groups. While 20% of the teachers who marked the option "always" were in the age group 19-25, the teachers in other age groups (80%) marked the option "none". This shows that the teachers in the 19-25 age group have more knowledge about the tests used to interpret children's drawings than those in other age groups. There was a significant difference between the item five, namely, *I can learn about a child without knowing him/her, just by looking at the pictures he/she draws* and age variable of the teachers. While the teachers in the 19-25 age group (12%) marked the option "always", those in the other age groups did not. This result indicates that the teachers in the 19-

25 age group are more interested in children’s drawings than those in the other age groups.

Table 3. Distribution of the Items Regarding “Self-Efficacy in Interpreting Children Drawings” in Terms of Students’ Age and Grade Level and Teachers’ Age and Teaching Experience

Variables	S T U D E N T S				T E A C H E R S			
	Age		Grade level		Age		Teaching Experience	
	X ²	P	X ²	P	X ²	P	X ²	P
1. I understand whether a child is drawing a picture that is appropriate for his/her development level and age	10.6	.29	10.8	.09	2.11	.55	3.27	.19
2. I believe that drawing pictures is a way for a child to express himself/herself	3.73	.71	7.64	.11	1.97	.57	.48	.78
3. I have knowledge about the tests used to interpret children's drawings	8.45	.48	8.00	.23	16.0*	.04	16.3*	.02
4. I've tried to interpret a child's drawings before	2.57	.97	9.87	.13	4.66	.58	4.64	.32
5. I can learn about a child without knowing him/her, just by looking at the pictures he/she draws.	10.6	.29	8.20	.22	13.0*	.03	2.31	.67
8. I disapprove of commenting on a single picture	5.97	.42	3.05	.54	5.20	.16	.84	.65
9. I believe that drawing pictures can be a diagnostic tool	3.17	.04	3.10	.79	4.03	.67	2.71	.61
10. I care about the child’s telling the picture he/she has drawn	4.78	.57	3.79	.43	5.09	.17	4.44	.11
12. The fact that a child uses too much eraser in his/her drawings is an issue that I have to focus on	7.39	.59	2.89	.82	6.82	.11	10.3*	.04
13. I disapprove of directing children when they are drawing pictures	4.38	.62	4.36	.36	6.56	.14	1.22	.54
14. I have knowledge about large objects and figures drawn in pictures by children	7.77	.56	3.20	.71	5.75	.13	1.82	.39

*p<0,05

The results regarding teaching experience variable given in Table 3 showed that there was a significant difference between the third item, *I have knowledge about the tests used to interpret children's drawings*, and the twelfth item, *The fact that a child uses too much eraser in his/her drawings is an issue that I have to focus on*, and teaching experience

variable. The teachers choosing the option “always” for the both items were the ones who have had teaching experience of 1-5 years. It can be inferred from the results that the teachers who are at the beginning of their teaching experience are more interested in children's drawings than their other counterparts. Distribution of the items regarding “Factors affecting children’s drawings” in terms of students’ age and grade level and teachers’ age and teaching experience is given in Table 4.

Table 4. Distribution of the Items Regarding “Factors Affecting Children’s Drawings” in Terms of Students’ Age and Grade Level and Teachers’ Age and Teaching Experience

Variables <i>Factors affecting children's drawings</i>	STUDENTS				TEACHERS			
	Age		Grade level		Age		Teaching Experience	
	X ²	P	X ²	P	X ²	P	X ²	P
6. Children are influenced by what they care about and draw their pictures	10.1	.33	5.27	.50	6.01	.11	1.03	.59
7. Children reflect their emotions on their pictures	2.17	.98	5.49	.48	2.35	.50	.61	.73
11. Children reflect their mental state to the pictures they draw through the colors they use	5.49	.48	6.33	.17	8.37	.21	3.99	.40
15. Gender of children affects the pictures they draw	1.46	.96	.64	.95	1.12	.77	2.67	.26
16. That parents' and teachers' forcing children to draw pictures affects their pictures	6.21	.40	3.67	.45	5.42	.14	3.14	.21
17. There is a difference between the pictures drawn by the child watching television and the child not watching	21.0*	.03	3.39	.62	7.63	.26	3.82	.43
18. Hanging pictures of children on a wall has a positive effect on them	14.0 1	.12	4.87	.55	14.9 *	.02	3.77	.44
19. Criticizing children's pictures positively motivates them	11.7 7	.67	7.30	.12	2.02	.56	1.21	.54
20. A child's adoption of drawing as a game is effective in his/her liking to draw pictures	6.16	.40	6.65	.15	5.46	.14	.58	.74

*p<0,05

As given in Table 4, a significant difference was observed between the item 17, *There is a difference between the pictures drawn by the child watching television and the child not watching*, and age variable. While the percent of the students in the 19-25 age group marking the option “always” was 55%, only 5 % of the students were in other age groups (1.72 % of them in 26-30, 2.39 % of them in 31-35 and, .89% of them in 36 and older). This result indicates that the students in the 19-25 age group agree the difference between the pictures drawn by the child watching television and the child not watching more than those in other age groups. On the other hand, there were no significant differences between the grade level variable and all the items related to factors affecting children’s drawings.

From the teachers’ perspective, while there were no statistically significant differences between all the items related to factors affecting children’s drawings and teaching experience variable, a significant difference was observed between the item 18, *Hanging pictures of children on a wall has a positive effect on them*, and age variable. The teachers in the 26-30 age group (44%) agreed the positive effect of hanging children’s pictures on a wall more than those in other age group by marking the option “always”.

In qualitative findings of the research, data obtained from the views of the preschool teachers (N = 14; all females) and the preservice preschool teachers (N = 22; 17 females and 5 males) on their competence for examining and interpreting children's drawings were collected through semi-structured interviews. When the answers of the questions *How do you evaluate the contribution of education given at university to your understanding and interpreting of children's drawings? Do you think that the importance of interpreting children's drawings is mentioned enough in university education for preservice preschool teachers? Do you think that examining the pictures drawn by preschoolers at university education will be useful for preservice preschool teachers to gain experience for their future career? How do you evaluate yourself in understanding and interpreting children's drawings? Do you think you are sufficiently knowledgeable about it? What do you need to do to improve yourself in this regard? Do you believe that you need special training from an expert or can be gained through experience? What do you think about the qualifications of teachers to interpret the drawings of preschoolers?* were analyzed, the themes “Expectations from preschool education regarding children’s drawings” and “Improving personal development “emerged. From the views of the participants regarding the questions *Do you know how to proceed when you encounter problems in interpreting drawings in preschool? Do you know about factors affecting children's painting in preschool era? What characteristics of teachers may help the emergence of an existing problem of preschoolers? What do you think should be done*

to support preschool teachers' and preservice preschool teachers' interpreting children's drawings? the themes "Things to do in case of problems" and "Suggestions for interpreting children's drawings" emerged.

3.1. Expectations from preschool education regarding children's drawings

With the analysis of the data obtained from the views of the participants, the codes related to the theme "expectations from preschool education regarding children's drawings" were: *increasing practical activities in practice schools, strengthening the theoretical base, teaching how to interpret children's drawings, giving Visual Arts course as preschool field oriented*. The views of some participants on expectations from preschool education regarding children's drawings are given below:

If school practices are more heavily involved, we become more intimate with children's activities and recognize their world earlier. P17-JU-F.

I think it is necessary to have knowledge about interpretation of children's pictures in the content of theoretical courses given at universities P9-T-F.

I do not think that Visual Arts course contributes too much to me since it is not related to my field of education. It will be more effective if it is given considering the age and characteristics of the students who will be interested in the field and the future tasks. P15-SE-M.

I think that some of the clues about the drawings and colors used in the pictures of preschoolers should be taught to us at university P32-SO-F.

Visual Arts course is seen as a simple lesson and neglected by preservice teachers. Whereas, we give more importance if it contains useful information about our field instead of including general information. P20-JU-F.

No training in drawing interpretation was provided to us but it should have been. P13-T-F.

3.2. Improving personal development

The codes emerging from the views of the participants regarding the improving personal development were *collaboration with art teachers, developing drawing skills, learning the meanings of simple drawings in preschool age, reading books related to children drawings and their interpretation, attending seminars, taking courses from experts in the field and, attending in-service courses*. Some direct quotations of the participants regarding these codes are given below:

I'm just a year's teacher and so I haven't done anything yet, but since I know that pictures are a mirror of psychology, I want to learn the meaning of each line drawn by my students. P1-T-F.

I think that I should learn to interpret the drawings and colors used by preschoolers. I am planning about reading books and taking courses to improve myself. P29-SE-F.

I usually do internet searches and read books related to drawing analysis, and I continue to read them to be helpful for my students. P4-T-F.

To improve myself on this topic, I can read books and participate in appropriate seminars, if any. P31-SO-M.

I have read published books on analysis of children's drawings. I follow training seminars on this subject and would like to participate. P9-T-F.

I think, I need to attend in-service courses, get information from experts in their fields. P15-SE-M.

3.3. Things to do in case of problems

Some codes related to this theme were *research, family contact, help from school counselor, doing research on the internet or through articles, careful observation, getting support from a child psychologist and getting help from experts.* The views of some participants related to these codes are given below:

If I have interpreted a picture and think that there is a problem, I will contact the family, follow the child's life more closely and try to find out what can happen. P13-T-F.

If I am inadequate to interpret, I ask the school counselor for help and try to find solutions to the problem through various research methods. P22-JU-F.

I get help from the school counselor and do research on the internet or through articles. P30-SO-F.

I try to catch clues by observing the child drawing the picture more carefully. P3-T-F.

I think I can get support from a child psychologist. P26-JU-F.

First of all, I have the child interpret the pictures he/she drawn, and after the observation, I contact a school counselor and follow a path with his/her help. P32-SO-F.

3.4. Suggestions for interpreting children's drawings

The codes gathered under this theme were *more emphasis on interpretation of children drawings, more emphasis on this subject in psychology course, organizing conferences, in service training, respect for children, tools and video based lessons and, career training in knowing the meaning of colors and shapes*. Some views of the participants are as follows:

My advice is to teach more effectively and efficiently at the university and then to educate teachers themselves well. In preschool education departments, more attention should be paid to interpreting pictures or more knowledge related to this subject should be included in psychology course. P5-T-F.

I recommend that a little more emphasis be placed on visual arts and interpretation of drawings in preschool education departments and more detailed education be given to preservice preschool teachers on this subject and various conferences be organized to inform preservice teachers. P19-JU-M.

I would recommend that the content of the practical courses in the faculties of education be examined and arranged in more detail, and interpretation of children's pictures be compulsory to be included in any course content. P35-SE-F.

The children's inner world is very complicated. Their interpretation of the world is quite different from that of us. They are very successful in expressing their feelings and thoughts with colors. Therefore, we should listen to them, try to understand them from their paintings and respect them. P2-T-F.

There should be more tools- and video-based lessons on the subject. P22-JU-F.

In particular, I think that experts should give lectures about children's paintings at university. P28-JU-F.

I recommend that preservice preschool teachers be trained in interpreting pictures and knowing the meaning of colors and shapes in their university education. P8-T-F.

4. Discussion

Comprehensive results were reached in this study as a result of both quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data obtained in order to determine preservice preschool teachers' and preschool teachers' self-efficacy in interpreting children's drawings and factors affecting children's drawings. First, self-efficacy of the participants in interpreting children's pictures and factors affecting children's drawings were examined in terms

of various variables (age and grade level for preservice preschool teachers; age and, teaching experience for preschool teachers). Then, in line with the views of the participants on their competence on interpretation of children's drawings, the qualitative results of the study were obtained through semi-structured interviews. In general, the findings revealed that both the preschool teachers and preservice preschool teachers have low self-efficacy in interpreting children's drawings. Related to this result, the point to be emphasized is that interpreting children's drawings requires special expertise. In this sense, preschool teachers and primary art teachers need to specialize in interpreting drawings of children. Without providing special training on this subject, it is an expected result. Therefore, in education faculties appropriate academicians equipped with knowledge about interpreting children's drawings are expected to educate preservice teachers (Üstün Memiş, 2014). As a matter of fact, one of the attitudes and qualities of teachers suggested in art activities is being aware of his / her own deficiencies stemming from their low level of competence and raising their competency level through overcoming the problems (Artut, 2004). Dilmaç and İnanç (2015), who tried to determine self-efficacy of teachers towards visual arts education in their research, concluded that teachers had low level of self-efficacy and undecided opinion regarding teaching methods and evaluation process in the visual arts course. A study conducted by Lindsay (2016) revealed that teachers' knowledge on the evaluation of drawings of children was limited. However, a teacher does not need to be an artist in order to make a healthy assessment of children's drawing activities, but he/she needs to develop an artistic way of thinking (Fox & Schirmaher, 2014).

When preservice preschool teachers' self-efficacy in interpreting children drawings was examined, no statistically significant differences were observed between their self-efficacy and both age and grade variables. The sophomore, junior and senior preservice preschool teachers who are the participants of the study had the same level of self-efficacy. In this sense, according to Bilir Seyhan and Ocağ Karabay (2018), preservice preschool teachers graduate without enough skills related to art education and encounter problems in doing art activities to preschoolers in their professional lives as well. When preschool teachers' self-efficacy in interpreting children drawings was examined in terms of age variable, a significant difference was observed in favor of the age range of 19-25 and the item *I have knowledge about the tests used to interpret children's drawings* and the item *I can learn about a child without knowing him/her, just by looking at the pictures he/she draws*. These results indicate that the teachers in the 19-25 age group are more knowledgeable about the tests used to interpret children's drawings and more interested in children's drawings than those in other age groups. Üstün Memiş (2014) has suggested that necessary information about children's socio-cultural

environment, life and emotions can be obtained through tests such as The Machover Draw-a-Person test, The Silver Drawing test, The Kinetic Family Drawing test, The House-Tree-Person test, and The Goodenough-Harris Draw a Man test by preschool teachers and elementary art teachers. Therefore, preschool teachers and elementary art teachers are expected to receive adequate training to use these tests as assessment aids. The results regarding teaching experience variable showed that there was a significant difference between the items, *I have knowledge about the tests used to interpret children's drawings*, and *The fact that a child uses too much eraser in his/her drawings is an issue that I have to focus on*, and teaching experience variable. This result is consistent with the result of age variable. The teachers who are at the beginning of their teaching experience are more interested in children's drawings than their other counterparts.

Regarding the results of the factors affecting children's drawings, a significant difference was observed between the item *There is a difference between the pictures drawn by the child watching television and the child not watching*, and age variable of preservice preschool teachers. This result indicates that the students in the 19-25 age group agree the difference between the pictures drawn by the child watching television and the child not watching more than those in other age groups. Lillard and Peterson (2011) who conducted an experimental study on the impact of television on young children's executive function and found that children watching television performed remarkably worse on the executive function tasks than those in other groups. On the other hand, there were no significant differences between the grade level variable of preservice preschool teachers and all the items related to factors affecting children's drawings.

From the teachers' perspective, while no statistically significant differences were observed between all the items related to factors affecting children's drawings and teaching experience variable, there was a significant difference between the item *Hanging pictures of children on a wall has a positive effect on them*, and age variable. The teachers in the 26-30 age group agreed the positive effect of hanging children's pictures on a wall more than those in other age group. In the study conducted by Bilir Seyhan and Ocak Karabay (2018), the participants have stated that when hanging preschoolers' paintings on the wall, children become more motivated.

In the context of the qualitative aspect of the research, the competence of the participants for examining and interpreting children's drawings were questioned. When evaluating the overall results from the interpretation of the codes that emerged in line with the views of teachers and students, it is seen that required knowledge about interpretation of children's drawings is not provided at a desired level at university education. Therefore, both teachers and students feel insufficient in interpreting children's drawings.

Similarly, Üstün Memiş (2014) stressed the importance of specialization of preservice preschool teachers and painting teachers in interpreting pictures.

The themes emerging from the views of the participants were “Expectations from preschool education regarding children’s drawings”, “Improving personal development”, “Things to do in case of problems” and “Suggestions for interpreting children’s drawings”. The emerging codes under the theme of “Expectations from preschool education regarding children’s drawings” were “increasing practical activities in practice schools, strengthening the theoretical base, teaching how to interpret children’s drawings and, giving Visual Arts course as preschool field oriented. The common views of both teachers and students regarding this theme were related to given the knowledge of interpretation of children’s drawings to students in university education within a course the content of which includes both theoretical and practical knowledge by the experts or experienced academicians on this subject. As Wimmer (2014) has suggested interpreting children’s drawings requires systematic guidance and practice, relying on valid scientific knowledge and clear evidence, or indications in the drawings and it is only possible with special training.

In the theme “Improving personal development”, the codes obtained from the views of the participants were “collaboration with art teachers, developing drawing skills, learning the meanings of simple drawings in preschool age, reading books related to children drawings and their interpretation, attending seminars, taking courses from experts in the field and, attending in-service courses.” It is expected the education received by preschool teachers to be effective in their attitudes towards teaching through attending seminars or in-service trainings. However, the results of a study conducted by Bolattaş Gürbüz (2017) revealed that the preschool teachers who participated in-service training cannot use in-service trainings effectively for their professional development or classroom practices due to not receiving adequate training in these subjects. Therefore, given special knowledge on interpreting children’s drawings more comprehensively in university education and then supported it through in-service training would increase productivity.

The codes regarding the theme “Things to do in case of problems” were “research, family contact, help from school counselor, doing research on the internet or through articles, careful observation, getting support from a child psychologist and getting help from experts.” The study of children drawings has been mainly conducted for aesthetic, educational and clinical reasons to reveal emotional-expressive aspects of children's drawings since the late 19th century. Therefore, since then, there have been studies dealing with the analysis of personality traits of children through their drawings

within theoretical framework of psychoanalytic theory and its derivatives, dealing with classification of emotional indicators to be found in children's drawings and dealing with the way in which normal children display topics that they consider personally or emotionally important rather than personality assessment or clinical diagnosis (Farokhi & Hashemi, 2011). It's clear that interpretation of children's drawings can be handled in several dimensions. In this case, the best thing is to proceed and get help with which dimension we are interested in.

In the theme “Suggestions for interpreting children’s drawings”, the codes obtained from the views of the participants were “more emphasis on interpretation of children drawings, more emphasis on this subject in psychology course, organizing conferences, in service training, respect for children, tools and video based lessons and, career training in knowing the meaning of colors and shapes.” Similar recommendations such as holding seminars, in service training activities for preschool teachers and training preservice preschool teachers in terms of interpreting children’s drawings have observed in some studies related to children’s drawings as well (Bolattaş Gürbüz, 2017; Fava, 2014; Öveç, 2012; Üstün Memiş, 2014; Wimmer, 2014).

5. Conclusion and Suggestions

This study attempted to determine preservice preschool teachers’ and preschool teachers’ self-efficacy in interpreting children’s drawings and factors affecting children’s drawings. The findings obtained from the participants of this study have shown that required knowledge about interpretation of children’s drawings is not provided at a desired level at university education. Therefore, both the students and the teachers participating in the study feel inadequate themselves for this subject. Regarding the factors affecting children’s drawings, a meaningful difference was found between the item *There is a difference between the pictures drawn by the child watching television and the child not watching*, and age variable of preservice preschool teachers and *the item Hanging pictures of children on a wall has a positive effect on them* and age variable of preschool teachers.

In line with the findings it is suggested holding seminars and in-service training programs for preschool teachers to develop their competence of interpreting children’s drawings and to increase their awareness about the pictures drawn by preschoolers in their classrooms. For preservice preschool teachers, it is suggested that interpretation of children’s drawings be taught to preservice preschool teachers in university education within a course the content of which includes both theoretical and practical knowledge by the experts or experienced academicians on this subject.

Although some insights about interpreting children's drawings have been provided through the findings of the study, it is not sufficient to provide in-depth understandings due to limited sampling. Therefore, it is recommended that future researchers conduct large-scale and more comprehensive research.

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Appendix

Table 5. Arithmetic Mean Standard Deviation Frequency and Percent Values Obtained from Each Item

Item No	STUDENTS						TEACHERS					
	\bar{X}	SD	f	F	R	N	\bar{X}	SD	f %	F %	R %	N %
1	2.88	.69	17	68	23	4	3.88	.33	22	3		
			15.2	60.7	20.5	3.6			88.0	12.0	-	-
2	3.69	.59	86	18	8	-	3.84	.37	21	4	-	
			76.8	16.1	7.1				84.0	16.0		-
3	2.05	.96	10	24	40	38	2.32	1.06	3	10	4	8
			8.9	21.4	35.7	33.9			12.0	40.0	16.0	32.0
4	2.08	1.01	9	34	26	43	3.40	.82	15	5	5	
			8.0	30.4	23.2	38.4			60.0	20.0	20.0	-
5	2.09	.92	7	32	38	35	3.64	.70	19	3	3	
			6.3	28.6	33.9	31.3			76.0	12.0	12.0	-
6	3.29	.99	64	29	12	7	3.68	.48	17	8	-	
			57.1	25.9	10.7	6.3			68.0	32.0		-
7	3.49	.77	72	25	13	2	3.92	.28	23	2	-	-
			64.3	22.3	11.6	1.8			92.0	8.0		
8	3.69	.58	85	20	7	-	3.80	.41	20	5	-	-
			75.9	17.9	6.3				80.0	20.0		
9	2.79	1.02	33	38	25	16	3.68	.56	18	6	1	-
			29.5	33.9	22.3	14.3			72.0	24.0	4.0	
10	3.64	.63	81	22	9	-	3.76	.44	19	6	-	-
			72.3	19.6	8.0				76.0	24.0		
11	3.55	.66	72	30	10	-	3.56	.77	18	3	4	
			64.3	26.8	8.9				72.0	12.0	16.0	-
12	2.80	.94	32	34	38	8	3.56	.71	17	5	3	-
			28.6	30.4	33.9	7.1			68.0	20.0	12.0	
13	3.66	.62	83	20	9	-	3.92	.28	23	2	-	
			74.1	17.9	8.0				92.0	8.0		-

14	2.9 7	1.2 2	56 50.0	22 19.6	9 8.0	25 22.3	3.92	.28	23 92.0	2 8.0	-	-
15	3.2 1	.82	51 45.5	33 29.5	28 25.0	-	3.96	.20	24 96.0	1 4.0	-	-
16	3.6 8	.60	84 75.0	20 17.9	8 7.1	-	3.84	.37	21 84.0	4 16.0	-	-
17	3.4 2	.81	68 60.7	25 22.3	17 15.2	2 1.8	3.76	.52	20 80.0	4 16.0	1 4.0	-
18	3.5 4	.82	78 69.6	23 20.5	5 4.5	6 5.4	3.72	.54	19 76.0	5 20.0	1 4.0	-
19	3.6 8	.56	81 72.3	26 23.2	5 4.5	-	3.72	.46	18 72.0	7 28.0	-	-
20	3.6 7	.58	81 72.3	25 22.3	6 5.4	-	3.96	.20	24 96.0	1 4.0	-	-

THE VIEWS OF CANDIDATE TEACHERS ATTENDING TO PEDAGOGICAL FORMATION CERTIFICATE PROGRAM ABOUT “THE ETHICAL VALUES OF TEACHING PROFESSION”

Nuray Zan*-Burcu Umut ZAN*

Introduction

Education is a process which effects human beings throughout their lives. Teaching is a profession which is beyond conveying knowledge to the students, it also comprises the aim of giving insight about values to young generations. In other words, teachers are ideal individuals who are role models of what they teach (Pieper,1999,118). Not only conveying knowledge but also giving insights about positive behaviour patterns in an ethical framework is the objective of education (Karataş, 2013). In accordance with this, in the formal education process together with the nature of teaching profession there are ethical insights.

In the European Union Teacher Training Report, it is indicated that teaching profession should be Professional and teachers should be “Individuals who adopt occupational ethics” (YÖK, 2007). In this sense all the components of teacher training system should always be in an evaluation process and it should always be enhanced in terms of qualities and quantities necessary to have qualified teachers in the future (Baskan, Aydın ve Madden, 2006).

In this study, concepts about ethics and teaching profession ethics are used but these concepts are first taken into consideration and used within the framework of their definitions in literature.

Ethics: “A discipline of philosophy that deals with moral values” (Flew, 2005, 179), “Criterion of right and wrong” (Aydın, 2012, 6).

Ethics of Teaching Profession: “Principles and codes to be observed by the teachers while performing teaching profession and responsibilities to be fulfilled while interacting with the students, colleagues and society” (Şentürk, 2009, 27).

When the studies are analysed it is seen that there are plenty of researches about the Ethics of Teaching Profession. All these relevant studies are prepared on demographic variables (Altinkurt and Yılmaz, 2011; Ergin, 2014; Pelit and Güçer, 2005; Çelebi and Akbağ, 2012; Yılmaz and Altinkurt, 2009; Pelit and Güçer, 2006). However during the process

* (Doç.Dr.); Çankırı Karatekin Üniversitesi, Çankırı, Türkiye. E-mail: nurayyoruk@gmail.com

* (Doç.Dr.); Bartın Üniversitesi, Bartın, Türkiye. E-mail: burcumut@gmail.com

of Pedagogical Formation Certificate Program, there are no studies about how the views of candidate teachers about the ethics of their profession is formed.

2. Research Question

Within this content how the ideas of candidate teachers about the ethical values of their profession is described during the pedagogical formation certificate program is researched. Research questions about the study are given as follows;

- What are the ideas, attitudes and perspectives of candidate teachers about “teaching profession?”
- What are the ideas of candidate teachers about the ethical principles to be observed by the teachers in teacher-students interaction?
- What are the ideas of candidate teachers about the ethical principles of their profession expected by the society?

3. Methodology

This research is carried out by using qualitative method. Phenomenological design which is one of the qualitative designs is used in the research. Phenomenological design; is used to discover the experiences and perceptions of individuals about a case and the meanings they attach to these experiences and perceptions. Semi-structured interview technique is used in the research. In interviews open-ended questions are asked to the participants. Prior to asking the questions to the participants, a linguist, an area expert and a methodological expert for technical support were consulted and the questions were reviewed in accordance with their feedback. The interview questions were first asked to a pilot group and by this way the appropriateness of the order of questions, the way they were asked by the interviewer were evaluated together with whether the interviews were serving to the desired effect (Berg 1998). These pilot interviews were also carried out to evaluate whether the interviewees would complete the interviews and whether they understand the questions (Creswell, 2005). Before the interviews, written consents of the participants were taken and voice recording was done, then these recordings were analysed. Interviews were done by the researcher himself. The first credibility step of the study was the “consistency of the recorded interviews in the process of putting these down on paper” (Kvale, 1996). For this reason, decoded versions of the randomly chosen recordings (20% of all recordings) were given to a third person and the accuracy of analysed recordings were checked. Thus, the credibility and plausibility of the analysis were approved. The aim of the study is to reach to the concepts and relations which will clarify the data gathered from the interviews. To do this content analysis method was used. For the content analysis, NVivo11 programme was used. The data gathered needs to be deeply

analysed. Content analysis paves the way to reveal the previously unidentified themes and dimensions. Thereby, data gathered within the content of the research are combined with some similar concepts and themes and all these are organised in a framework for interpretation. After the data gathered from the interviews are verified, relevant statements and similar expressions are given in separate paragraphs. An area expert was consulted to verify whether the expressions were given in correct paragraphs in accordance with their similarities. Categories were formed after the content of the data was classified in terms of “similarity or difference” (Berg, 1998). When these paragraphs were categorised by the researcher, the same data was given to an area expert for coding and creating categories. Furthermore, codings of the researcher were compared with the codings of the area expert for credibility. Therefore “consensus and dissensus” between the experts were identified. At this point, credibility calculation of Miles and Huberman (1994) was used and the safety coefficient of the study was found as 0.80, indicating the study as credible. Following the coding activity of the researcher and area expert a consensus was achieved in all categories and data with similar expressions was grouped under headings. Thus these headings formed the basis to the themes and sub-themes of the research. The themes formed by the area expert, who carries out independent studies, and by the researcher were compared and again a consensus was achieved in contradicting points. By this way the final draft for the themes and sub-themes of the study was formed. In the final stage, an other area expert was consulted to check the themes and sub-themes and in accordance with his feedback some of the themes were combined and some of them were separated. Steps for the credibility of the study are summarized in the following Table 1.

Table 1: Credibility steps of the study

Credibility	Explanation
1. Credibility	Checking the accuracy of the coded voice recordings
2. Credibility	Sorting out the analysis into paragraphs as for their relevance. Asking an area expert to check the paragraphs.
3. Credibility	Categories within the paragraphs were formed and coded. An area expert was asked to do the coding. Consensus and dissensus between area expert and researcher in the codings were checked. An agreement was achieved in conflicting points and codings were rearranged. Calculating the safety coefficient formed by Miles and Huberman (1994)
4. Credibility	Another area expert was consulted whether to combine or separate the themes and sub-themes.

3.1 Population-Sampling

The study was carried out with 270 candidate teachers who were attending to Pedagogical Formation Certificate Program in the Fall term of 2016-2017 Academic year. Some of the participants had completed a graduate degree in the various departments of Faculty of Letters in Çankırı Karatekin University and some of them were about to complete their senior years. Maximum variation sampling method was used in forming the participant groups.

3.2 Data collection tools and data analysis

Data of the study was collected by using the semi-structured interview technique. Open-ended questions were asked to the participants in the interviews. Before asking the questions to the participants, ideas of a linguist, an area expert and a procedural expert were taken just to receive support. Nvivo11 program was used to analyse the collected data. Semi structured interview was done with the volunteer candidate teachers attending to the Pedagogic Formation Certificate Program based on the topic below:

“Behaviours of teachers; forms the ethical standards of teaching profession. Which behaviours can be described as the main criterion of teaching profession, What do you think?”

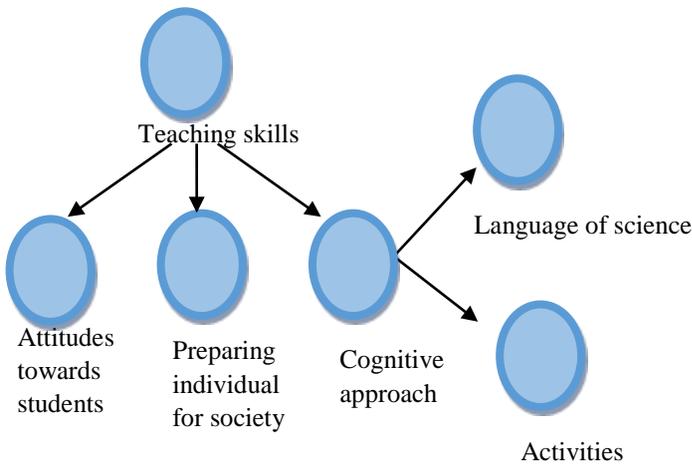
4. FINDINGS

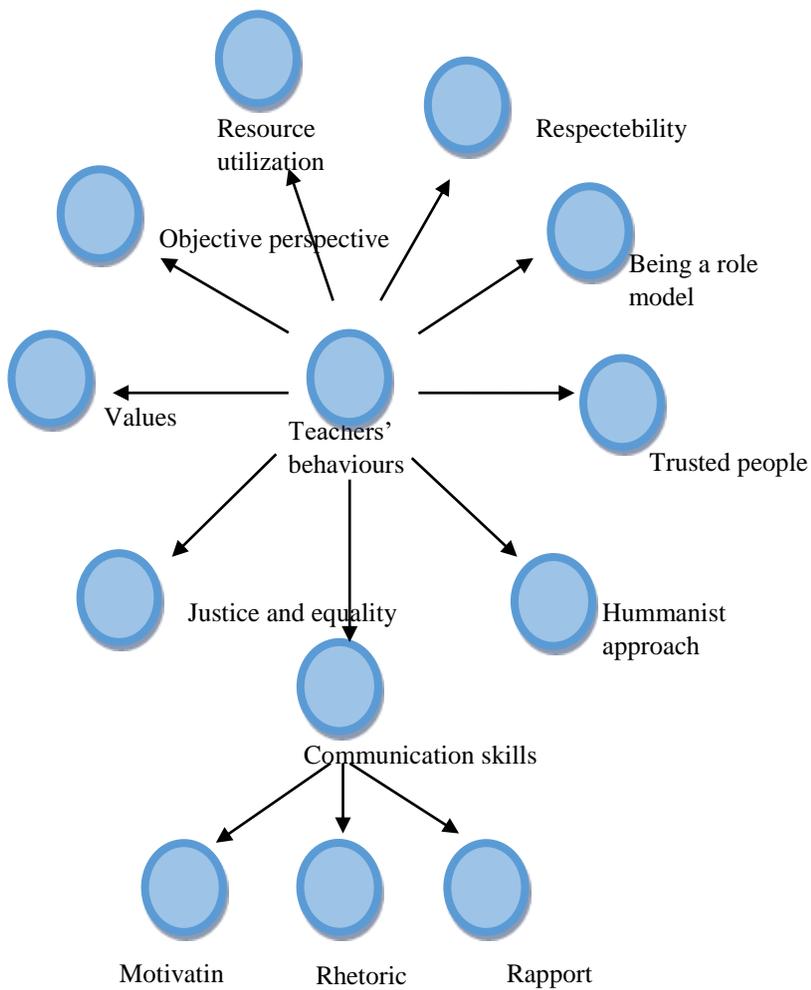
In this section, first the demographic information about the candidate teachers who participate in the study is given. 57,4% of the participants are female (n=155) and 42,6% of them are male (n=115). Participants who contributed to our study are between 21 and 25 years old. 1,85% of them are 21 years old, 36,3% of them are 22 years old, 32,2% of them are 23 years old, 22,96% of them are 24 years old and 6,67% of them are 25 years old. Some of the candidate teachers have graduated from the departments of Philosophy, Sociology, Turkish Language and Literature and Geography and some of them are in their senior years in these departments. In total 270 candidate teachers shared their views. Data about the genders and departments of the participants are given in Table 2.

Table 2: Genders and departmental information of the candidate teachers

Department	Gender	Number	Total	Percentage
Philosophy	Male	19	69	7,03
	Female	50		18,5
Sociology	Male	8	31	2,96
	Female	23		8,52
Turkish Language and Literature	Male	8	32	2,96
	Female	24		8,89
History	Male	42	77	15,56
	Female	35		12,96
Geography	Male	38	61	14,07
	Female	23		8,52
Total		270	270	100

In this section of the study, answers of the candidate teachers to the semi-structured interview questions were recorded to a voice recording device. Then these recordings were analysed and converted into a text format. After these text documents were read by area experts, they were categorised in the light of literature. At this point the answers of the candidate teachers in the semi-structured interviews formed the following following four major themes: “Classroom Manners”, ”Teacher’s Behaviour”, ”Professional Awareness” and “Teaching Skills”. The main and sub-themes of the study are given in Figure-1.





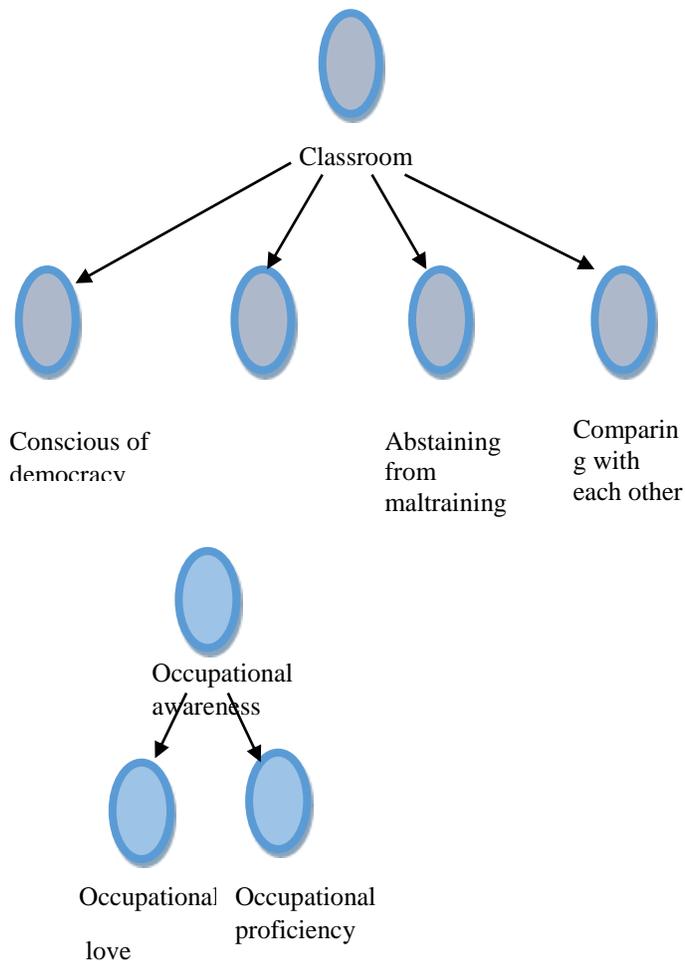


Figure-1: Main and sub-themes formed during the interviews

The main themes were divided into sub-themes in accordance with the views of the candidate teachers.

Classroom manners were divided into sub-themes like; the conscious of democracy, providing personal benefits and abstaining from maltreatment. The relevant explanations were evaluated within these sub-themes. The main theme of teaching skills was divided into sub-themes like; the attitudes towards students, preparing the individual for the society, cognitive approach, activities and the language of science. Occupational love, occupational proficiency and development formed the sub-themes of ideas about occupational awareness. In terms of teacher behaviours the

ideas of candidate teachers about justice, equality, values, objective perspective, resource utilization, communication skills, humanist approach, trusted people, being a role-model and respectability were taken. In accordance with the ideas of candidate teachers, communication skills were categorised as motivation, rhetoric and rapport.

Questions asked and the answers of the 270 candidate teachers who volunteered in the study were categorised and the definition of main and sub-themes are given in detail below. The views of candidate teachers were aligned based on the study of Aydın named as The Ethics of Teaching Profession (2011) and the Ethical Codes prepared by MONE Ethics Committee and these are presented in detail in Table 3. Besides, the number of candidate teachers who mentioned the main and sub-themes and how often the relevant theme is repeated by the candidate teachers are also presented in Table 3. In the Source student column, the number of teachers referred to the topic is given whereas in the Reference column explanations of candidate teachers about the situations are given in numbers. To illustrate, the content of the theme of “teaching skills” under the topic of Professionalism based on Literature is given in the table. 58 candidate teachers who referred to this content, indicated the relevant theme for 68 times.

Table 3: Content of main and sub-themes

	Theme	Content	Source² number	Ref ^{**}
PROFESSIONALISM	Teaching Skills	Being competent in teaching profession, carrying out his duties about the the profession in a precise manner.	58	68
	Cognitive Approach	Creating a convenient environment (both physical psychological) for students where they can learn. Developing an awareness for various cognitive levels, monitoring the development of students.	42	47
	<i>Language of Sciece</i>	Having an understanding of area-specific language, obtaining a quality by using the qualifications in	13	14

²Candidate teachers
^{**}Reference

		accordance with the students' levels in the classroom.		
	<i>Activities</i>	Practising the material studied in school with both extra-curricular activities and with activities in school. Guiding the students to benefit from the best possible learning tools.	18	21
	Preparing the individual for the society	Preparing the students for the society and life and guiding them for the future.	52	60
	Attitudes towards students	Efforts of individuals, participating to curricular and extra-curricular activities, recognising students, letting students to ask questions in the lessons and guiding them to find the answers.	42	49
BEING FAIR AND RESPONSIBILITY	Professional Awareness	Teachers are aware of the dignity and honour of their profession and they act accordingly.	0	0
	Love of profession	They avoid negative behaviours which will compromise their profession and adopt all the necessary qualifications, knowledge and capabilities. They love their “ profession and students” and they reflect this love.	27	31
	Professional Competency and development	They are aware of the importance of Professional development.	79	92
BEING FAIR AND EQUAL	Teacher's Attitudes	Developing appropriate attitudes and understanding to their profession in carrying out educational services.	18	20
	Being fair and equal	Provides every student to benefit equally from the educational facilities.	179	208

	Values	Adhere to national, moral, ethical and cultural values.	38	48
	Objective Perspective	Remaining objective in cases and situations	46	50
	Source Utilization	Using the institutional and public resources like “time, money and effort” effectively. Planning the teaching hours effectively, being punctual to course hours and not wasting time with irrelevant talking.	14	14
TEACHING PROFESSION	Communication Skills	Creating positive environments by using oral and body language	54	59
	<i>Being Comprehensible</i>	Being comprehensible to students, developing a common language	18	18
	<i>Good command of Turkish</i>	Ability to use the language effectively and appropriately	8	8
	<i>Motivation</i>	Providing eagerness to learn, and forming inner motivation for preparation.	36	41
	Humanist Approaches	Takes the necessary precautions when a student comes across with maltreatment both in school and outside the school. Never suggests anything which will be an abuse of confidence and create prejudice.	68	79
	Reliable Personality	Creating a sense of trust in students	22	25
	Role-Model	Is a role-model for the students with his words, actions and image. Motivates the students to learn with his knowledge.	72	81
	Notable Personality	In the every step of the process, educational facilities are based on love and respect. Protects the dignity of the profession.	15	15

AUTONOMY	Manners in Class	Caring for the right of the individuals about being treated in accordance with the values and honour they have.	15	18
	Democracy	Constructing a democratic environment in class.	26	28
	Not obtaining personal gain	Does not obtain personal gain with using his authority. Does not benefit from the institutional resources for his own good.	6	6
	Abstaining from maltreatment	Being respectful to students, not despising them, not using a loud voice, not creating a frightening environment in class with the purpose assessment and evaluation.	122	148
	Comparison	Not comparing the students with each other.	18	18

When the ideas of candidate teachers about the Professional ethics were evaluated, 179 candidate teachers referred to the topic of justice and equality for 208 times in the formed themes. Professional competency and development was commented on by 79 candidate teachers for 92 separate times. The situation that is mentioned in this topic is the teacher being aware of his Professional development and the ideas for the need for development is also indicated. On the subject of being a role model 71 candidate teachers made 81 explanations. Explanations in this topic are about the teacher being a role model with his behaviors, attitudes and speech and his role in motivating the students to learn. 68 candidate teachers referred to the topic of Humanist Approaches for 79 times. 122 candidate teachers referred to the topic of Maltreatment for 148 times. Mostly indicated topics in this theme are being respectful to students, not despising them, not speaking with a loud noise and not frightening the students in the classroom with the purpose of assessment and evaluation. The distribution of these themes as for the departments is given in Figure 2. The tendency of candidate teachers to the relevant themes is given in Figure-2. For instance, the theme of *Being Fair and Equal* has been the mostly described theme by the candidate teachers from the department of Geography. In relation with this theme, it is seen that teachers commented on giving the right for the students to benefit equally from the educational opportunities. During the semi-structured interviews, 91,8% of the

candidate teachers from the same department (56 out of 61 teachers) indicated this theme from various perspectives.

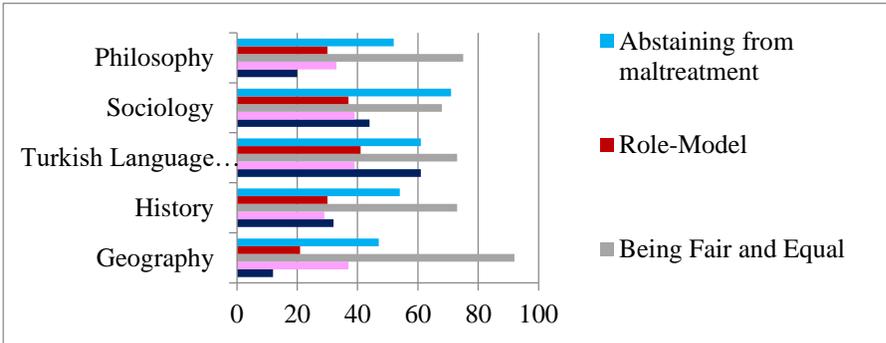


Figure 2: Mostly referred themes as for the departments

When the related themes are taken into consideration in terms of gender, it is seen that there is no great difference between the percentages of males and females. The distribution of most commonly used themes as for genders is given Figure-3. When the genders were related with the given answers males referred to the theme “Professional Competency and Development” more than females. Male candidate teachers were more fragile in comparison with females about the necessity for a teacher to improve himself during the process of teaching. Furthermore they also indicated that this ethical value is in close relation with Professional awareness. In the mostly referred themes, female candidate teachers were more sensitive while explaining their ideas about humanist approaches, being fair and equal, being a role-model and abstaining from maltreatment. It is seen that in other themes, the explanations of females were more than the males.

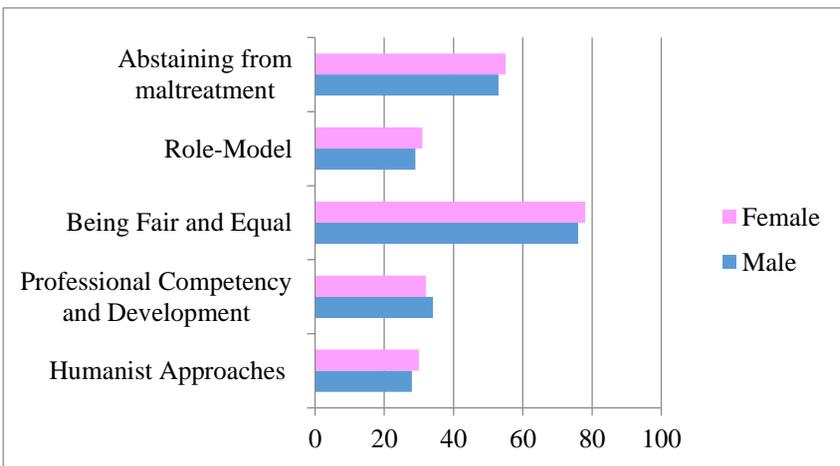


Figure 3: Mostly referred themes in accordance with genders

Discussion and Conclusion

In the process of education, as all the activities are based on love and respect, the professional ethics is a significant issue for teachers. Within this respect, it is thought that the ideas of candidate teachers, who attended to Pedagogic Formation Certificate Program, on the ethics of teaching profession are significant. When the semi-structured interviews with 270 candidate teachers of the program in Çankırı Karatekin University were evaluated, it is seen that the comments of the candidate teachers formed four major themes. The themes at the end of the interviews are; “Teachers’ Attitudes”, “Manners in Classroom”, “Professional Awareness” and “Teaching Skills”. The ideas of candidate teachers were in relation with the main themes of professionalism, responsibility, being fair and equal, teaching profession and autonomy when they were aligned with the ethical codes in literature. In professionalism, teachers’ competency and having acquired all the necessary knowledge, attitudes and manners are mentioned. The ideas of candidate teachers under the theme of professionalism contain explanations about teaching skills, attitudes towards students, preparing the individual for the society, cognitive approach, activities and the language of science.

In responsibility, subjects about performing a duty in a perfect manner as for quantity and quality and being aware of responsibility are indicated. Under the theme of Responsibility, there are some topics like Professional awareness, love of profession, Professional competency and development. Being fair and equal is the respectable status of the teacher while performing his profession. Under the main theme being fair and equal, there are some ideas about teacher’s behaviour, justice, equality, values, objective perspective and source utilization. In teaching profession, mainly the topics were about the following statement; teachers are the members of a profession which is honorable and respectful and they should be aware of this dignity and follow all scientific and technological developments to develop themselves. Under the main theme of teaching profession there are some views about communication skills, humanist approach, reliable person, role-model and respectability. Autonomy is the right of the individuals to be treated in harmony with the values and honor they deserve. Therefore the content of habit formation was associated with this subject. Under the main theme autonomy there are some explanations about manners in classroom, the idea of democracy, obtaining personal gain, abstaining from maltreatment and comparing the students with one another. Within this context the answers of the research questions were summarised below.

“What are the ideas, perspectives and attitudes of candidate teachers about “teaching profession?” was one of our research questions.

“Professional development and Competency” and “Love of Profession” are the sub-themes under the main theme “Professional Awareness”. Under this main theme, there are some concepts like; The dignity of the Profession, Professional development and competency, capability, being competent in the realm, love of children and human beings and love of profession. It is thought that this general term is mainly forming the ideas and perspectives of candidate teachers about “teaching profession”.

The ideas of candidate teachers about ethical principles of teaching profession expected by the society are described below. The main theme of “Teacher’s Behaviours” is described as having appropriate understanding and attitudes in harmony with teaching profession while carrying out educational facilities. It is seen that the candidate teachers had similar views about the sub-themes under this title. It is worth mentioning that the sub-theme of being fair and equal to the students is specifically indicated. Besides, during the interviews candidate teachers consolidated this sub-theme with various explanations.

“What are the ideas of candidate teachers about the ethical principles that a teacher should take into consideration in teacher-student relations? The answers of candidate teachers to the above question was summarised as follows:

The statements of the candidate teachers about teacher-student relations are indicated to be under the main theme of “Classrooms manners”. In the interviews with the candidate teachers mainly being respectful to students, not despising them, not speaking in a loud voice and not frightening them with the purpose of assessment and evaluation and with physical and psychological acts are mentioned. In Faculty of Science and Letters the senior students are graduating as teachers after completing the Pedagogic Formation Certificate Program. The main objective of the students in these faculties may be being a teacher in the future and also the faculties’ sole purpose is not educate the students as teachers. The students in the graduate programs of Faculties of Education are aware of the fact that they will be teachers in the future and thus they have a better motivation (Acat and Yenilmez, 2004; Turhan and Ağaoğlu, 2007), and they are more sensitive to the subjects about Professional ethics and this provides them to internalise the profession. It is thought that awareness levels of the candidate teachers, graduated from the faculties of education, about the principals of Professional ethics will be different from the ones who will be teachers only after completing a 14-week Pedagogic Formation Certificate Program. To illustrate, when the results of our study are analysed, it is seen that the candidate teachers did not comment on the topics about the ethics which may arise in the relation with the students, parents, colleagues and with managers. They only commented on the ethical issues which may arise from the teacher-student interaction. Besides, another point that

draws attention in the views of the candidate teachers is that they did not indicate anything about Professional ethics. Under this main theme, they expressed their views about love of profession, Professional competency and development but did not mention anything about the content of Professional awareness.

For this reason, while the students in the Faculty of Science and Letters attending to the Pedagogic Certificate Program were expressing their views on the teaching profession, they mainly talked about their relations with the teachers and about the cases they came across. Therefore it is thought that they just drew conclusions about the code of ethics from their experiences. Hence, having a course which takes all this content into consideration would be beneficial to teach the individuals who want to be teachers in the future (Altinkurt ve Yılmaz, 2011).

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THE EFFECT OF A PROJECT-BASED ACTIVITY ON LANGUAGE, PERSONAL, INTERPERSONAL, AND AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT OF ESP LEARNERS: DESIGNING NEWSPAPERS

Bora DEMİR*

Introduction

John Dewey's idea of people learn by doing has been the starting point and the hearth of Project-based Learning (PBL) (Dewey, 1910). However, the first use of the term project learning dates back to 1918 when William Kilpatrick wrote an essay, "The Project Method", which is very close with the way we conceptualize PBL today (Kilpatrick, 1918). Following that, the theory of project-based learning evolved from problem based learning model for education at medical schools (Smith, 2015). Teachers' and researchers' interest in PBL emerged due to important developments in neuroscience and psychology over the last three decades.

As an innovative approach to learning, PBL focuses on the students' involvement in meaningful tasks and allows them to work both autonomously and cooperatively to construct their own knowledge through hands-on experience. PBL refers to students designing, planning, and carrying out an extended project that produces a publicly-exhibited output such as a product, publication, or presentation (Patton, 2012, p.13). These practices help the learners to shift away from traditional classroom activities and teacher-centered approach to student-centered, cooperative and authentic learning practices. By enabling the learners experience complex intellectual tasks, PBL activates learners' higher order thinking skills such as making judgments and interpretations and let them synthesize information in more effective ways. This critical thinking fosters creativity in authentic contexts and let the students become socialized by collaborating and communicating with the others (Larmer & Mergendoller, 2010).

According to Markham et al, (2003), as a non-traditional education model, PBL focuses on solving real-world problems by using multiple learning techniques including organization, research, production, and presentation. Since PBL projects require analyzing complex data, it also tends to encourage teamwork by organizing the students into groups. Also, due to the complexity of the tasks in PBL, the role of teachers becomes

* School of Foreign Languages, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Çanakkale, Turkey, borademir@comu.edu.tr

critical in that; they have to create opportunities for learning by providing access to information, support instruction by modeling and guiding, encourage students to use learning and metacognitive processes, and assess progress, diagnose problems, provide feedback and evaluate overall results (Blumenfeld et al., 1991).

PBL makes the learning more meaningful because of a number of factors. According to Sang and Van (2016) rigorous and in-depth PBL:

- is organized around an open-ended driving question or challenge
- creates a need to know essential content and skills.
- requires inquiry to learn and/or create something new.
- requires critical thinking, problem solving, collaboration, and various forms of communication.
- allows some degree of student voice and choice.
- incorporates feedback and revision.
- results in a publicly presented product or performance.

As already discussed above, one of the main factors that led PBL gain popularity in educational contexts is due to the technology available for students to reach the data required and the way they use in presenting the results of their studies. Hence, PBL is more than just a web-quest or internet research task which basically involve simple procedures. However, in PBL project, students are expected to use technology in meaningful ways to help them investigate, collaborate, analyze, synthesize and present their learning (Markham, et al, 2003).

As the digital technology and the internet has become innovational means of learning, learners can easily conduct serious high-quality research, and share their works not only with their classmates but also with the entire world. In this way, it is easier than ever both for the teachers and the students to move beyond the boundaries and limitations of the traditional classroom (Boss and Krauss, 2007).

Boss and Krauss (2007, p. 12) redefined project-based learning by underlying the importance of using technology to maximize the use of digital tools to reach essential learning goals. According to them, these tools open new windows onto student thinking, facilitate the process of drafting and refining, and allow for instant global connections. They characterize their reinvented approach to projects as follows:

- Projects form the centerpiece of the curriculum-they are not an add-on or extra at the end of a "real" unit.

- Students engage in real-world activities and practice the strategies of authentic disciplines.
- Students work collaboratively to solve problems that matter to them.
- Technology is integrated as a tool for discovery, collaboration, and communication, taking learners places they couldn't otherwise go and helping teachers achieve essential learning goals in new ways.
- Increasingly, teachers collaborate to design and implement projects that cross geographic boundaries or even jump time zones.

Despite the general consensus on the clear benefits of the PBL by increasing critical thinking skills, including greater problem solving abilities, enabling deeper understanding, and developing collaborative skills, due to its complex nature, PBL activities and tasks should be carefully designed by the teachers prior to the start of the projects. The instructions to be followed during the whole process should be clarified by the teachers. In this sense, the steps to be taken during the processes of any project work of PBL has been conceptualized and modeled in various ways. Papandreou (1994) introduces a six step model as: Preparation, planning, research, conclusions, presentation, and evaluation.

Another model by Korkmaz and Kaptan (2001) was based on similar principles and present another six step model as: Specifying the subject and sub-subjects, groups create projects, implementation of the project, planning of the presentation, performing the presentation, and evaluation. According to this model, the teacher specifies the main and the sub-subjects and organizes the groups. In the next step, group members plan the whole procedure and do the role distribution. In the project implementation step, group members analyze the data together. The fourth step involves organization of the presentation in which the group members specify the main issues to be presented. Then, in the presentation step, the students present their final work to the whole class. And finally, at the evaluation step, both the students and the teacher share their opinions about the project and the group members reflect on their learning experiences.

PBL and language teaching

Although a large body of research have been carried out on the use of PBL in teaching biology, chemistry, math, science, and geography or other social studies, research on the practices of PBL in EFL education is scarce. The existing research in EFL contexts generally focus either its effect on learner motivation or on its cooperative nature. PBL is effective in increasing students' motivation and its role in improving their language proficiency as a result of intensive research, collaboration, and presentation procedures (Lee et al, 2014). By putting the learners at the center of their learning in language teaching, PBL is a dynamic approach to teaching in

which students explore challenges and problems of the real world by means of using the target language as an instrument both in preparing and presenting the project. Students' interaction with the teacher and their peers in the target language make the whole process a tool to improve their language, personal, and interpersonal skills. According to Thomas (2000), PBL provides an opportunity for students to actively participate in making a project within the group or individual work to improve English language skills. Since students are actively engaged in all steps of the project, both their content knowledge and language proficiency is increased as the outcome of the project. Besides by being given responsibility, students experience increased motivation in learning, have positive attitudes toward English, and become an autonomous learner at the end of the project (Stoller, 1997).

According to Alan and Stoller (2005), since PBL projects are multidimensional, they should be well organized to maximize language, content, and real-life skills which require a combination of teacher guidance, teacher feedback, student engagement, and elaborated tasks with some degree of challenge. They propose that successful PBL:

- focuses on real-world subject matter that can sustain the interest of students
- requires student collaboration and, at the same time, some degree of student autonomy and independence
- can accommodate a purposeful and explicit focus on form and other aspects of language
- is process and product oriented, with an emphasis on integrated skills and end-of project reflection.

Starting from the early 1980s, PBL has been part of the educational practice, it is commonly used in the teaching of English as a second or a foreign language. The reason for the popularity of PBL in foreign language teaching is because it requires the use of authentic English language materials by putting an emphasis on collaboration and learner centered activities, and enabling the students' use of different skills. As the students work together to develop a product, they start using their creativity and critical thinking skills which are considered as essential cognitive activities in learning a foreign language (Du and Han, 2016).

Research concerning the use, effectiveness and the application of PBL in foreign language have provided various findings. Lam (2011) reported that students can build up motivation and autonomy by taking a part in a PBL project and they can expand their intellectual capacity and improve language skills as a result. Levine (2004) highlighted the role of authentic activities which have a great potential to improve the learners' language

skills by enabling them to engage in purposeful communication while accomplishing them. Similarly, Stoller (2006) underlined the opportunities to meet the natural language use which in turn enables a rich integration of all four skills. Another study by Astawa, Artini, and Nitiasih (2017) investigated the effect of PBL activities and on students' productive skills in English. The study provided evidence about the positive effect of the implementation of PBL activities on speaking and writing skills of learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). They also concluded that PBL should become a choice for English teachers teaching in EFL settings since it promotes the learning quality with valuable contribution to student learning by supporting the 21st century learning.

Dooley and Sadler (2016) tried to find out the effect of innovative language teaching practices by making use of technology in a PBL project in which the students gained new information about the topic under study, and use the information to communicate both with classmates and with online partners in the target language of English in order to resolve problems. The findings of the study revealed that the team work in PBL let the learners produce oral communicative forms in the target language and this collaborative learning process helped language learners reach better levels of language proficiency.

A more recent study by Torrez and Rodriguez (2017) examined how young learners enhanced their speaking skills in an EFL classroom through PBL. The analysis of the data from field notes, transcripts of learners' oral performances, and interviews emerged the findings that PBL encouraged students to increase their oral production and helped them to decrease their levels of anxiety in speaking in a foreign language.

Although research on the application of PBL approach in ELT classrooms generally reveal positive findings about the effectiveness of the model, the steps to be taken during the whole process should be carefully planned and discussed with the students in detail (Alan and Stoller, 2005). Teachers should be in attempt to build a positive culture to accomplish the whole process by defining students' roles in each group so that group members would make sure about what they have to do and how they have to work together. This also would be helpful in encouraging students to set goals for the project and learn time management skills so that they become more responsible for their own learning (Krauss and Boss, 2013).

The role of newspapers on language development

Students collaborating on a team project are likely to improve wide range of language skills by accomplishing various types of PBL projects such as; creating books, movie projects, multimedia exhibitions, poster presentations, creating blogs, or organizing classroom newspapers. Creating newspapers are often used as classroom activities to help students

improve their language skills by providing them with the opportunity to develop their collaboration skills with their classmates to achieve a common goal. During this creative activity, students have the opportunity to interact with a variety of language sources and experience the stimulating effect of becoming reporters and editors of their own news.

As authentic materials, newspapers offer great scope in the language classroom. They can be used in numerous types of activities for language learners from any level of proficiency (Mishan, 2005). Using newspapers in the classroom gives the students the feeling that the language they are studying is something which really exists and is really used.

Newspapers can also be used as classroom activities to help improve students with the opportunity to enhance their reading and writing skills (Shiraz & Larsari, 2014). Also, it helps language learners to experience the authentic use of the language they are learning. By following the basic principles of PBL approach, having your students create their own classroom newspaper is an activity which improves the students' both personal and interpersonal skills while collaborating with classmates to achieve a common goal. Besides, creating a newspaper is a useful activity since it helps to transform the students from newspaper readers into writers of their own newspapers by the help of the internet and the mobile technology available.

During each step of the process of creating classroom newspapers, students may have to work on unfamiliar vocabulary and authentic texts that are beyond their language levels. So, they have to use techniques such as using dictionaries or cooperating with others and the teacher. They also make use of their translation skills to rewrite the text by simplifying it to help other students' reading comprehension. As a result of being actively involved in these processes, the students also improve their critical thinking skills, along with developing their language skills as translators, readers, and writers. Also, by presenting their news in front of the whole class, the students can practice their speaking skills (Krauss and Boss, 2013).

However, studies on the effectiveness of creating newspapers as a language learning project has not been well explored yet. Only a few studies exist on the effectiveness of producing newspapers on foreign language learning.

A study by Diem (2012) investigated the effect of producing newspapers on language competence. The 35 intermediate-level EFL university students worked in groups as news editors to produce news by sharing the experience of developing language skills via a project. After broadcasting three issues, the students reported the activity as an enjoyable and educational atmosphere, the activities were meaningful and that they

were making progress in oral and written proficiency. Hoxa (2016) carried out another PBL study with 169 7th graders in a project lasted 3 months called as “Teens’ magazine”. Students had to work in groups to answer a driving question and prepare magazines. Data from reach group’s self-assessment sheet showed that all the students participated actively as part of a team which was an indicator of the activity’s positive effect on learner motivation. Another study by Shiraz and Larsari (2014) investigated the relationship between the use of PBL activities and 120 intermediate EFL students' reading comprehension. The study aimed at evaluating the effect of the creating newspapers and magazines on the reading comprehension ability of intermediate EFL learners by using two types of tasks namely developing magazines and wall Newspaper. The first group of learners were asked to prepare four magazines while, the second group was supposed to design four wall newspapers during a period of four months. The analysis of the reading comprehension tests administered to measure the effectiveness of newspaper and magazine preparing activities both at the beginning and at the end of the study revealed a significant positive relationship between the use of PBL activities and reading comprehension ability for both groups. They suggested that further studies should include qualitative investigation, using students’ opinions, class observations, and interviews for an in-depth opinion of the relationship between PBL activities and foreign language learning.

Considering the need for more detailed research, this study focuses on students’ opinions with a mixed design including a self-report questionnaire on the effectiveness of the newspaper preparation Project, and interviews seeking in-depth data for the whole process. Besides, since the effect of PBL for ESP has not been well explored by empirical studies, the results of the present study will provide significant data for the effectiveness of using newspapers in EFL classrooms where English is taught for specific purposes (Sheppard & Stoller, 1995).

Method

Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to find out the opinions of environmental engineering students learning English for specific purposes (ESP) about the effect of creating newspapers on their affective, language, personal, and interpersonal skills. In addition to that, this paper investigates specific challenges encountered during the whole process and their opinions about improving the implementation of a project-based learning approach for foreign language learning. The following research questions are addressed:

1. What are the opinions of undergraduate EFL learners towards creating newspapers as a language learning project in terms of their

language skills, personal skills, inter-personal skills, and affective skills development?

2. Is there a correlation between the learners' language skills, personal skills, inter-personal skills, and affective skills development?

3. What are undergraduate EFL learners' attainments from the newspaper preparation activity?

4. What challenges did undergraduate EFL learners encountered in a project-based learning environment?

5. What are the undergraduate EFL learners' perceived opinions about improving the implementation of a project-based learning approach for foreign language learning?

Participants and setting

The participants of this study were 44 undergraduate ESP learners from a public university in Turkey, majoring in environmental engineering (F= 30, M= 14). All of the participants were native speakers of Turkish and their ages ranged between 19 and 23. Since the language of instruction in engineering department is in English, freshmen are enrolled in a compulsory preparation class where they study 24 hours of English a week for two academic terms and have to pass an end of year exam including grammar, reading, writing, listening, and speaking sections which were organized during a week time in separate sessions. Students who score under 60 points from the institutional exam fail, and have to retake the preparation class under the same conditions. The students in the intensive English preparation program take 16 hours of main course including grammar and reading, and 8 hours of language skills including listening, speaking, and writing courses. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) the participants can be considered at B1 (intermediate) level since they can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc., can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken, can produce simple connected text on topics, which are familiar, or of personal interest, can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions, and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans (CEFR, 2001).

Procedures for the project

The main aim of the project was organizing newspapers including environmental news by simplifying original web sources, presenting them in front of the class, and visualizing their products as posters to be exhibited in the department. The main goals of the project were as follows:

By the end of the project, students will:

1. Practice their language skills and knowledge (grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, speaking, translation)
2. Improve their interpersonal skills by collaborating with the teacher and other students (communication, participation, sharing knowledge)
3. Improve their affective skills (sense of achievement, motivation for learning, reducing level of language learning anxiety)
4. Improve their personal skills (creativity, research skills, computer literacy skills, presentation skills, sense of responsibility)

Drawing on Stoller's (2005) steps for effective implementation of PBL approach in foreign language classrooms, the project was divided into the following stages:

Step 1: Students and instructor agree on a theme for the project and they determine the final outcome.

The project topic was determined both by the students and the teacher as “organizing newspapers on environmental issues” according to some criteria. First, the project was relevant to real-world situations enabling them to be exposed to the authentic language. Second, the project learning goals were parallel with the course curriculum goals and learning outcomes including the improvement of language skills. Third, it is student centered by allowing the students to choose their own news and simplify them by using their foreign language skills. Fourth, the project enhances creativity and problem-solving skills. And fifth, it is motivating in that students will have the feeling of achievement and hold their interests by working on everyday basis.

Step 2: Students and instructor structure the project.

For the newspaper production process, the students were divided into teams by the teacher and they defined their own roles as editors or writers by themselves. Each group was responsible for choosing a name for their newspaper related with environment. Some of the newspapers' names were, *GreENvironment*, *Think Green*, *Per Capita Nature*, and *Waste World*. Then, students were told to select environmental news from the internet and simplify the language, or create their own news by interviews with other teachers from the department. The topics of the news were either on global or local environmental issues.

Step 3: Students gather and analyze information.

For this step, students collected news for their newspapers from the internet sources and send a link to the teacher online and check whether the material was appropriate for the scope of the project or not. After the approval from the teacher, the students started to rewrite the news by

simplifying them with less complex grammar and vocabulary. Also, each group was required to report their progress to the teacher in a group meeting every week in which drafts were shown to the teacher for corrective feedback. Each student was obliged to prepare two news for each issue. At the end of the project each group presented three issues in four weeks intervals. For each issue, the same procedures were followed.

Step 4: Students present final product.

For this step, students were expected to have their newspaper ready as a poster in PDF file format. First, each group member presented his/her news to the whole class and received questions about the content when available. After the presentation performances of all the groups, the students had the newspapers printed out and placed their work in specific places to be exhibited, so that, all the students and lecturers had the opportunity to read them. The presentation and exhibition procedures were repeated for each of the three issues.

Step 5: Students evaluate the project.

For the evaluation step, the students were given a 27-item self-report questionnaire regarding their opinions about the effect of the project on four domains namely, affective, personal, inter-personal, and language skills. Also, 3 questions related to various aspects of the project were asked to each student in a semi-structured interview form. These tools are discussed in detail in the instrumentation section of this paper.

Due to time constraints, in the project-based lessons, making the students become aware of the procedures was the principal challenge at the beginning of the project. Although, the students were informed about the whole process prior to the beginning of the project, the students became more motivated about the whole procedure after publishing the first issue and receiving feedback both from the other students and the teacher.

Assessment of the project

The assessment of the project was based on two main stages namely the organization stage and the presentation stage. For the organization stage, the students were graded by the teacher according to two criteria namely, *cooperation with group members* and *cooperation with the teacher*. For the presentation stage, each group member was graded according to three criteria namely, the appropriateness and accuracy of the simplification of the news, and their presentation skills including pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency. The students were individually graded for all the three broadcasting procedures separately. The mean for the three newspaper production process were calculated and the students were graded accordingly. To maintain student participation and motivation, the project's contribution to end of the year final grade was specified as 50%.

The students were informed about the assessment criteria for the whole process prior to the beginning of the project.

Instruments

This study made use of a self-report questionnaire in order to elicit the participants' perception of the TBL newspaper activity. The questionnaire items were created by the author with regard to the expected learning outcomes of the activity by reviewing the current literature on PBL and an item pool was developed accordingly. Following that, two experts from the ELT department separately evaluated the items and categorized them into four domains. This procedure revealed a reasonable agreement among the two raters and the questionnaire was regarded as valid. The questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section consisted background information about the participants' gender and age. The second section included 27 item 5-point Likert scale (5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neutral, 2 = disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree). The questionnaire consisted of four domains namely, *affective skills*, *personal skills*, *interpersonal skills*, and *language skills*. Students reported to what degree the newspaper preparing activity contributed to those skills. These four sub-sections were determined with reference to Nunan's task classification (Nunan, 2004, p. 59-60). The Cronbah's alpha obtained for the questionnaire was .94.

EFL learners' responds to three semi-structured questions constituted the qualitative data for the study as the second instrument. The semi-structured questions were developed as a result of review of the related literature, and expected outcomes of the activity. The focus of the questions was on the challenges that EFL learners experienced during the project and their opinions and suggestions about improving the effectiveness of the project for further practices. The interview questions were checked by two experts and the responses underwent content analysis. Team coding technique was utilized to specify categories and themes separately by the two experts, since it is an effective way of reliability check when it is carried out by two coders separately (Miles, Huberman and Saldana, 1994). As a result of team coding procedures, inter-rater reliability scores were calculated with reference to the formula: $(\text{Number of agreements} / \text{Total number of agreements and disagreement}) \times 100$ " (Altman, 1991). The reliability coefficient was calculated as .88., which was considered as a reasonable agreement between the two raters since benchmarks for high agreement were defined between 0.80 -1.00 (Landis & Koch, 1977; Altman, 1991). As a result of review literature and considering the aims and outcomes of the activity, the following questions were included in the semi-structured interview:

1. What are your attainments from the newspaper preparation activity?
2. What challenges did you have during the newspaper preparation activity?
3. What things should be done to improve the effectiveness of the newspaper preparation activity?

Procedures for data analysis

This study is based on a mixed research design in order to investigate EFL learners opinions about a PBL activity. Mixed methods designs include both qualitative and quantitative features in the design, data collection, and analysis (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Mixed methods designs integrate techniques from both the quantitative and qualitative research traditions to find answers for questions since it enriches researchers' ability to draw conclusions about the problem under study (Martens, 2010). As a quantitative method, questionnaires are used as objective measurements and provide data for the statistical and numerical analysis by using computational techniques. The quantitative data from the questionnaire was analyzed by descriptive statistics and correlational analysis SPSS 20.0.

On the other hand, as a source of in-depth research, qualitative method focuses on participants' experiences and enables the researchers to find details about the people feel or think in a certain way (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The qualitative data from the semi-structured interview was analyzed by content analysis technique which is frequently employed in qualitative research where there is a need for counting the frequency and sequencing of particular words, phrases, or concepts found in the data (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014). The inductive approach of content analysis was used for this study since this technique enables the researcher to make sense of a situation without imposing preexisting expectations on the phenomena under study (Martens, 2010). Also, the open coding technique was used to create categories and abstraction (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014; Cavanagh, 1997).

Findings

The findings of the study will be presented with reference to each research question and the existing links between the results and the literature will help to constitute the reliability of the study (Weber, 1990).

Research Question 1: What are the opinions of undergraduate EFL learners towards creating newspapers as a language learning project in terms of their language skills, personal skills, inter-personal skills, and affective skills development?

The results of the data analysis revealed that the students were positively influenced by the TBL activity. Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for the sub-sections of the questionnaire. According to the mean values, the activity was reported as useful and effective by the participants for all sub-categories.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the sections of the questionnaire

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Personal skills	44	2,20	5,00	3,85	,87
Language skills	44	2,30	5,00	3,62	,74
Interpersonal skills	44	1,50	5,00	3,54	,90
Affective skills	44	1,33	5,00	3,54	,93

The table shows that, personal skills category has the highest mean value (M=3,85), and followed by the language skills category (M=3,62). Also, Interpersonal skills, and Affective skill share the same mean value (M=3,54).

For the personal skills category, the highest mean values were for the item 25 “The newspaper creating activity improved my presentation skills” (M=4,14), and the item 27 “The newspaper creating activity improved my sense of responsibility” (M=4,05). Since one of the tasks of the study was presenting their news in front of the classroom, the participants reported positive effect of performing presentations. Also, the due dates within the schedule of each newspaper issue preparation and presentation stages helped the participants develop sense of responsibility as one of the expected outcomes of the study.

As for the language skills category, the highest mean values were for the item 8 “The newspaper creating activity improved my translation skills” (M=4,05), and the item 5 “The newspaper creating activity improved my reading skills” (M=3,98). These were expected outcomes of the study since the participants had to find authentic news from internet sources, read them, and simplify them for their newspapers. Hence, this finding indicates that, during these stages, they had to translate original texts into their mother tongue which in turn helped them develop their translation skills and reading skills at the same time.

For the inter-personal skills category, the highest mean values were for the item 12 “During the newspaper creating activity I learned from teachers” (M=4,07), and the item 11 “During the newspaper creating activity I learned from my friends” (M=3,55). These two items provide evidence about the importance of collaboration for project-based learning. The participants cooperated with their group members and teachers during the whole process and they benefited from these interactions in a positive way.

The items in the affective skills category aimed at understanding the learners’ feelings about the project-based newspaper creating activity. The highest mean values were for the item 21 “The newspaper creating activity motivated me for learning English” (M=3,80), and the item 22 “The newspaper creating activity improved my interest in my occupation” (M=3,80). These two items provide evidence about the importance of project-based learning in terms of its positive motivation on learners. As the participants searched news related to environmental issues, they became more conscious about the scope of their future occupation environmental engineering and this improved their interest in their future occupation.

Research Question 2: Is there a correlation between the learners’ language skills, personal skills, inter-personal skills, and affective skills development?

The correlational analysis of the quantitative data revealed different levels of positive correlations between the categories of the questionnaire and are presented in Table 2. The strength of the correlations were valued with reference to Evans (1996).

Table 2. Correlation Matrix for categories of the questionnaire

Category	1	2	3	4
1. Language Skills	-			
2. Interpersonal Skills	.53**	-		
3. Affective Skills	.74**	.63**	-	
4. Personal Skills	.58**	.58**	.62**	-

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the Table 2, there was a strong positive correlation between the categories of language skills and affective skills ($r = .74$). This indicates that as the participants improve their language skills, they improve their affective skills as well. In other words, by improving their English language skills, they become more happy, develop self confidence and sense of achievement which in turn motivate them to not only in

learning English but also creating positive interest in their future occupation. The table also presents moderate positive correlations between the categories of personal skills and language skills ($r = .58$), personal skills and interpersonal skills ($r = .58$), personal skills and affective skills ($r = .62$), interpersonal skills and affective skills ($r = .63$), and interpersonal skills and language skills ($r = .53$). These correlations provide evidence for the effectiveness of Project-based approach on all aspects of language learning. These interactions between all the categories suggest that, the participants improved their interpersonal skills, affective skills, and personal skills as they mastered in language skills.

Research Question 3: What are undergraduate EFL learners' attainments from the newspaper preparation activity?

The results of the content analysis with reference to the first question of the semi-structured interview revealed 5 categories (Table 3). It is interesting to note that, rather than revealing their attainments of language skills, the participants focused on other aspects of their project experiences.

Table 3. Categories for responses to 1st question of the semi-structured interview

		<i>frequency</i>	<i>percentage</i>
1	Learnt more about daily topics in my field	22	50%
2	Helped me feel more comfortable during a presentation	15	34%
3	Sense of responsibility and attendance	13	31%
4	Time management	7	16%
5	Helped me know my classmates better	5	11%

According to the table, the highest rated category “Learnt more about daily topics in my field” ($f=22$). 50% percent of the participants believed that the activity helped them become more conscious about up-to-date environmental issues. The following quotation provided data for the highest rated category including statements about their attainments at the end of the activity.

P14: *“After I started to search for the project on the web, I felt more conscious about my future profession. As I read actual news, I started to think that I am studying at such an important department because there was a huge number of news about environmental issues not only in my country but also all over the world.*

Thanks to the project, I now feel more informed about the scope of my future career as an environmental engineer. ”

Also, other categories were specified with reference to learners’ responds are as follows: “Helped me feel more comfortable during a presentation” (f=15), “Sense of responsibility and attendance” (f=13), “Time management” (f=7), and “Helped me know my classmates better” (f=5). These findings are consistent with the findings of the quantitative data since the participants put more emphasize on their developed consciousness about their future occupation. Also as personal skills, they reported improving their sense of responsibility and time management skills which are parallel with the personal skills category in the questionnaire.

Research Question 4: What challenges did undergraduate EFL learners encountered in a project-based learning environment?

This question was important in that, it would provide evidence about the negative aspects of the project-based activity. The results of the content analysis with reference to the second question of the semi-structured interview revealed only two categories.

Table 4. Categories for responses to the 2nd question of the semi-structured interview

		<i>frequency</i>	<i>percentage</i>
1	Unfair level of participation	25	57%
2	Communication problems in the group	11	25%

According to the table, the participants reported “Unfair level of participation” (f=25) and “Communication problems in the group” (f=11) as challenging aspects of the activity. Most of the participants believed that the level of participation between the group members was not fair. They thought that some other members from their groups did not devote enough energy as much as they did. This in turn caused some communication problems between the group members and negatively affected their motivation in participating in the group work. The following is a common quotation for both categories:

P8: *”During the newspaper designing project, I really felt disappointed about the attitudes of some of my group members. They did not give as much energy as I did. I believe that with their full devotion, we could create better products, but unfortunately I was the only one in the group who was doing the much of the work. The unmotivated manners of my group friends affected me in a negative way.*

Additionally, some of the students in my group were not open to communication and criticism. This made the things more complicated.”

Research Question 5: What are the undergraduate EFL learners’ perceived opinions about improving the implementation of a project-based learning approach for foreign language learning?

The 3rd question of the interview was about participants’ opinions and ideas for further project-based activities. The results of the content analysis with reference to the third question of the semi-structured interview revealed three categories as; “Participants should organize the groups” (f=23), “Less time should be given for newspaper presentations” (f=12), and “Individual newspapers would be more effective” (f=10).

Table 5. Categories for responses to the 2nd question of the semi-structured interview

		<i>frequency</i>	<i>percentage</i>
1	Participants should organize the groups	23	52%
2	Less time should be given for newspaper presentations	12	27%
3	Individual newspapers would be more effective	10	23%

The following quotation will represent ideas about the learners’ opinions about the future implementation of the newspaper designing project.

P26: *“I think the most important problem was about the organization of the groups. If I had the opportunity of choosing the members of my group, I believe we could do a better job. Because, everybody knows that people can understand and work better with their close friends. Another alternative could be designing individual newspapers. In that case everyone would be responsible of their own product and would give more energy for their work”*

This question was important in that, it would provide insight for the future organization of the same project. It also provided information about the expectations of the participants from such an activity. These findings will help the instructor to modify the organization of the project and rethink about the whole process.

Discussion

This study focused on the effects of a project-based learning activity on ESP learners from environmental engineering department. The findings as a result of a one-term project involvement aimed at understanding learner attainments and opinions from a multi-dimensional perspective including personal, interpersonal, affective, and language skills. After working

collaboratively on both preparing and presenting three issues of group newspapers, the participants also had the opportunity to experience a project-based learning activity and hence to evaluate their own performances both individually and as a group member. Based on Dewey's idea of people learn better by hands-on experience and Kilpatrick's conceptualization, vast number of studies emphasized the importance of the project-based learning in various language learning contexts (Smith, 2015). By encouraging learners to think, read and write by allowing them to experience the use of authentic language is more likely to help them develop the skills necessary to become better foreign language users (Beckett, 2002). In this sense, creation of group newspapers provide such a real life context, and hence creates the basic starting point for a project designed. Considering the EFL classroom as one of the formal settings where the students are expected to participate actively in the process, the project-based approach presents a perfect context in which the educators can distance themselves from teacher-centered approaches and help their learners to become agents in their own learning experiences (Beckett, 2006).

The positive effects of student newspapers have also been reported by a number of studies. During the all stages of the newspaper designing and presentation project, the students had the opportunity to improve their reading skills (Mishan, 2005; Shiraz & Larsari, 2014; Chu et al, 2011), speaking skills (Krauss and Boss, 2013; Torres and Rodriguez, 2017), productive skills (Astawa, Artini, and Nitiasih, 2017), and general language competence (Diem, 2012). However, the crucial goal of PBL should go beyond only acquiring knowledge about the subject matter, but develop the learner in social and interpersonal aspects because of its cooperative nature (Tamim & Grant, 2013). By presenting their news, the participants improved their presentation skills and hence gained self-confidence for speaking in front of the classroom (Larmer & Mergendoller, 2010). As the learners became more confident about their skills, they were more motivated for learning English (Grant, 2011).

On the other hand, this study also provided evidence for challenges associated with using PBL in the classroom. While the participants were working in groups, they reported some problems in terms of participation of each group member. Half of the students reported that they devoted much energy than other group members did. This fact has been reported as one of the potential drawbacks of PBL anticipated problems that might occur during a cooperative PBL project (Markham et al, 2003). Despite all the challenges, the newspaper designing and presentation activity enabled the ESP learners to become aware of their own skills by taking a part in a cooperative group work (Thomas, 2000).

Conclusion

This study is based on a project-based newspaper preparation and presentation activity for higher education ESP learners. The basic goal of organizing such an activity was to help undergraduate language learners develop their personal, interpersonal, affective, and language skills as a result of the whole process. The study also aimed at creating opportunities for collaborative learning to be present a student centered learning environment in which the participants could interact with each other. Although the participants have reported a number of drawbacks about the project, the overall findings suggested that the PBL approach utilized by a newspaper creating activity helped the language learners personally improve themselves. Even though, learning and teaching through projects is not a new concept, it is still an alternative way for traditional teacher centered approach by presenting complex problems and challenges to solve (Thuan, 2018). These challenges are action oriented and are designed to accomplish a number of tasks and hence promote critical thinking skills which are often considered as the skills of 21st century. To accomplish the project the participants had to use multiple language learning skills such as reading, translation, listening, and speaking to produce high-quality products as the outcome of the project. Hence, all these interactions both with the authentic materials and the others helped them develop not only their language level but also their social skills by creating an understanding of the importance of sharing information with others (Sang & Van, 2016). Also, by studying with web sources related to their subject matter, they experienced authentic learning and reflect on their works by performing presentations for the classroom (Larmer & Mergendoller, 2010).

To sum up, the results of this study strongly support the claims made for project-based learning by providing evidence to support the potential for project-based learning to enhance language and social skills of the ESP learners. As a result of this understanding, the participants were more motivated to learn English and became more conscious about their future profession. Besides, by being a part of the project, the learners experienced strong communication skills in particular. Finally, at the end of the project, the participants developed their personal and social responsibility, improved their time management skills, and made decisions of when and how to use technology which are considered as 21st century skills rather than only memorizing facts and present them in traditional forms by enabling them to communicate and our understand the way the world functions (Vargas, 2012).

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AN INVESTIGATION OF ARCHITECTURE STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF METACOGNITIVE THINKING SKILLS: EXAMPLE OF KARADENIZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Hare KILIÇASLAN*

Introduction

Architectural education is not merely the acquisition of knowledge at the cognitive level; it is based on subjecting information to mental processes and evaluating them through affective concepts. From this perspective, it is crucial to benefit from student-centered educational approaches that lead the individual to learn research, thinking and design activities on the basis of his/her own experiences (Kılıçaslan, 2015). Architectural education includes processes that allow the students to transform the learned concepts, rules and principles into a useful accumulation of knowledge and to apply them by interpreting them in mind and producing new information and solutions. Architectural education is inherently based on the principle of foregrounding the individual and his/her designing ability.

The design process allows the individual to re-imagine the existing thing in his/her mind and to form unique compositions. Thus, contribution to the individual's productivity, originality and thus creative thinking ability is also ensured (Kılıçaslan, 2015). Design is defined as "a creative act of problem-determination and problem-solving, which consists of decisions taken to reach the objectives in various stages" (Bayazıt, 2004). Design is an act of problem-solving regarded as a holistic process that cannot be dissociated into steps or parts. Designing starts with the conceptual representation of the object to be designed in mind and continues with the establishment of relations between the concepts in line with purposes and solving different problems (Uluoğlu, 1990). Design is expressed as a "plan" prepared to meet the desired conditions while designing as a "decision making process" for the purpose (Rittel, 1985). As with all problem-solving activities, the design process involves induction, and this process includes the phases of decision making, expressing ideas, and validating and evaluating proposals (Cross, 1995; Do & Gross, 1996).

In comprehending the limits and possibilities of the design process and testing the effectiveness of the proposed solution, there are the stages of doing, thinking, repeating and rethinking. Thus, the individual thinks of the results of the design proposal and questions the decisions made

* Assist. Prof. Dr., Karadeniz Technical University, Faculty of Architecture, Department of Architecture, 61080, Trabzon, Turkey, hkilicaslan@ktu.edu.tr

(Anderson, 2011). The act of designing is based on perception, comprehension, interpretation, creation and expression skills. It is therefore related to the individual's worldview, intellectual background and social context. From this point of view, individual maturation is necessary for the processes of generating ideas, problem-solving and decision making. In the process of architectural education, where mental processes such as perception, differentiation, knowing and recognizing are actively involved, the individual's internal characteristics come to the forefront. This situation, which can be related to the concept of metacognition, enables the individual to regulate his/her own learning processes and to learn himself/herself. Thus, it is thought that the thinking styles developed to analyze and solve all kinds of design problems encountered during architectural education lead to the improvement of metacognitive skills.

The word cognitive is expressed by mental processes such as sensory perception, memory, thinking and learning that occur during the collection, storage, and processing of information (Arnheim, 2015). The act of thinking realised through the integration of observation and memory provides control of the motive. This allows learners to develop self-regulation skills (Dewey, 2014). However, for thinking to be "critical", it is thought that learners need to employ meta-cognitive strategies in thinking about their own thinking and following the success and quality of their own thinking. As such, the development of meta-cognitive thinking capacity is of particular importance for the designing and planning processes.

Metacognition, first introduced by John H. Flavell, has an essential role in verbal communication, comprehension, writing, attention, memory, problem-solving, self-regulation, and self-learning. Research shows that meta-cognition has become a concept that is associated with social learning theory, cognitive behavior change, and personal development and education areas (Flavell, 1979). The concept of meta-cognition is treated with the "high-level way of thinking", in which learners may think about and audit their own thinking processes (Woolfolk, 2019). Shannon argues that meta-cognition is the mechanism that drives self-learning. It involves understanding the learning task correctly and assessing which knowledge and skills are required for the learning task. This process prioritizes the individual's ability to make accurate inferences and to apply strategic knowledge to a particular situation (Shannon, 2008).

For learners to develop self-regulation skills, they need to be aware of their own thinking processes and to observe the effectiveness of their own learning strategies (Zimmerman, 2008). Meta-cognitive strategies can be utilized to help learners become aware of their own thinking while creating

a meta-cognitive learning environment. According to Dirkes (1988), basic metacognitive strategies are as follows:

1. Associating new information with old information.
2. Knowing thinking strategies.
3. Planning, monitoring, and evaluating thinking processes.

Blakey and Spence (1990) listed the strategies that can be used to improve metacognitive behaviours as follows:

1. Describing “what you know” and “what you don’t know.”
2. Expressing what you think.
3. Keep a thinking diary.
4. Planning and self-regulation.
5. Questioning the thinking process.
6. Self-evaluation.

The integration of the above-mentioned metacognition strategies into the learning environment is considered necessary for the development of learners’ thinking processes and problem-solving experiences. Seifert and Sutton, based on the view that metacognition affects the improvement of academic achievement, regard it as a concept that is given importance in learning processes and encouraged by teachers. However, they also argue that learners might sometimes have difficulties in achieving metacognition, noting that metacognition is an important goal in that it guides learners to self-learning (Seifert & Sutton, 2009).

Associated with academic achievement, metacognition is structured in a teachable way and leads to various researches in which different strategies are tried. Some studies suggest that metacognition skills should be gained through structured practices including methods such as creating a supportive social environment, giving feedback, interactive problem solving, asking reflective questions, status information discussions and checklists (Özsoy, 2008).

A thorough search of the relevant literature showed that studies were conducted on metacognitive awareness and metacognitive thinking in different educational areas such as Turkish, Mathematics, Chemistry, Information Technologies, and Instructional Design (Çalışkan & Sünbül, 2011; Kauffman, 2004; Lazonder & Rouet, 2008; Schneider & Artelt, 2010; Schoenfeld, 1992; Phelps et al., 2004; Pulmones, 2008); however, the literature review yielded no study on students’ perceptions of metacognitive thinking skills in architectural education. In this context, the present paper aims to reveal the architecture students’ perception of metacognition thinking skills. To this end, answers to the following questions were sought:

1. What is the level of students' perception of metacognitive thinking skills?
2. Is there a significant difference between students' perception of metacognitive thinking skills and their grades (years at university)?
3. Is there a significant difference between students' perceptions of metacognitive thinking skills and their academic achievement?
4. Does students' perception of metacognitive thinking skills differ significantly by their sex?

Method

In this study, one of the general screening models, relational screening model was used. Screening models are considered suitable for research aimed at describing a past or present situation as it exists. Source research, history research and field research can be given as examples of the studies using relational survey model. General screening models are applied on the whole universe or on a sample from the universe to form a general judgment about the universe consisting of many elements. The relational screening models in this group aim to determine the existence or degree of co-change between two or more variables (Cebeci, 2018; Islamoglu & Almiaçık, 2016; Karasar, 2016).

Study Group

The research enrolled 74 (48 female, 26 male) first-year, 52 (31 female, 21 male) second-year, 71 (41 female, 30 male) third-year, and 81 (50 female, 31 male) fourth-year students studying in Karadeniz Technical University, Faculty of Architecture, Department of Architecture in the 2018-2019 academic year spring semester. A total of 278 students, 170 females and 108 males, participated in the study. Table 1 below presents some information about the participants.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the participant students

Sex	Number	Percentage (%)
Female	170	61.2
Male	108	38.8
Grade		
First-year	74	26.6
Second-year	52	18.7
Third-year	71	25.5
Fourth-year	81	29.1

Grade point average		
1.50-2.00	22	7.9
2.01-2.50	46	16.5
2.51-3.00	108	38.8
3.01-3.50	83	29.9
3.51-4.00	19	6.8
Total	278	100

An examination of the distribution of demographic characteristics in Table 1 reveals that, of the students participating in the research, 61.2% are female, 38.8% are male, 74 (26.6%) are first graders, 52 (18.7%) second graders, 71 (25.5%) third graders, and 81 (29.1%) fourth graders. Also, 7.9% have grade point averages between 1.50 and 2.00, 16.5% 2.01-2.50, 38.8% 2.51-3.00, 29.9% 3.01-3.50, and 6.8% 3.51-4.00.

Data Collection Tool

Metacognitive Thinking Skills Scale (MTSS)

The scale developed by Tuncer and Kaysi (2013) to determine perceptions of metacognition thinking skills consists of 18 items and four dimensions. The items in the scale are 5-point Likert type: “Strongly agree (5)”, “Agree (4)”, “Neither agree nor disagree (3)”, “Disagree (2)” and “Strongly disagree (1).” “Thinking” dimension consists of 5 items, “reflective thinking skills towards problems solving” dimension 5 items, “decision making” 4 items, and “alternative skills of evaluation” dimension 4 items. The Cronbach’s alpha (α) value of the scale was calculated as .881 (Tuncer & Kaysi, 2013). In this study, the Cronbach’s alpha (α) value of the scale was calculated as .795. Considering that the internal consistency coefficient should be at least .70, the data obtained from the research is acceptable.

Findings

SPSS 25.0 statistical package program was used for data analysis. The normal distribution analysis of the data obtained from the study was performed. Mean score, minimum and maximum score width, skewness and kurtosis coefficients were calculated. Since the number of participants was over 50, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to determine the suitability of the data for normal distribution. Data analysis was valid at 95% confidence level, and the significance level was accepted as .05. According to the tests conducted, the normal distribution results of the scores of the measurement sets are given below (Table 2).

Table 2. Result of normality tests of data distribution

Dimension	Kolmogorov-Smirnov (a)			Median	Skewness	Kurtosis
	Statistic	df	p			
Thinking skills	.090	278	.000	20	-.458	1.273
Reflective thinking skills towards problems solving	.100	278	.000	19	-.408	.218
Decision making skills	.109	278	.000	16	-.655	.541
Alternative skills of evaluation	.112	278	.000	15.5	-.269	.292

Kolmogorov-Smirnov (a) analysis revealed that the distribution of data on thinking, reflective thinking skills towards problems solving, decision making, and alternative skills of evaluation dimensions was not normal ($p < .05$). Considering the similarity of the mean-media, the other assumptions of the normal distribution, and the necessity of kurtosis and skewness between -2.5 and +2.5, it was determined that these values were suitable for normal distribution. According to the central limit theorem, a sample consisting of over 30 elements approximates normality. It was concluded in accordance with the central limit theorem that since the sample consisted of 278 students, although the distribution was not normal, the data is not far away from a normal distribution. In light of this information, it was determined that the data is not far away from a normal distribution (Table 2).

Table 3 presents data on students' perception of metacognitive thinking skills. The highest dimension was identified as thinking ($\bar{X} = 20.39$), while the lowest dimension was determined as the alternative skills of evaluation ($\bar{X} = 15.38$) (Table 3).

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of students' perception of metacognitive thinking skills

Dimension	<i>N</i>	\bar{X}	<i>SD</i>
Thinking skills	278	20.39	2.24
Reflective thinking skills towards problems solving	278	19.20	3.01
Decision making skills	278	16.47	2.50
Alternative skills of evaluation	278	15.38	2.20

Kruskal Wallis H test was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between the first, second, third and fourth year students in terms of the dimensions of metacognition thinking scale (Table 4).

Table 4. Results of the analysis of differences in students' perceptions of metacognitive thinking skills according to their grades

Dimension	Grade	<i>N</i>	Mean rank	χ^2	<i>SD</i>	<i>p</i>	Difference
Thinking skills	First-year	74	132.74	2.911	3	.406	
	Second-year	52	143.85				
	Third-year	71	131.20				
	Fourth-year	81	150.15				
Reflective thinking skills towards problems solving	First-year	74	121.08	10.896	3	.012*	1-4
	Second-year	52	142.38				3-4
	Third-year	71	131.42				
	Fourth-year	81	161.56				

Decision making skills	First-year	74	130.99	1.312	3	.726
	Second-year	52	140.12			
	Third-year	71	141.32			
	Fourth-year	81	145.28			
Alternative skills of evaluation	First-year	74	123.98	4.067	3	.254
	Second-year	52	145.10			
	Third-year	71	141.89			
	Fourth-year	81	147.99			

* $p < .05$

According to the Kruskal Wallis H test, there was no statistically significant difference between thinking, decision making, and alternative skills of evaluation dimensions and students' grades ($p > .05$). However, the difference in reflective thinking skills towards problems solving dimension ($\chi^2 = 10.896$, $p = .012$, $p < .05$) by grades was statistically significant at 95% confidence level. According to the data in Table 4, in the thinking dimension, fourth-year students have the highest mean rank (Mean rank=150.15), while third-year students have the lowest mean rank (Mean rank=131.20). In the reflective thinking skills towards problems solving dimension, fourth-year students have the highest mean rank (Mean rank=161.56), while third-year students have the lowest mean rank (Mean rank=121.08). In order to find out by which group significant difference is caused, Mann-Whitney U test, a pairwise comparison test, has been performed. According to the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, it is reported that there is a significant difference not only between first-year and fourth-year as well as third-year and fourth-year with regards to the students' perceptions concerning reflective thinking skills towards problems solving. In the decision making dimension, fourth-year students have the highest mean rank (Mean rank=145.28), while third-year students have the lowest mean rank (Mean rank=130.99). Finally, in the alternative skills of evaluation dimension, fourth-year students have the highest mean rank (Mean rank=147.99), while third-year students have the lowest mean rank (Mean rank=123.98).

Kruskal Wallis H test was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between students' perceptions of metacognitive thinking skills according to their academic achievement (Table 5).

Table 5. Results of the analysis of differences in students' perceptions of metacognitive thinking skills according to their grade point averages

Dimension	Academic GPA	N	Mean rank	χ^2	SD	p	Difference
Thinking skills	1.50-2.00	22	108.48	30.614	4	.000*	1-4
	2.01-2.50	46	105.99				1-5
	2.51-3.00	108	137.39				2-4
	3.01-3.50	83	151.77				2-5
	3.51-4.00	19	214.95				3-5
Reflective thinking skills towards problems solving	1.50-2.00	22	110.95	26.099	4	.000*	1-4
	2.01-2.50	46	109.21				1-5
	2.51-3.00	108	135.31				2-4
	3.01-3.50	83	153.75				2-5
	3.51-4.00	19	207.47				3-5
Decision making skills	1.50-2.00	22	112.05	14.961	4	.005*	1-4
	2.01-2.50	46	118.61				1-5
	2.51-3.00	108	135.73				2-4
	3.01-3.50	83	152.37				2-5
	3.51-4.00	19	187.08				3-5
Alternative skills of evaluation	1.50-2.00	22	122.98	7.752	4	.101	
	2.01-2.50	46	118.07				
	2.51-3.00	108	138.35				
	3.01-3.50	83	152.99				
	3.51-4.00	19	158.13				

*p<.05

According to the Kruskal Wallis H test, there was a statistically significant difference in thinking ($\chi^2=30.614$, $p=.000$, $p<.05$), reflective

thinking skills towards problems solving ($\chi^2=26.099$, $p=.000$, $p<.05$), and decision making ($\chi^2=14.961$, $p=.005$, $p<.05$) dimensions and students' grade point averages. However, there is no statistically significant difference between students' perceptions of the alternative skills of evaluation dimension and their grade point averages ($\chi^2=7.752$, $p=.101$, $p>.05$). According to the data in Table 5, in the thinking dimension, the students with grade point averages between 3.51 and 4.00 have the highest mean rank (Mean rank=214.95), while the students with grade point averages between 2.00 and 2.50 have the lowest mean rank (Mean rank=105.99). In the reflective thinking skills towards problems solving, the students with grade point averages between 3.51 and 4.00 have the highest mean rank (Mean rank=207.47), while the students with grade point averages between 2.00 and 2.50 have the lowest mean rank (Mean rank=109.21). In the decision making dimension, the students with grade point averages between 3.51 and 4.00 have the highest mean rank (Mean rank=187.08), while the students with grade point averages between 1.50 and 2.00 have the lowest mean rank (Mean rank=112.05). In order to find out by which group significant difference with regard to dimension of thinking skills, reflective thinking skills towards problem solving and decision making skills is caused, Mann-Whitney U test, a pairwise comparison test, has been performed. According to the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, the groups between who it is reported there is a significant difference are shown in Table 5. Finally, in the alternative skills of evaluation dimension, the students with grade point averages between 3.51 and 4.00 have the highest mean rank (Mean rank=158.13), while the students with grade point averages between 2.00 and 2.50 have the lowest mean rank (Mean rank=118.07).

Mann Whitney U test was performed to determine whether the students' perception of metacognitive thinking skills differed significantly according to their sex (Table 6).

Table 6. Results of the analysis of differences in students' perceptions of metacognitive thinking skills according to their sex

Dimension	Sex	<i>N</i>	Mean rank	<i>U</i>	<i>p</i>
Thinking skills	Female	170	143.89	8434.50	.249
	Male	108	132.60		
Reflective thinking skills towards problems solving	Female	170	142.11	8735.50	.494
	Male	108	135.38		

Decision making skills	Female	170	143.79	8451.00	.260
	Male	108	132.75		
Alternative skills of evaluation	Female	170	143.38	8520.50	.307
	Male	108	133.39		

The Mann Whitney U test revealed that there was no significant difference between male and female students' perception of metacognitive thinking skills ($p > .05$). According to the data in Table 6, female students have higher mean ranks than male students in all dimensions. However, this difference is not statistically significant.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study tried to reveal the architecture students' perception of metacognitive thinking skills. The first question of the study aimed at determining the level of students' perception of metacognitive thinking skills. The analysis showed that students have high levels of perception of metacognitive thinking skills. It is possible to say that this finding is an expected finding in terms of architectural education. It is thought that architecture students have high levels of perception of metacognitive thinking skills and thus can improve their personal and professional competencies themselves.

The second question of the research aimed at determining whether students' perceptions of metacognitive thinking skills show a significant difference according to their grades. The analysis showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the thinking, decision making, and alternative skills of evaluation dimensions and students' grades. However, fourth-year students' perceptions of the reflective thinking skills towards problems solving dimension were found to be high. Furthermore, it was determined that fourth-year students had higher mean ranks in all the other dimensions, as well. Based on this finding, we can argue students' perceptions of metacognitive thinking skills increase at the fourth grade. On the other hand, the mean ranks of fourth-year students did not significantly differ from those of other grade students in all but reflective thinking skills towards problems solving dimension, which makes it necessary for them to focus more on metacognitive thinking. Architectural education, by its nature, involves the process of identifying the problems, asking questions, evaluating the alternatives produced and linking them to possible outcomes. Therefore, the prediction of the internalisation of knowledge and its adaptation to practical situations directs learners to metacognition thinking. Therefore, introducing practices that will enable the development of metacognition thinking systematic starting from the first grade can be beneficial for students.

The third question of the research determined a statistically significant difference between students' perceptions of thinking, reflective thinking skills towards problems solving and decision making dimensions and grade point averages but no significant difference in terms of their perceptions of alternative skills of evaluation. The findings show that students with highest grade point averages (3.51-4.00) have higher levels of perceptions of metacognitive thinking skills. We can, therefore, conclude that students with academic achievement have higher levels of thinking, reflective thinking towards problems solving, and decision making skills. It was also determined that students with highest grade point averages have higher levels of perceptions of alternative skills of evaluation, though the difference was not significant. Based on this finding, we can suggest that students with high-grade point averages should focus more on alternative skills of evaluation. It is believed that the regular and continuous use of learning, regulating, auditing, planning, and monitoring activities will increase the academic achievement of learners. The literature review yielded studies that suggest that academic achievement is associated with metacognition (Borkowski et al., 1990; Hrbáčková et al., 2012; Kraayenoord & Schneider, 1999; Özsoy et al., 2009; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990). It is suggested that knowing metacognitive strategies is often not enough to improve learners' achievement; learners need to regulate their own cognition and learning as well as be motivated to employ learning strategies (Pintrich & de Groot, 1990). Such an approach to architectural education is thought to help students interpret the knowledge acquired in different ways and methods and produce new information and solutions in both theoretical and practical courses. Therefore, students will be able to focus more on metacognition thinking processes in their professional lives as well as the learning process.

The fourth question of the research aimed at determining whether students' perception of metacognitive thinking skills differed significantly according to sex. The findings show that there is no significant difference between male and female students' perception of metacognitive thinking skills. This finding is consistent with some studies in the literature. Siswati and Corebima (2017), Kummin and Rahman (2010), Dikmen and Tuncer (2018) concluded that metacognitive skills did not differ according to sex. However, there are studies that find significant differences in favour of female students (Demir & Özmen, 2011; Adıgüzel & Orhan, 2017) as well as male students (Al-khayat, 2012; Holden & Yore, 1996). Nevertheless, the present study found no significant difference between female and male students' perception of metacognitive skills.

In light of the findings obtained from the research, we can suggest that practices that will enable the development of metacognition thinking skills are of great importance for learners to be aware of the strategies and choose

the appropriate strategy when producing alternatives in relation to a design problem encountered, identifying ways of problem-solving and making decisions. In the context of the design process, in particular, we recommend the inclusion of metacognitive thinking practices before designing, during designing, and during the evaluation of the designed product.

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A QUALITATIVE REVIEW ON THE VIEWS OF PRESCHOOL TEACHERS, ADMINISTRATORS, AND PRE- SERVICE TEACHERS ABOUT CHILD ABUSE AND NEGLECT*

Bengü TÜRKÖĞLU**

1. Introduction

It can be possible for a society to progress, develop and improve the quality of life only if children growing up in that society develop physically, mentally, and socially in a healthy way (Bostancı, Albayrak, Bakoğlu, & Çoban, 2006; Caneira & Myrick, 2015; Kocaer, 2006; Kürklü, 2011; Toydemir & Efiltili, 2019). Children, who are taught their rights and responsibilities they have to fulfill starting from the preschool period, develop positive personality traits. These rights and responsibilities can be easily acquired through teacher guidance, participatory practices, and parental support in preschool education institutions (Peterson-Badali, Morine, Ruck, & Slonim, 2004). Children growing up with the awareness of their rights and responsibilities from an early age can realize all kinds of risk situations they may face, and they can ask for help against those situations.

The Child Protection Law (CPL, 2005), which aims to regulate the procedures and principles for the protection of children and the assurance of their rights and well-being, divides children at risk into two groups: “juveniles who are in need of protection” and “juveniles pushed to crime.” While juveniles who are in need of protection refer to children whose physical, mental, moral, social, and emotional development and personal safety are at risk and who are neglected or abused, or victims of crime, juveniles pushed to crime refer to children who are investigated or prosecuted for allegedly committing a crime defined in the law or for whom a security measure has been decided due to the act committed by them. The studies reveal that children with family problems and conflicts, oppressive or inconsistent parents, financial impossibility and low academic achievement are generally included in risky peer groups (Asnes & Leventhal, 2010; Dönmez, 2007; Korkut, 2004; McCoy, Cummings, & Davies, 2009; McWhirter, McWhirter, McWhirter, & McWhirter, 2004; Pezzot-Pearce & Pearce, 2004; Shelton & Harold, 2008). Schools are appropriate environments where children are observed by both teachers and other adults after the family environment and risky behaviors are

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** (Asst. Prof. Ph.D.); Necmettin Erbakan University, Konya, Turkey. E-mail: turkoglubengu@gmail.com

determined, measures are taken, and support and intervention programs are implemented (Calhoun, Glaser, & Bartolomucci, 2001; McWhirter et al., 2004; Nalbant, 2010; Şevkin, 2008).

Child abuse and neglect is a legal, developmental, psycho-social, and medical problem along with its causes and tragic consequences that are as old as human history. From this aspect, it is perceived differently in different societies and cultures (Iravani, 2011; Kara, Biçer, & Gökalp, 2004; Ovayolu, Uçan, & Serindağ, 2007; Topbaş, 2004; Yaşar & Akduman, 2007). Child abuse and neglect is a public health problem which affects children negatively, physically, emotionally, socially and cognitively, leads to irreparable problems in the lives of both children and their families, and affects not only the families but also the society, social institutions, legal systems, education system, and business areas (Akbaş, 2002; Akduman, Ruban, Akduman, & Korkusuz, 2005; Beyazıt & Bütün Ayhan, 2015; Beyaztaş, Oral, Bütün, Beyaztaş, & Büyükayhan, 2009; İnsan Hakları Derneği [Human Rights Association], 2008; Taner & Gökler, 2004). The need for the protection of children from all kinds of abuse, neglect, and exploitation was adopted by a resolution of the United Nations General Assembly dated 20 November 1989 and included in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child to which our country is a party and which was signed by 197 countries (Korkmaz, Saçan, Yücel, Gürkan, & Kırık, 2015; Kurt, 2016; UNICEF, 1989).

The World Health Organization (WHO, 1999) defines “child abuse” as all forms of physical and/or emotional ill-treatment, sexual abuse, neglect or negligent treatment or commercial or other exploitation, which may result in actual or potential harm to the child’s health, survival, development or dignity in the context of a relationship of responsibility, trust or power, and defines “neglect” as both individual events and the failure of a parent or other family members to do what is necessary for the development and well-being of the child, such as health, education, emotional development, nutrition, shelter and safe living conditions, when actually possible. The types of abuse are physical abuse, emotional abuse, and sexual abuse. While physical abuse refers to physical harm to the child in a way that damages the health, development or dignity of the child, emotional abuse refers to the child’s exposure to behaviors such as rejection, humiliation, blame, threatening in a way to impair the mental health and development of the child, and sexual abuse refers to the use of the child for sexual satisfaction of an adult or an adolescent older than the child. The types of neglect are physical neglect, emotional neglect, medical neglect, and educational neglect. While physical neglect refers to a failure to provide proper nutrition, shelter, and safe environmental conditions, emotional neglect refers to the lack of love and care for the child and the lack of interest in the child, medical neglect refers to a failure to provide

health care or its delay, and educational neglect refers to a failure to meet the child's educational needs (Pala, 2011; Taner & Gökler, 2004; Uğur Baysal & Şahin, 2014; Yazar & Yarış, 2011).

The studies revealed that the socio-economic level of the family and parenting behaviors (Aral, 1997; Howard & BrooksGunn, 2009; Yalçın, Koçak, & Duman, 2014), single parenting, parental depression level, education level and age (Akduman, 2010; Dubowitz, Kim, Black, Wisbart, & Semiatin, 2011; Kara et al., 2004), distress caused by economic, social, and environmental deprivation (Bahar, Savaş, & Bahar, 2009; Rimsza, Schackner, Bowen, & Marshall, 2002; Tercier, 2008), and the age of the child (Kennair & Mellor, 2007) were closely associated with abuse and neglect. Furthermore, studies also indicated that behavioral and developmental disorders were observed in abused and neglected children, and those children were more likely to have an abusive personality (Özer, 2014; Parkinson, Adams, & Emerling, 2001; Polat, 2002; Tercier, 2008; Yalçın et al., 2014).

2. Importance and Aim of the Study

The first social environment where the child is together with his/her peers and adults after the family environment is preschool education institutions. It is very important for a child to receive qualified education to be supported in all areas of development. In addition to receiving qualified education, it is undoubtedly the duty of preschool education institutions to raise the awareness of the family of many social issues so that problems are prevented. In this respect, preschool education institutions and professionals are very important both for children and families.

It is of vital importance to raise awareness of child abuse and neglect, which is considered as one of the most important social problems nowadays, and to inform parents about the steps to be taken to prevent abuse and neglect. Individuals who will be able to have the mission of raising awareness of families of child abuse and neglect and to reach families in the early period are primarily preschool teachers and administrators working in preschool education institutions. When it is considered from this point of view, it is very important to determine and examine the levels of knowledge and views of preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service preschool teachers, who can play an active role in preventing the occurrence of child abuse and neglect, can make significant contributions to detecting it early and coping with it effectively, who can also raise awareness of the family and therefore the society of child abuse and neglect (Dereobalı, Karadağ, & Sönmez, 2013). It is of great importance to increase the level of awareness of professionals working in preschool education institutions and then all segments of

society of the deficiencies and needs determined in the knowledge levels of teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers, despite the cases of abuse and neglect that increase with each passing day, through in-service training. When the literature was reviewed, no study examining the views of preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers comparatively was found, so this study is important in this respect.

The general aim of this study was to determine the views of preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers on child abuse and neglect. In accordance with the general aim of the study, teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers were asked questions of which children were at risk, what child neglect was, its reasons, its effects on children, what child abuse was, the risk factors that increase abuse, its effects on children, and what needed to be done to protect children from abuse.

3. Method

3.1. Research Model

This is a qualitative study carried out to determine the views of preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers on child abuse and neglect. Since the data are collected in detail and also presented in detail in qualitative studies, the conclusions reached are rich and descriptive (Seggie & Bayyurt, 2015). The phenomenology design, one of the qualitative research designs, was used in the study. The phenomenological study focuses on how people perceive, describe and judge the phenomena which they are aware of but of which they do not have an in-depth and detailed understanding, and how they make sense of their experiences related to this phenomenon (Creswell, 2014; Patton, 2014; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011).

3.2. Study Group

Eighteen preschool teachers and sixteen preschool administrators working in independent kindergartens in the city center of Konya, and twenty pre-service preschool teachers studying in the final year of Necmettin Erbakan University Department of Preschool Education constituted the study group of the research. The study group was reached by using the criterion sampling method, which is one of the purposeful sampling methods among the non-probability sampling selection techniques. In the criterion sampling method, the sample is composed of people, events, objects or situations with the qualifications identified in relation to the problem situation (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz, & Demirel, 2009). The fact that preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers received education on abuse and neglect and the fact that students were informed about abuse and neglect

by preschool teachers and administrators in the classrooms and by pre-service preschool teachers in the application classrooms were determined as criteria in this study. At the beginning of the study, 41 preschool teachers, 28 preschool administrators, and 44 pre-service preschool teachers were asked to fill out the Personal Information Form. As a result of the examination of forms, the study group consisted of preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers who met the determined criteria and volunteered to participate in the study.

Table 1. Demographic Information of Preschool Teachers/Administrators/Pre-service Teachers

Demographic Information		Preschool Teachers			Preschool Administrators			Pre-service Teachers		
		n	f	%	n	f	%	n	f	%
Gender	Female	18	14	78	16	14	88	20	15	75
	Male		4	22		2	12		5	25
Age	21-25	18	2	11	16	0	0	20	17	85
	26-30		5	28		2	12		2	10
	31-35		7	39		9	57		1	5
	36-40		4	22		5	31		0	0
Educational status	High school Associate Degree	18	0	0	16	0	0	20	17	85
	Undergraduate Degree		0	0		0	0		3	15
	Master's Degree		12	67		11	69		0	0
			6	33		5	31		0	0
Professional Seniority	0 years	18	0	0	16	0	0	20	17	85
	1-5 years		3	17		0	0		2	10
	6-10 years		4	22		6	38		1	5
	11-15 years		8	44		8	50		0	0
	16-20 years		3	17		2	12		0	0
Having Received Education on Abuse and Neglect	Yes	18	18	100	16	16	100	20	20	100
	No		0	0		0	0		0	0
Informing Students About Abuse and Neglect	Yes	18	18	100	16	16	100	20	20	100
	No		0	0		0	0		0	0

3.3. Data Collection Tools

A semi-structured interview form was used as the data collection tool in this study. The Child Abuse and Neglect Interview Form consisted of 2 sections. The first section included questions about the personal information of preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers such as gender, age, educational status, professional seniority, having received education on abuse and neglect, and informing students about abuse and neglect. The second section included questions about children at risk, child neglect, its reasons and its effects on children, abuse, risk factors that increase abuse, its effects on children and the ways to protect children from abuse. Semi-structured interviews allow for in-depth collection, rapid coding, and analysis of data since questions are flexible and enable to easily compare similarities and differences between information (Büyüköztürk et al., 2009; Çepni, 2005; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). At first, the literature was reviewed, and the questions that were considered to be included in the interview form were prepared. Then, 2 field experts and 2 social service experts were consulted in order to evaluate the interview form in terms of aim, meaning, and scope and to ensure its validity, and the semi-structured interview form consisting of 8 questions was created. The preliminary application of the interview questions was performed with 2 preschool teachers, 1 administrator, and 2 pre-service teachers who did not participate in the study, and the interview questions were finalized after checking whether the questions were clear and understandable.

3.4. Data Collection

The interviews were conducted individually and face-to-face with each of the preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers, who constituted the study group, between September 30 and December 17, 2017. Before the data collection, the aim of the study was explained to teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers by the researcher, and they were provided with detailed information about the study. It was indicated that it was very important for them to sincerely answer the questions in the interview form to reach the aim of the study. The recorder was used to prevent data loss during the interviews, and each interview lasted for an average of 30 minutes. Then, the recorded data were written out, the data were processed according to the identified themes, and the results were interpreted through direct quotations.

3.5. Data Analysis

The “descriptive analysis” and “content analysis” techniques that are among qualitative data analysis methods were partially used in the data analysis. Descriptive analysis is an analysis technique in which the data obtained are summarized and interpreted according to the predetermined themes, the opinions of the interviewees are frequently used through direct

quotations, and the results obtained are interpreted within the scope of cause-effect relationships (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). Content analysis is used to reveal themes and dimensions that require in-depth analysis of the collected data and have not been apparent previously (Çepni, 2005; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). The data obtained in the study were organized by the researcher, the categories were created by combining the statements with similarity and differences, and they were interpreted by being associated with the themes. The opinions of an expert researcher working in the same field were used to determine the themes and categories. After the answers of teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers to the interview questions were coded by the researcher, a code key was created, and the interview code key for each interview form was filled in by the field expert. Thus, intercoder consistency was calculated. While code numbers in the form of (T1, T2, T3...) were given to preschool teachers who were asked for their opinions in the analyses, administrators and pre-service preschool teachers were given code numbers in the form of (A1, A2, A3...) and (PS1, PS2, PS3...), respectively. Percentage (%) and frequency (f) techniques were used to analyze the data obtained from the study.

3.6. Validity and Reliability Studies

In the study, more than one expert review was first included to ensure internal validity (credibility). The transcriptions of the interviews recorded by a voice recorder were presented to the participants for review, and the participant confirmation was obtained. The data were obtained through direct and long-term interaction in a natural setting. Furthermore, direct quotations of the participants were also used. All processes performed in the research process (research model, study group, data collection tool, data collection process, data analysis and interpretation, how the results were arranged) were explained in detail to increase the external validity (transferability) of the study. The themes and categories were clearly defined so that readers could easily understand them. All results were presented directly without interpretation and generalization to increase the internal reliability (consistency) of the study. Furthermore, the data obtained in the study were evaluated by two field experts, coded separately, and the codings were compared, and consensus was achieved in the general sense. The codes with “consensus” and “dissensus” were determined by the encoders. The reliability formula proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) $\text{Consensus Percentage} = \text{Consensus} / (\text{Consensus} + \text{Dissensus}) * 100$ was used in the calculation of reliability of the coding. It is considered that the percentage of reliability has been reached when the agreement percentage in the reliability calculation is 70% (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). In the study, this formula was used, the intercoder agreement percentage was calculated to be 0.87 for the first question, 0.88 for the second

question, 0.87 for the third question, 0.94 for the fourth question, 0.91 for the fifth question, 0.93 for the sixth question, 0.88 for the seventh question, and 0.94 for the eighth question, and the overall agreement level for all questions was calculated to be 0.90. When it is considered that the ratios were above 70%, it can be said that the intercoder reliability coefficient was sufficient. It was attempted to make necessary explanations in detail so that the study could be tested with other studies. Furthermore, external reliability (confirmability) was ensured by keeping the interview data obtained from the participants to make comparisons with other studies in the future.

4. Results

This section of the study included the results achieved as a result of the analysis of opinions obtained from the interview forms that were used to determine the views of preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers in the study group on child abuse and neglect.

4.1. Children at Risk

In the analysis of the data obtained from the interviews, children at risk are “refugee children,” “children exposed to violence,” “street children,” “children in prison,” and “working children” according to preschool teachers, and “refugee children,” “children exposed to violence,” and “children in prison” according to preschool administrators, and “children exposed to violence,” “refugee children,” “children in prison,” “working children,” and “street children” according to pre-service preschool teachers.

Table 2. Children at Risk

Children	Group*	n	f	%
Refugee Children <i>(Immigrant, Asylum Seeker)</i>	1	18	9	50
	2	16	7	44
	3	20	5	25
Children Exposed to Violence <i>(Beaten, Insulted, Intimidated)</i>	1	18	5	28
	2	16	6	38
	3	20	7	35
Street Children <i>(Living in the street, Working in the street)</i>	1	18	2	10
	2	16	0	0
	3	20	2	10
Children in Prison <i>(Children in detention, Sentenced children)</i>	1	18	1	6
	2	16	3	18
	3	20	3	15
Working Children <i>(Working in a job, Those who are not sent to school)</i>	1	18	1	6
	2	16	0	0
	3	20	3	15

* 1=Teachers 2= Administrators 3= Pre-service Teachers

As it is understood from Table 2, the majority of the preschool teachers and administrators who participated in the interview considered that children at risk were “refugee children,” while the majority of the pre-service preschool teachers considered that children at risk were “children exposed to violence.”

Examples of the answers indicating that refugee children are at risk are as follows:

“In our country, I think that especially Syrian refugee children are at risk.” (T7)

“Every asylum-seeker child to whom we cannot teach our language, whom we cannot socialize and whom we marginalize is absolutely at risk.” (A3)

“I think that Syrian immigrant children who have been torn from their countries because of the war are unfortunately the first interlocutors of all potential dangers.” (PS12)

Examples of the answers indicating that children exposed to violence are at risk are as follows:

“A child beaten by his/her family or those in the immediate surrounding either tries to make others have his/her own experiences or becomes thoroughly introverted and accepts everything; both cases are very dangerous.” (T13)

“Children who are hit, beaten, insulted, abused, in other words, intimidated mostly are children who are desperate and at risk and do not know what to do in case of negative situations.” (A16)

“Children who are exposed to physical and verbal violence are most likely to commit crimes since they have lost their sense of trust.” (PS5)

Examples of the answers indicating that street children are at risk are presented below:

“Children who are forced to work and live on the streets all day are most likely to commit crimes and are defenseless children.” (T4)

“I think that children who use the streets as working and living places have high rates of being pushed to crime.” (T17)

“Children who work or live on the streets are highly likely to be exposed to violence and negative situations such as substance abuse.” (PS9)

Examples of the answers indicating that children in prison are at risk are given below:

“I think that the violence experienced by children in detention, who are separated from their families, from their peers in their environment pushes them to crime.” (T10)

“I think that sentenced children who are exposed to ill-treatment are also at risk of committing a crime again.” (A11)

“The sentenced children in prison have a high rate of involvement in crime again with respect to issues such as substance abuse and using violence.” (PS19)

Examples of the answers indicating that working children are at risk are as follows:

“It is not a surprising fact that children who are employed and not sent to school are potential criminals.” (T8)

“Children who are employed in works that are not appropriate to their age and are dangerous are at risk in terms of being involved in crimes and experiencing life-threatening situations.” (PS14)

“I think that the ratios of encountering with addictive substances and being involved in the crime of individuals who are employed by being kept away from education life are higher compared to their peers who study.” (PS17)

4.2. Definition of Child Neglect

In the analysis of the data obtained from the interviews, preschool teachers, preschool administrators, and pre-service preschool teachers defined child neglect as “a failure to meet physical needs,” “a failure to meet emotional needs,” and “a failure to meet educational needs.” Furthermore, one of the preschool teachers defined child neglect as “a failure to meet medical needs.”

Table 3. Definition of Child Neglect

Neglect	Group	n	f	%
A Failure to Meet Physical Needs	1	18	10	55
<i>(Malnutrition, cleaning of the body and clothes, keeping uncontrolled)</i>	2	16	9	56
	3	20	2	10
	1	18	5	28
A Failure to Meet Emotional Needs	2	16	6	38
<i>(Inadequate love, care, approval)</i>	3	20	14	70
	1	18	2	11
A Failure to Meet Educational Needs	2	16	1	6
<i>(Not sending to school, Ignoring educational needs)</i>	3	20	4	20
	1	18	1	6
A Failure to Meet Medical Needs	2	16	0	0
<i>(Keeping away from health services)</i>	3	20	0	0

As it is seen in Table 3, the majority of the preschool teachers and administrators participating in the interview stated that child neglect was the “failure to meet physical needs,” and the majority of the pre-service preschool teachers stated that child neglect was the “failure to meet emotional needs.”

Examples of the answers expressing child neglect as the failure to meet physical needs are presented below:

“A failure to provide children with healthy and adequate nutrition is the biggest neglect.” (T1)

“It refers to ignoring and disregarding issues such as the child’s body cleaning and cleaning of clothes.” (A9)

“It refers to leaving a little child, who is too young to comprehend what is harmful and what is useful, alone at home and threatening his/her safety.” (PS7)

Examples of the answers expressing child neglect as the failure to meet emotional needs are as follows:

“It refers to the failure to show adequate love and affection toward the child.” (T5)

“It refers to the failure to show the love, care, and intimacy that need to exist between mother-child, father-child, toward the child.” (A14)

“It refers to the fact that the child is kept away from the feeling that he/she is loved and approved by his/her parents, which is the most important need of the child.” (PS3)

Examples of the answers expressing child neglect as the failure to meet educational needs are given below:

“It refers to the fact that children are forced to work without being sent to school and taking away their right to education.” (T3)

“It refers to the fact that children are not sent to school or are absolutely disregarded even if they are sent to school.” (A2)

“It refers to ignoring all requests and needs of the child during the education process.” (PS15)

An example of the answer expressing child neglect as the failure to meet medical needs is presented below:

“It refers to the fact that the child is not taken to the doctor when he/she gets sick, the required immunizations are not fulfilled, in other words, the child is prevented from benefiting from essential health services.” (T18)

4.3. Reasons for Child Neglect

In the analysis of the data obtained from the interviews, while preschool teachers and preschool administrators indicated the reasons for child neglect as “negative past experiences of parents,” “inadequate socio-economic conditions,” “characteristics of parents,” and “characteristics of children”, pre-service preschool teachers indicated the reasons as “negative past experiences of parents,” “inadequate socio-economic conditions,” and “characteristics of parents.”

Table 4. Reasons for Child Neglect

Reasons	Group	n	f	%
Negative Past Experiences of Parents	1	18	8	44
<i>(Physical violence in childhood, Emotional violence in childhood, Ignoring)</i>	2	16	3	19
	3	20	5	25
Inadequate Socio-Economic Conditions	1	18	4	22
<i>(Financial impossibility, Unemployment)</i>	2	16	7	44
	3	20	6	30
Characteristics of Parents	1	18	5	28
<i>(Lack of knowledge, Immature parents, Single parent, Incompatible parent, Inconsistent parent)</i>	2	16	5	31
	3	20	9	45
Characteristics of Children	1	18	1	6
<i>(Child with a disability, Incompatible child)</i>	2	16	1	6
	3	20	0	0

As it is seen in Table 4, the majority of the preschool teachers who participated in the interview about the reasons for child neglect indicated “negative past experiences of parents,” the majority of the preschool administrators indicated “inadequate socio-economic conditions,” and the majority of the pre-service preschool teachers indicated “characteristics of parents” as the reasons for child neglect.

Examples of the answers indicating the reason for child neglect as the negative past experiences of parents are as follows:

“I think that the fact that mothers and fathers have been exposed to violence by being beaten or insulted in their childhood or have been children in a fragmented family affects their current lives quite negatively.” (T15)

“I think that the ill-treatment experienced by parents in the past is the main reason why they treat their children in the same way.” (A6)

“I think that mothers and fathers who have been neglected in their childhood are more inclined to neglect their children.” (PS2)

Examples of the answers indicating the reason for child neglect as inadequate socio-economic conditions are given below:

“I think that children are exposed to emotional neglect more since the inadequate financial situation increases the level of anxiety of parents.” (T9)

“The financial impossibility of the family leads to the failure to meet the needs of children such as nutrition, cleaning, and dressing.” (A4)

“I think that families neglect children from various aspects since problems related to economic insufficiency due to unemployment overwhelm families.” (PS20)

Examples of the answers indicating the reason for child neglect as the characteristics of parents are given below:

“People who become parents at an early age often abuse their children unconsciously since they do not know how to be parents, what to do, and are often immature.” (T6)

“When the mother or father has to leave and a single parent has to raise the child, the mother or father may neglect the child due to the responsibilities he/she has assumed, and the difficulties.” (A8)

“A poor relationship between parents, and the fact that they do not love and respect each other and are an incompatible couple negatively affect child-raising.” (PS10)

Examples of the answers indicating the reason for child neglect as the characteristics of children are as follows:

“I think that children who are incompatible and whiny and have limited social communication are neglected more by their families.” (T2)

“I think that mothers and especially fathers who have a child with a disability cannot accept this situation and reflect this situation to the child through various methods of violence.” (A10)

4.4. Effects of Neglect on Children

When the data obtained from the interviews were analyzed, preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers indicated the effects of neglect on children as “behavior problems,” “developmental problems,” and “communication problems.”

Table 5. Effects of Neglect on Children

Effects of Neglect	Group	n	f	%
Behavior Problems <i>(Nail biting, Lying, Aggression, Tics, Shyness)</i>	1	18	11	61
	2	16	8	50
	3	20	13	65
Developmental Problems <i>(Mental development retardation, physical development retardation)</i>	1	18	5	28
	2	16	7	44
	3	20	4	20
Communication Problems <i>(Failure to communicate, Insecurity, Loneliness, Vulnerability)</i>	1	18	2	11
	2	16	1	6
	3	20	3	15

As it is seen in Table 5, the majority of the preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers who participated in the interview about the effects of child neglect on children stated that it led to “behavior problems.”

Examples of the answers indicating the effect of child neglect on children as behavior problems are given below:

“I have observed that nail-biting behavior has developed in neglected children who are intensely worried about losing the approval of their parents.” (T16)

“These children often behave aggressively toward their friends and find it difficult to control themselves.” (A7)

“I had a student who was continuously lying in my internship school. Initially, I thought that it was imagination, but later, I regretfully learned that he acted like that since he thought he was not liked by his family.” (PS4)

Examples of the answers indicating the effect of child neglect on children as developmental problems are as follows:

“The neglect experienced by children with respect to love, care, and nutrition disrupts their development, both mentally and physically.” (T12)

“Based on my observations, I can clearly state that physically neglected children suffer from physical developmental disability.” (A1)

“I think neglected children will always fall behind their peers developmentally.” (PS18)

Examples of the answers indicating the effect of child neglect on children as communication problems are presented below:

“These children have difficulty in establishing healthy communication with their peers.” (T14)

“Children who are neglected by their parents cannot communicate properly with adults sine their feeling of trust is impaired.” (A5)

“I think that these children have serious problems in their relationships with their peers and adults.” (PS1)

4.5. Definition of Child Abuse

When the data obtained from the interviews were analyzed, preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers defined child abuse as “physical abuse,” “emotional abuse,” “sexual abuse,” and “economic abuse.”

Table 6. Definition of Child Abuse

Abuse	Group	n	f	%
Physical Abuse	1	18	9	50
<i>(Hitting by hand, Hitting with an object, Shaking, Pushing, Hurting)</i>	2	16	7	44
	3	20	9	45
Emotional Abuse	1	18	5	28
<i>(Shouting, Insulting, Humiliating, Making feel worthless)</i>	2	16	5	31
	3	20	3	15
Sexual Abuse	1	18	3	16
<i>(Touching private areas, Swearing, Exhibitionism, Voyeurism, Sexual talk, Sexual action)</i>	2	16	3	19
	3	20	7	35
Economic Abuse	1	18	1	6
<i>(Taking the child from school and forcing him to work, getting financial gain)</i>	2	16	1	6
	3	20	1	5

As it is seen in Table 6, the majority of the preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers who participated in the interview defined child abuse as “physical abuse.”

Examples of the answers indicating child abuse as physical abuse are given below:

“It refers to the fact that the child is beaten by a parent, relative, teacher, or an unknown adult.” (T4)

“It refers to hitting a child with a hand or an object such as a ruler and a stick, pushing and shaking the child.” (A13)

“It refers to hitting a child, inflicting pain and even hurting.” (PS6)

Examples of the answers indicating child abuse as emotional abuse are as follows:

“It refers to shouting loudly in a way to scare and intimidate the child.” (T11)

“It refers to insulting the child in a way to humiliate and stigmatize the child.” (A15)

“It refers to telling or making a child feel that he/she is unimportant, unloved, and unappreciated.” (PS13)

Examples of the answers indicating child abuse as sexual abuse are presented below:

“It refers to an adult’s sexual sentences without touching the child, exhibitionism, or voyeurism.” (T9)

“It refers to the fact that an adult touches a child’s private areas in a way to make the child feel uncomfortable and bad.” (A12)

“It refers to tricking children in various ways and exposing them to sexual actions.” (PS11)

Examples of the answers indicating child abuse as economic abuse are as follows:

“It refers to the fact that the child is detached from education life, forced to work and considered as a source of money.” (T2)

“It refers to the fact that parents consider their child as a source of income and want to get financial gain from him/her.” (A7)

“It refers to the fact that the child, who has to continue his/her education life, is forced to work in order to contribute to the household budget.” (PS8)

4.6. Risk Factors Increasing Abuse

When the data obtained from the interviews were analyzed, preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers indicated the risk factors increasing child abuse as “parent-based,” “child-based,” and “community-based.”

Table 7. Risk Factors Increasing Abuse

Risk Factors	Group	n	f	%
Parent-based	1	18	13	72
<i>(Exposure to physical violence, exposure to emotional violence, loveless family environment, Alcohol use, Substance abuse)</i>	2	16	10	63
	3	20	15	75
Child-based	1	18	4	22
<i>(Active children, Attention-grabbing children, Beaten children, Insulted children, Children with disabilities)</i>	2	16	4	25
	3	20	3	15
Community-based	1	18	1	6
<i>(Violent publications, Violent images, Negative upbringing environment)</i>	2	16	2	12
	3	20	2	10

As it is seen in Table 7, the risk factors increasing child abuse were “parent-based” according to the majority of the preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers who participated in the interview.

Examples of the answers indicating the risk factors increasing child abuse as parent-based are given below:

“At the parent meetings, I usually learn that parents who expose their child to physical and emotional abuse are individuals who have been abused in their childhood.” (T7)

“I think that parents who are divorced and have economic troubles, many children and alcohol or substance abuse use physical or emotional violence against their children.” (A8)

“The lack of respect and love between parents and even the violence against each other are reflected on defenseless children born in this relationship.” (PS3)

Examples of the answers indicating the risk factors increasing child abuse as child-based are as follows:

“I observe that very active and cranky children are insulted and beaten more.” (T13)

“I have witnessed several times from the parents of our school that the parents who have children with a disability behave patiently with others and resort to violence when they are alone.” (A12)

“My sister had given birth prematurely and my nephew was premature, I was very surprised when the nurses told us that parents could hardly

accept the child, but it was really true, they are still very intolerant to my 8-year-old nephew.” (PS9)

Examples of the answers indicating the risk factors increasing child abuse as community-based are presented below:

“The exposure of children to violent cartoons, series, and programs on television causes them to take the characters they watch as a model and to apply it in their own lives.” (T8)

“The fact that the relatives, neighbors, and friends of the child try to solve problems based on violence and bad words in the environment where the child grows up is a risk factor for the child.” (A3)

“I think that physical and emotional violence, which is advocated to be applied for disciplinary purposes to the child, is approved by society is the most important reason that paves the way for abuse.” (PS1)

4.7. Effects of Abuse on Children

When the data obtained from the interviews were analyzed, while preschool teachers indicated the effects of abuse on children as “behavioral problems,” “emotional problems,” “social problems,” “physical problems,” and “cognitive problems,” preschool administrators indicated them as “behavioral problems,” “emotional problems,” “social problems,” and “physical problems,” and pre-service preschool teachers indicated them as “emotional problems,” “behavioral problems,” “physical problems,” and “social problems.”

Table 8. Effects of Abuse on Children

Effects of Abuse	Group	n	f	%
Behavioral Problems	1	18	8	44
<i>(Continuous crying, Aggression, Passivity, Nail-biting, Urine and fecal incontinence)</i>	2	16	6	38
	3	20	5	25
Emotional Problems	1	18	7	38
<i>(Anxious, Coward, Insecure, Worried)</i>	2	16	4	25
	3	20	8	40
Social Problems	1	18	1	6
<i>(Inability to communicate, Addiction)</i>	2	16	4	25
	3	20	3	15
Physical Problems	1	18	1	6
<i>(Bruising, wound, physical violence, fracture, burn)</i>	2	16	2	12
	3	20	4	20
Cognitive Problems	1	18	1	6
<i>(Perception, Concentration, Comprehension, Attention deficit)</i>	2	16	0	0
	3	20	0	0

As it is understood from Table 8, the effects of abuse on children were “behavioral problems” according to the majority of the preschool teachers and administrators participating in the interview and “emotional problems” according to the majority of the pre-service teachers.

Examples of the answers describing the effects of abuse on children as behavioral problems are given below:

“Stubbornness, or on the contrary, behavioral disorders such as accepting everything without objection, nail-biting and continuous crying are observed in children.” (T14)

“I witness that abused children exhibit aggressive behaviors to be able to overcome the trauma they have experienced.” (A14)

“Problems such as urine or fecal incontinence may occur in these children.” (PS10)

Examples of the answers describing the effects of abuse on children as emotional problems are as follows:

“In particular, physically abused children usually reflect a worried and anxious mood.” (T8)

“Actually, we can easily identify the abused child since he/she is more insecure and more coward than his/her peers.” (A2)

“I have two students who are exposed to violence at home in my internship school, and whenever there is a problem, they start defending themselves for no reason without saying anything and then have a burst of anger.” (PS20)

Examples of the answers describing the effects of abuse on children as social problems are presented below:

“These children have great difficulty in establishing and maintaining friendship.” (T18)

“One of the most important problems of abused children is that they develop dependence on people whom they trust and move away from all other people.” (A9)

“In particular, emotionally abused children become isolated since they cannot communicate easily, and they cannot overcome their problems on their own.” (PS16)

Examples of the answers describing the effects of abuse on children as physical problems are as follows:

“I can easily understand that the child has been subjected to physical violence through bruising and scars on his body.” (T6)

“During my years of teaching, one of my students was not sent to school for a long time because his arm was broken, and the family did not accept my home visit, and when I asked the child how his arm was broken when he came, he cried and told me that his father pushed him.” (A15)

“One of my students in my internship school had a burn mark on his hand. When I asked him how it had happened, he unmovingly said that he had been misbehaving, and his mom had gotten angry and touched a hot iron to his body.” (PS12)

An example of the answer describing the effects of abuse on children as cognitive problems is given below:

“The most important problems that I have observed in children with emotional abuse are attention deficit, and difficulty in perception and comprehension.” (T1)

4.8. Ways to Protect Children from Abuse

When the data obtained from the interviews were analyzed, preschool teachers, preschool administrators, and pre-service preschool teachers indicated that the ways to protect children from abuse were “measures taken for children” and “measures taken for adults.”

Table 9. Ways to Protect Children from Abuse

Ways to Protect	Group	n	f	%
Measures Taken for Children	1	18	15	83
<i>(Encouraging them to tell what is experienced, Teaching how to protect boundaries, Making feel they are considered important, Informing them about their rights)</i>	2	16	11	69
	3	20	16	80
Measures Taken for Adults	1	18	3	17
<i>(Education on abuse and neglect, Listening to the child, Recognizing behavioral changes, Respecting the boundaries of the child, Informing about the notice)</i>	2	16	5	31
	3	20	4	20

As it is understood from Table 9, the most important way to protect children from abuse was the “measures taken for children” according to the majority of the preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers participating in the interview.

Examples of the answers indicating the way to protect children from abuse as the measures taken for children are as follows:

“We should teach our children to protect their body boundaries and to say no and ask for help if these boundaries are endangered.” (T5)

“Children should be informed first about their rights and then how to protect their rights.” (A3)

“Under all circumstances, we should encourage our children to tell us about their experiences and listen to them.” (PS11)

Examples of the answers indicating the way to protect children from abuse as the measures taken for adults are presented below:

“Parents and educators should be primarily informed through education.” (T7)

“Both parents and teachers should be aware of the smallest changes by observing children very well.” (A15)

“Everyone around the child without exception should respect his/her wishes and disorders, and I think sanctions should be imposed on people who attempt to kiss the child by force.” (PS18)

5. Discussion, Conclusion, and Suggestions

The answers of the participants to the questions within the context of the study, which was carried out to qualitatively evaluate the views of preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers on child abuse

and neglect, were presented separately and discussed based on the literature.

Children at risk can be defined as children who lead a life that is unsuitable for their age and involves danger and risk. Children who are abused and neglected, are refugees, have screen and substance abuse, special needs, health problems, emotional and behavioral disorders, are directed to commit a crime, work, stay within social services, have a single parent, and children of seasonal agricultural workers and street children can be considered as children at risk. Studies reveal that children at risk are likely to exhibit risky behaviors such as harming themselves and the environment, attention deficit, having problems with authority, committing crime, substance abuse, stealing, and lying (Seçer, 2018). As a result of the interviews conducted with teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers who participated in the study, “refugee children,” “children exposed to violence,” “street children,” “children in prison,” and “working children” were defined as children at risk. Based on the limited number of definitions of the participants, it can be concluded that they do not have a sufficient level of knowledge about children at risk. Children at risk are “refugee children” according to the majority of the preschool teachers and administrators and “children exposed to violence” according to the majority of the pre-service preschool teachers. The reason why the views of teachers and administrators differed from the views of pre-service teachers can be explained by the presence of a large number of Syrian refugee children in schools where teachers and administrators work compared to schools where pre-service teachers are present for internship.

Neglect is defined as the failure to give the necessary attention to the child’s nutrition, housing, clothing, educational and medical needs, emotional needs, or basic living conditions (McDonald, 2007; Polat, 2001). According to the participants’ views, child neglect was defined as the “failure to meet physical needs,” “failure to meet emotional needs,” “failure to meet educational needs,” and “failure to meet medical needs” of the child. While the majority of the preschool teachers and administrators defined child neglect as the “failure to meet physical needs,” the majority of the pre-service preschool teachers defined it as the “failure to meet emotional needs.” Within the frame of this result, it can be said that teachers and administrators attach more importance to the physiological needs of children such as nutrition and shelter than the need for love while pre-service teachers considered the need for love for children as a more important requirement than physiological needs. The participants defined each kind of neglect separately, not as a whole definition while defining neglect. In this respect, it can be said that the knowledge of teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers about neglect is not sufficient. The studies revealed that children were exposed

to physical neglect, especially emotional neglect (Sözduyar, 1989; Zeytinoğlu, 1991) by their parents (Cowen, 1999; Lindell & Svedin, 2001).

The participants listed the reasons for child neglect as “negative past experiences of parents,” “inadequate socio-economic conditions,” “characteristics of parents,” and “characteristics of children.” The majority of the teachers and pre-service teachers, who have relatively more intense communication with children and thus have the opportunity to make clear observations of the problems compared to administrators, indicated parents as the main reason for child neglect. Teachers thought that parents neglected their children due to the negative effects of their past experiences. Pre-service teachers argued that neglect was related to the character traits of parents. Indeed, it can be said that teachers and pre-service teachers met on the same ground more clearly when it is considered that character is largely shaped by the effects of the environment and past experiences. Studies demonstrated that women who had been exposed to violence by their parents during childhood and had low self-esteem used more violence against their children (Altıparmak, Yıldırım, Yardımcı, & Ergin, 2013). A child who grows up in an environment of abuse and neglect may consider the ill-treatment toward him/her as usual and may treat his/her own children in this way in adulthood.

The effects of neglect on children were listed as “behavior problems,” “developmental problems,” and “communication problems” by the participants. However, the majority of the preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers stated that neglect frequently led to “behavioral problems” in children. All kinds of neglect cause internal conflicts in children, and behavioral problems such as stubbornness, aggression, lying and sleep disturbance emerge as a result of the child’s transfer of these conflicts to his/her behaviors. Children who have numerous troubles such as ill-treatment and deprivation at the beginning of their lives are at risk for various behavioral or developmental problems (Becker Weidman, 2009; Kisiel, Fehrenbach, Small, & Lyons, 2009).

Abuse is defined as all physical, emotional, or sexual attitudes applied in a way to damage the physical and/or psychological health of children and to prevent their social development (WHO, 1999). In the Child Abuse and Domestic Violence Research conducted in Turkey by UNICEF (2010), it was determined that 51% of children aged 7-18 were exposed to emotional abuse, 43% of them were exposed to physical abuse, and 3% of them were exposed to sexual abuse. The participants defined child abuse as “physical abuse,” “emotional abuse,” “sexual abuse,” and “economic abuse.” However, the majority of the preschool teachers, administrators, and pre-service teachers indicated that child abuse was “physical abuse.” It can be considered that the participants frequently talked about this type of abuse since physical abuse is the easiest type of abuse to be recognized

and emotional abuse is usually accompanied by physical abuse (Bahçecik & Kavaklı, 1994; Prime Ministry Family Research Institute, 1995; Dereobalı et al., 2013; Güler, Uzun, Boztaş, & Aydoğan, 2002). The participants could not define abuse as a whole with all its types. Therefore, it can be said that the great majority of the participants had limited knowledge about abuse. All of those who defined child abuse as “sexual abuse” were female and the majority of them were pre-service teachers, which can be explained by the fact that all males and most of the teachers and administrators did not want to put the words child and sexual abuse together and to make a comment about it. In their study, Aksel and Yılmaz Irmak (2015) revealed that educators had accurate knowledge about child sexual abuse; however, their level of knowledge was insufficient to report to official institutions. The concept of barriers to reporting child abuse to official institutions was discussed by many researchers, and it was determined that the most important barrier was reporting abuse at the diagnosis stage and afterwards (Flaherty & Stirling, 2010; Herendeen, Blevins, Anson, & Smith, 2014; Louwers, Korfage, Affourtit, DeKoning, & Moll, 2012; Lynne, Gifford, Evans, & Rosch, 2015; Pietrantonio et al., 2013). In the studies carried out, the reasons why professionals did not report abuse against children were studied in two categories. The first one was that professionals failed to recognize abuse. The second one was that professionals preferred not to report any suspicion of abuse to authorities for a variety of reasons (Alvarez, Kenny, Donohue, & Carpin, 2004; Davidov, Jack, Frost, & Coben, 2012; Kenny, 2001; Levi & Crowell, 2011; Sege & Flaherty, 2008; Vulliamy & Sullivan, 2000).

In the studies carried out, it was revealed that child abuse was caused by familial, personal, social, and communal risk factors such as the experiences of abuse and rejection of parents in their past, mental problems of parents, unplanned and unwanted pregnancies, physical or mental disability of the child, behavioral disorder, high expectations from the child, inadequacy of laws protecting children, low socioeconomic status, inadequate access to health-care and social services, and insufficiency of preventive health services (Güner & Güner, 2010; Kara et al., 2004; Koçak & Büyükgönenç, 2011; Küpeli, Kanbur, & Derman, 2003; Sidebotham, Heron, & ALSPAC Study Team, 2006; Stewart, Mezzich, & Bang-Shiuh, 2006; Şimşek, Ulukol, & Bingöler, 2004; Yalçın, 2011). The participants indicated the risk factors increasing child abuse as “parent-based,” “child-based,” and “community-based.” However, most of the participants argued that “parent-based” factors were more effective in increasing child abuse based on the fact that parents are the first guides who touch the child and direct the child’s life. While Koç et al. (2012) determined in their study that 36% of child abusers had a family history of violence between parents, Tıraşçı and Gören (2007) determined that children who witnessed domestic violence could be potentially abusive, and Altıparmak et al. (2013), Bilge

et al. (2013) determined that the parents of physically abused children may also have a history of abuse.

The participants listed the effects of abuse on children as “behavioral problems,” “emotional problems,” “social problems,” “physical problems,” and “cognitive problems.” While most of the preschool teachers and administrators argued that abuse would cause “behavioral problems” in children, most of the pre-service teachers argued that it would cause “emotional problems.” It can be said that teachers and administrators came to this conclusion through their observations and pre-service teachers came to this conclusion through their thoughts since the process of observing children in the school by teachers and administrators is much longer compared to pre-service teachers. When the literature was reviewed, it was found out that abuse led to behavioral disorders such as aggression, post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, impulsivity, low self-esteem and personality disorder in children, and furthermore, these disorders may also continue in adulthood (Arnow, 2004; Brodsky et al., 2008; Dallar Bilge, Taşar, Kılınçoğlu, Özmen, & Tıraş, 2013; Milot, Ethier, St-Laurent, & Provost, 2010; Ünal, 2008). These results are generally consistent with the results of the study.

Universal, regional, and national coordination, as well as dissuasive penalties, are quite important in preventing child abuse and neglect. Social policies should be developed within the context of social relations preventing the occurrence of cases of abuse and neglect, and the abuse and neglect prevention approach should be included in the education system. Primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention methods have very important functions. Primary-level preventive services involve issues such as raising public awareness and mobilization with regard to child abuse and neglect. Secondary-level preventive services involve the early diagnosis, appropriate treatment, and follow-up of abused and neglected children. Tertiary-level preventive services include preventive, therapeutic, and rehabilitative efforts to prevent the reoccurrence of child abuse and neglect (Koçak & Büyükgöneç, 2011; Şirin, 2016; Turhan, Sangün, & İnandı, 2006). The participants classified the ways of protecting children from abuse as the “measures taken for children” and “measures taken for adults.” However, according to the majority of the participants, “measures taken for children” are the most basic way to protect children from abuse because we can start protecting children in the most effective way by raising children’s awareness.

Based on the results of the study, various suggestions can be offered:

Children can be informed about their rights, abuse, and neglect in accordance with their age.

Within the scope of teacher training programs, courses including the identification and prevention of child abuse and neglect and intervention services can be provided in all teaching fields.

The MoNE may organize in-service training, including the identification and prevention of child abuse and neglect and intervention services, for teachers and administrators in schools.

Seminars and conferences can be organized through public education centers and municipalities to raise awareness of parents as the first teachers of children with regard to abuse and neglect.

Awareness can be raised by providing training on abuse and neglect to all professional staff who encounter children.

The number of Child Monitoring Centers can be increased.

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RELATIONSHIP OF METHODS USED BY PRESCHOOL AND CLASSROOM TEACHERS AND PRESERVICE TEACHERS IN CONFLICT RESOLUTION WITH SELF ESTEEM AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE*

Selma GÜLEÇ -Betül ARABACIOĞLU*****

INTRODUCTION

Conflicts always exist in human communication and are extremely normal (Gordon, 2010). The perception of interpersonal conflicts and disagreements, as required by the nature of conflicts, depends on humans' experiences. For this reason, the content of the concept is naturally affected by whether people's experiences are constructive, productive, cooperative, peaceful or destructive, aggressive, harmful or threatening. If people are accustomed to settle conflicts and agreements which they experience by using constructive and peaceful conflict resolution techniques, they will perceive them more positively and productively; if they are accustomed to settle conflicts and disagreements by using destructive conflict resolution techniques, they will perceive them more negatively and problematically (Türnüklü, 2007).

Although international conflicts look like a negative situation which needs to be avoidable at first sight, they may also be regarded as the source of development and creativity. In this respect, conflict underlies social/personal change and development and, as a natural result of interactions and choices made in these interactions, has a function of revealing a positive change (Lulofs and Cahn 2000; Cited by Şahin et al., 2009).

People sometimes use one or some conflict resolution strategies to solve problems which they face. Johnson and Johnson's conflict resolution strategies are these (Demirtaş and Dönmez, 2008):

1. Avoidance: Those who use this strategy stay away from matters from which the conflict has arisen and people with whom they are in conflict. They believe that it is hopeless to spend effort for the solution of conflicts. They believe that it is easier to avoid a conflict (physically and psychologically) than confronting it.

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** (Dr.); Uludağ University, Bursa, Turkey. E-mail: sgulec@uludag.edu.tr

*** (Öğretmen); Ministry of Education, Nar Taneleri Kindergarten, Kilis, Turkey. E-mail: betularabacioglu@gmail.com

2. Forcing: Those who use this strategy force people with whom they are in conflict to accept a solution which they have prepared for the conflict by using force. While their targets are of very much importance, their relationships are of little importance. They venture every cost in order to realize their targets. They do not pay any attention to others' needs. They do not care if others like or accept these solutions.

3. Conciliation: While targets are of little importance for those who use this strategy, their relationships are of very much importance. They desire to be loved and accepted by others. They think that conflicts can be avoided by behaving harmoniously and these people cannot discuss their problems without giving harm to relationships. If a conflict continues, they are afraid that one of the parties will be hurt and this will destroy the relationship. Since those who use this strategy think that it will spoil the relationship, they try to conciliate the conflict.

4. Compromise: Those who use this strategy are reasonably interested in their own targets and relationships with others. They seek a compromise; they give up some of their targets and persuade the other person in a conflict to give up some of their targets. They seek a conflict resolution from which both parties can win something. They are willing to give up some of their targets and relationships to find a compromise for a moderate place, a common profit between two extreme situations.

5. Confrontation: Those who use this strategy value their own targets and relationships greatly. They regard conflicts as problems to be solved and seek solutions to meet both their own targets and other people's targets. They do not get satisfied until they find a solution to satisfy their own targets and other people's targets.

Rosenberg (1965) conceptualizes self-esteem as a positive or negative attitude derived from the sum of self-evaluation and developed with regard to self among different influence areas (Balkis and Duru, 2010). Every human reacts to their environment according to their self-perception styles. Rosenberg (1965) states that self-perception developed under the influence of environmental factors determines people's approach to themselves (Güloğlu and Aydın, 2001).

Emotional intelligence is a concept enabling individuals to understand and manage their emotions and also providing an opportunity to understand others' emotions, establish empathy, increase motivation and develop sense of self-confidence (Doğan and Demirel, 2007). In other words, emotional intelligence is the wise use of emotions (Weisinger, 1998; Cited by Deniz and Yılmaz, 2005).

In the direction of this information, in this study, the relationships between the methods which the preschool education students, the

preschool teachers, the primary education students and the classroom teachers prefer in their conflict resolutions and their self-esteem and emotional intelligence levels.

METHOD

In this section of the study, information is given about the model of the study, population and sample, data collection tools and data analysis.

The Research Model

Since the study aims to determine the existence and degree of covariance between two or more variables, it employs the relational screening model, one of the general screening models. Moreover, according to the philosophy (viewpoint) on which it is based, it is included in the quantitative research category requiring the collection and analysis of quantitative data. The present study tests correlational relations and relations and tries to learn if variables change together and, if they do, how this happens.

Population and Sample

The population of the study is composed of the preschool and classroom teachers and the students from preschool and primary education departments of Uludag University. The sample of the study is composed of randomly selected 50 students from the preschool education department and 50 students from the primary education department of Uludag University in Bursa and also 50 preschool teachers and 50 classroom teachers during the 2016-2017 academic year.

Data Collection Tools

As the data collection tools, the "Personal Information Form", the "Emotional Intelligence Scale", the "Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory Short Form" and the "Conflict Management Styles Scale" were used respectively for the purpose of determining the demographic characteristics of the teachers and preservice teachers, their emotional intelligence levels, self-esteem levels and the conflict resolution methods which the teachers and the preservice teachers use in situations where they are in conflict with their colleagues.

Personal Information Form

The personal information form prepared by the researchers with the aim of determining the teachers' and the preservice teachers' demographic characteristics aims to determine the teachers' and the preservice teachers' genders, ages, marital statuses, educational statuses, service lengths and branches.

Emotional Intelligence Scale

With the aim of determining the teachers' emotional intelligence levels, the "Wong & Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS)" developed by Chi-Sum Wong and Kenneth Law was used. The Turkish adaptation of the scale was made by Mehmet Karakuş (2013). The emotional intelligence scale is a "Five-Point Likert Type" scale. In the scoring of the scale, 1 point is given to the "Never" alternative, 2 points are given to the "Rarely" alternative, 3 points are given to the "Sometimes" alternative, 4 points are given to the "Usually" and 5 points are given to the "Always" alternative. The scale is composed of 4 sub-dimensions and 16 items. The items numbered 1, 2, 3 and 4 measure the sub-dimension of understanding one's own emotions; the items numbered 5, 6, 7 and 8 measure the sub-dimension of understanding others' emotions; the items numbered 9, 10, 11 and 12 measure the sub-dimension of emotion use and the items numbered 13, 14, 15 and 16 measure the sub-dimension of emotional regulation (Karaca, 2014).

Conflict Management Styles Scale

With the aim of determining the conflict management styles, the "Conflict Management Styles" scale developed by Rahim (1983) and adapted by Gümüşeli (2001) into Turkish was used. The reliability studies of the scale were carried out previously by Rahim (1983) and the reliability of the scale (the Cronbach's Alpha value) was found as 0.73. According to the criteria applied in the evaluation of the alpha coefficient, these pieces of data indicated that the scale was reliable. As a result of the factor analysis applied to the scale, it was determined that the questions composing the scale gathered under the factors of conciliation, integration, avoidance, commanding and compromise (Yılmaz, 2015).

Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory Short Form

The Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory was developed by Stanley Coopersmith in 1967 with the aim of measuring individuals' attitudes about themselves. It is expressed that the self-esteem definition accepted by the scale has three characteristics. It is possible to list these as follows: Self-esteem reflects an individual's self-evaluations. This judgment is relative, but continuous, and changes immediately. This judgment may change depending on the individual's age, gender and social roles.

The adult form of the scale, which has two forms, namely the child form and the adult form, has two versions with 25 and 58 items (Harputlu, 2005; Yenidünya, 2005). In this study, the short form with 25 items was used. The scale is composed of the items which can be marked as "Like me" or "Not like me". The content of the items is related to a person's view of life, family relationships, social relationships and endurance. Each item in the

scale has one correct answer and, in the scoring of the scale, each correct answer is given 1 point and each incorrect answer is given 0 point. While the maximum point which can be taken from the scale is 25, the lowest point is 0 and as the score increases, the individuals' self-esteem levels increase. For the whole of the Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Scale including 25 items, the Cronbach's Alpha value was calculated as 0.76 (Harputlu, 2005; Cited by Kaynak et al., 2015).

Data Collection

Prior to the administration of the scales, the teachers were informed about how to answer the questionnaires. The scales were administered personally by the researchers to the students taking education at Uludag University in Bursa during the spring semester of the 2016-2017 educational year. The data was collected on the Internet environment from the scales administered to the teachers.

Data Analysis

In this study, the data was analyzed via using the SPSS 18 package program. For the pieces of the information obtained via using the personal information form about the demographic characteristics, percentage (%) and frequency calculations were made. Firstly, the total scores obtained from the scales were analyzed. With the aim of determining the relationships between the scale scores, the Spearman Brown correlation test was applied. Moreover, the regression analyses of the calculated correlations were made and the calculated regression equations were shown together with the regression line.

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

Demographic Findings

A total of 200 people participated in this study carried out with the aim of determining the methods preferred by the preschool education students, preschool teachers, primary education students and classroom teachers in conflict resolution and their self-esteem and emotional intelligence levels. 177 (88,5%) of the participants were female and 23 (11,5%) of them were male. According to their marital statuses, 86 (43%) of the participants were married and 114 (57%) of them were single. Besides this, 81 (40,5%) of the participants were aged between 18-22 years, 91 (45,5%) of them were aged between 23-27 years, 27 (13,5%) of them were aged between 28-33 years and 1 (0,5%) of them was aged 34-39 years. Moreover, 50 (25%) of the participants were preschool teachers, 50 (25%) were preschool education students, 50 (25%) were classroom teachers and 50 (25%) were primary education students (Table 1).

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Variable	Group	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i>%
Gender	Female	177	88,5
	Male	23	11,5
Marital Status	Married	86	43
	Single	114	57
Age Group	18-22	81	40,5
	23-27	91	45,5
	28-33	27	13,5
	34-39	1	0,5
Type of Participant	Preschool Teacher	50	25
	Preschool Education Student	50	25
	Classroom Teacher	50	25
	Primary Education Student	50	25
Total		200	100

Scale Findings

First of all, as a result of the analysis of the total scores obtained from the scales, it was determined that the participants' self-esteem total score was 18,70; their emotional intelligence total score was 59,79; their conflict resolution total score was 98,15. According to this, when these scores were compared with the maximum score which could be taken, it was observed that the participants' self-esteem level was 74,80%; their emotional intelligence level was 68,42%; their conflict resolution level was 62,43%.

Moreover, in the sub-dimensions of the conflict resolution scale, the integration score was 28,37; the conciliation score was 15,21; the compromise score was 19,83; the avoidance score was 19,39; the commanding score was 15,39. Hence, the ratios of the sub-dimension scores to the maximum scores were 61,05%, 56,03%, 46,10%, 44,62% and 41,54%, respectively (Table 2).

Table 2. Score and Level Findings related to the Scales

Scale	Total Score	Sd	Ratio of Maximum Score to be Obtained (%)
Self-Esteem	18,70	3,92	74,80
Emotional Intelligence	59,79	7,57	68,42
Conflict Resolution	98,15	9,45	62,63
Sub-Dimension of Integration	28,37	3,28	61,05
Sub-Dimension of Conciliation	15,21	1,83	56,03
Sub-Dimension of Compromise	19,83	2,45	46,10
Sub-Dimension of Avoidance	19,39	3,77	44,62
Sub-Dimension of Commanding	15,39	4,16	41,54

Item Means of the Self-Esteem Scale

After the general findings, when the item means of the self-esteem scale were examined, it was observed that the items with the highest means were the items of "I'm not trustworthy, I do not regard myself as trustworthy" (=0,94), "People have a good time when they are with me" (=0,94) and "I feel myself worthless" (=0,93), respectively. The detailed results were given in Table 3.

Table 3. Self-Esteem Scale Item Means

Rank	Items	<i>f</i>		sd
1	I'm not trustworthy, I do not regard myself as trustworthy.	200	0,94	0,24
2	People have a good time when they are with me.	200	0,94	0,25
3	I feel myself worthless.	200	0,93	0,26
4	I'm loved by my peers.	200	0,92	0,28
5	I have a lot of difficulty behaving in a way I like, that is, being myself.	200	0,89	0,32

6	I often desire to be another person.	200	0,86	0,35
7	My friends usually follow my ideas.	200	0,86	0,35
8	I have thought of leaving home (walking away) many times.	200	0,84	0,37
9	My parents generally pay attention to my feelings.	200	0,84	0,37
10	I'm not loved as much as many other people.	200	0,83	0,38
11	I'm usually discouraged when I'm at school.	200	0,83	0,38
12	I generally give in without withstanding.	200	0,81	0,39
13	My parents understand me.	200	0,79	0,41
14	I think my parents generally force me.	200	0,78	0,42
15	My parents are expecting too much from me.	200	0,74	0,44
16	Everything in my life is very complicated.	200	0,74	0,44
17	I'm easily bored and out of spirits when I'm at home.	200	0,73	0,45
18	I'm not a person looking as good as most people.	200	0,70	0,46
19	It takes me a long time to get accustomed to new things.	200	0,69	0,46
20	When I have something to say, I usually say it without holding back.	200	0,68	0,47
21	When I'm at school, I often feel bored.	200	0,61	0,49
22	I have difficulty speaking in front of the class.	200	0,60	0,49

23	I easily make a decision about any matter without having much difficulty.	200	0,53	0,50
24	If I were able to, I would change many things in myself.	200	0,46	0,50
25	I'm not generally disturbed by what happens to me.	200	0,22	0,41
	General Mean	200	0,75	0,39

Item Means of the Emotional Intelligence Scale

When the item means of the emotional intelligence scale were examined, it was observed that the items with the highest means were the items of "I always know if I'm happy or not" ($\bar{x}=4,12$), "I'm fully aware of what I feel" ($\bar{x}=4,01$) and "I understand my feelings very well" ($\bar{x}=3,98$). The participants gave the answer of "usually" to all of these items. The detailed results were given in Table 4.

Table 4. Item Means of the Emotional Intelligence Scale

Rank	Items	<i>f</i>		Sd
1	I always know if I'm happy or not.	200	4,12	0,72
2	I'm fully aware of what I feel.	200	4,01	0,66
3	I understand my feelings very well.	200	3,98	0,68
4	I observe others' feelings very well.	200	3,93	0,79
5	I'm very sensitive to others' feelings.	200	3,92	0,80
6	I know reasons underlying my feelings very well.	200	3,91	0,73
7	I understand the feelings of people around me.	200	3,89	0,72
8	I always understand my friends' feelings from their behaviors.	200	3,83	0,70
9	I can motivate myself.	200	3,72	0,91

10	I always determine targets for myself and I do my best to reach them.	200	3,71	0,89
11	I always encourage myself to do best.	200	3,67	0,87
12	I can control my anger and cope with difficulties reasonably.	200	3,64	0,95
13	I can easily control my feelings.	200	3,55	0,86
14	I always inspire myself that I'm competent and capable.	200	3,49	0,95
15	I control my feelings very well.	200	3,40	0,88
16	I can easily calm myself down even when I'm very angry.	200	3,05	1,00
	General Mean	200	3,74	0,82

Item Means of the Conflict Resolution Strategies Scale

The item means of the conflict resolution strategies scale were examined separately according to the sub-dimensions. According to this, firstly, it was observed that in the integration sub-dimension, the items with the highest means were the items of "I try to work together with my colleagues in order to understand a problem appropriately" (=4,17) and "I collaborate with my colleagues so as to reach results acceptable by all of us" (=4,14). The participants answered these items at "I agree" level. The detailed results were given in Table 5.

Table 5. Item Means of the Integration Sub-Dimension of the Conflict Resolution Strategies Scale

Rank	Items	<i>f</i>		Sd
1	I try to work together with my colleagues so as to make a problem correctly understandable.	200	4,17	0,59
2	I collaborate with my colleagues so as to reach results acceptable by all of us.	200	4,14	0,57
3	In order to find solutions which can meet expectations of all of us in	200	4,08	0,64

	case of a problem, I try to work together with my colleagues.			
4	I try to give voice to all of our concerns in order to solve the problem in the best way possible.	200	4,07	0,62
5	In order to find a solution which is acceptable by all of us, I try to examine the problem together with my colleagues.	200	4,06	0,69
6	In order to solve a problem together, I exchange information with my colleagues.	200	4,00	0,71
7	In order to reach a common decision, I try to integrate my ideas with those of my colleagues'.	200	3,86	0,83
	General Mean	200	4,05	0,66

It was determined that, in the conciliation sub-dimension, the items with the highest means were the items of "I negotiate with my colleagues to achieve a conciliation" (=4,14) and "I try to find a compromise to cut the Gordian knot" (=4,14). The participants answered these items at "I agree" level. The detailed results were given in Table 6.

Table 6. Item Means of the Conciliation Sub-Dimension of the Conflict Resolution Strategies Scale

Rank	Items	<i>f</i>		sd
1	I negotiate with my colleagues to achieve a conciliation.	200	4,14	0,56
2	I try to find a compromise to cut the Gordian knot.	200	4,14	0,69
3	I suggest a common ground to overcome locks in disagreements.	200	4,08	0,56
4	I suggest a bargain to achieve a conciliation.	200	2,85	1,03
	General Mean	200	3,80	0,71

It was observed that, in the compromise sub-dimension, the items with the highest means were the items of "I pay attention to my colleagues'

requests" (=4,17), "I try to meet my colleagues' needs (economic, social, psychological)" (=3,73) and "I agree with my colleagues' suggestions" (=3,73). The participants answered these items at "I agree" level. The detailed results were given in Table 7.

Table 7. Item Means of the Compromise Sub-Dimension of the Conflict Resolution Strategies Scale

Rank	Items	<i>f</i>		Sd
1	I pay attention to my colleagues' requests.	200	4,17	0,55
2	I try to meet my colleagues' needs (economic, social, psychological).	200	3,73	0,81
3	I agree with my friends' suggestions.	200	3,73	0,69
4	I try to meet my colleagues' expectations.	200	3,62	0,81
5	I give in to my colleagues.	200	2,61	0,90
6	I adopt my colleagues' requests unconditionally.	200	1,98	0,90
	General Mean	200	3,31	0,78

Moreover, it was also observed that, in the avoidance sub-dimension, the items with the highest means were the items of "I avoid saying unpleasant words to my colleagues" (=4,10) and "I try not to fall in conflict with my colleagues" (=3,65). The participants answered these items at "I agree" level. The detailed results were given in Table 8.

Table 8. Item Means of the Avoidance Sub-Dimension of the Conflict Resolution Strategies Scale

Rank	Items	<i>f</i>		Sd
1	I avoid saying unpleasant words to my colleagues.	200	4,10	0,89
2	I try not to fall in conflict with my colleagues.	200	3,65	0,85
3	I try not to reveal my disagreements with my colleagues	200	3,15	0,99

	in order to avoid falling in a difficult situation.			
4	I try not to reveal my disagreements with my colleagues in order to prevent resentment.	200	3,15	1,01
5	I avoid falling in conflict with my colleagues.	200	2,91	1,09
6	I avoid discussing my differences of opinion with my colleagues openly.	200	2,44	1,04
	General Mean	200	3,23	0,98

Finally, in the commanding sub-dimension, the items with the highest means were the items of "I closely follow the part of the problem which concerns me" ($\bar{x}=4,08$) and "I use my knowledge and skills to have others make a decision in favor of myself" ($\bar{x}=3,43$). The participants answered the first of these items at "I agree" level and the second at "I partly agree". The detailed results were given in Table 9.

Table 9. Item Means of the Commanding Sub-Dimension of the Conflict Resolution Strategies Scale

Rank	Items	<i>f</i>		Sd
1	I closely follow the part of the problem which concerns me.	200	4,08	0,77
2	I use my knowledge and skills to have others make a decision in favor of myself.	200	3,43	1,09
3	I use my power to win in a situation requiring competition.	200	3,42	3,09
4	I use my authority to have others make a decision in favor of myself.	200	2,36	1,08
5	I apply pressure to have others accept my ideas.	200	2,10	0,91
	General Mean	200	3,08	1,39

Correlation Findings

As a result of the Spearman Brown correlation test applied to determine the relationships between the scales' scores, the following findings were obtained.

1. There is a significant moderate level of positive relationship between emotional intelligence and integration. That is to say, when one of the variables increases, the other increases at moderate level, too.

2. There is a significant low level of positive relationship between emotional intelligence and conciliation. That is to say, when one of the variables increases, the other increases at low level, too.

3. There is a low level of positive relationship between emotional intelligence and compromise. That is to say, when one of the variables increases, the other increases at low level, too.

4. There is a very low level of negative relationship between emotional intelligence and avoidance. That is to say, when one of the variables increases, the other decreases at very low level.

5. There is a very low level of negative relationship between emotional intelligence and commanding. That is to say, when one of the variables increases, the other decreases at very low level.

6. There is a low level of positive relationship between self-esteem and integration. That is to say, when one of the variables increases, the other increases at low level, too.

7. There is low level of positive relationship between self-esteem and conciliation. That is to say, when one of the variables increases, the other increases at low level, too.

8. There is a very low level of positive relationship between self-esteem and compromise. That is to say, when one of the variables increases, the other increases at low level, too.

9. There is a low level of negative relationship between self-esteem and avoidance. That is to say, when one of the variables increases, the other decreases at low level.

10. There is a low level of negative relationship between self-esteem and commanding. That is to say, when one of the variables increases, the other increases at low level, too.

The results were given in detail in Table 10.

Table 10. Between-Scales Correlation Results

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1- Self-Esteem	1	,493**	,209*	,127	,083	-,189**	-,115
2- Emotional Intelligence		1	,316**	,288**	,188**	-0,069	-,040
3- Integration			1	,452**	,321**	,186**	-,137
4- Conciliation				1	,268**	,169*	,105
5- Compromise					1	,367**	-,015
6- Avoidance						1	,208**
7- Commanding							1

* Correlation is significant at 0,05 level.

** Correlation is significant at 0,01 level.

RESULTS

As a result, it is possible to summarize the results obtained in this study carried out with the aim of examining the relationships between the methods preferred by the preschool education students and teachers and primary education students and classroom teachers in conflict resolution and their self-esteem and emotional intelligence levels as follows:

The participants' self-esteem levels were found to be very high with a percentage of 74,8%. The participants' emotional intelligence levels were above moderate with a percentage of 68,42%. Hence, an average result was obtained.

Moreover, the participants' conflict resolution strategy levels were found again above moderate with a percentage of 62,63%. Hence, an average result was obtained in relation to conflict resolution. Moreover, the integration and the conciliation sub-dimensions of the conflict resolution strategies were found to be 61,05% and 56,03%, respectively. These were above moderate level. However, the ratios of compromise, avoidance and commanding remained below average with the percentages of 46,10%, 44,62% and 41,54%.

It was determined that the factors having increased the participants' self-esteem levels most were those of "I regard myself as trustworthy", "People have a good time when they are with me" and "I feel myself worthy".

It was observed that the items having increased the participants' emotional intelligence levels were the items of "I always know if I'm happy

or not", "I'm fully aware of what I feel" and "I understand my feelings very well".

Among the items of the conflict resolution strategies, the items outstanding as the ones from which the participants had a high mean were those of "I try to work together with my colleagues so as to make a problem correctly understandable", "I negotiate with my colleagues to achieve a conciliation", "I pay attention to my colleagues' requests", "I avoid saying unpleasant words to my colleagues", "I closely follow the part of the problem which concerns me".

Moreover, a significant positive relationship was determined between emotional intelligence and integration at moderate level. There was a low level of positive relationship between emotional intelligence and conciliation and compromise. However, there was a very low level of negative relationship between emotional intelligence and avoidance and commanding.

Finally, there was a low level of positive relationship between self-esteem and integration, conciliation and compromise. The relationship between self-esteem and avoidance and commanding was negative at low level.

In a study, Malek (2000) determined a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and integration. Moreover, in a study, Akın (2004) reached the result that as the administrators' emotional intelligence levels increased, they preferred to collaborate, the most effective method. In a study, Güney (2009) determined a significant positive relationship between the administrators' emotional levels and the integration strategy. Buğa (2010) found that the teachers with high emotional intelligence levels used the integration strategy more frequently than those with low emotional intelligence levels, which shows similarity to the findings of our study. Karaca (2014) determined that the general emotional intelligence level predicted the integration level positively. This finding shows similarity to the results of our study.

Özdemir and Özdemir (2007) reached the result that the use of the conciliation strategy was positively related with emotional intelligence level, which overlaps the finding of our study. The result reached by Güney (2009) in relation to the presence of a low level of significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence level and conciliation supports the finding of our study. In parallel to the research finding, Buğa (2010) reached the result that the teachers with high emotional intelligence levels used the conciliation strategy more frequently than the ones with low emotional levels.

Karaca (2014) determined that the emotional intelligence level and the general level of compromise did not predict the compromise strategy significantly. He determined a low level of positive relationship between them. This finding supports the findings of our study.

Güney (2009) determined a significant negative relationship between emotional intelligence level and avoidance. This finding supports the results of our study. Buğa (2010) determined that the teachers' use of avoidance strategies did not differ according to their emotional intelligence levels. This finding shows similarity to our study. Karaca (2014) determined that the emotional intelligence level did not predict the avoidance strategy significantly. This finding overlaps the results of our study.

Akın (2004) determined a negative relationship between using force, that is commanding, and emotional intelligence. Aslan (2008) reached the result that the sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence were negatively related with commanding. Karaca (2014) determined that the general level of emotional intelligence did not predict the commanding strategy. This finding shows similarity to the findings of our study.

SUGGESTIONS

From these results, it is possible to make the following suggestions:

The self-esteem levels of the preschool education students and teachers and primary education students and classroom teachers are very high. However, it is possible to carry out various studies to increase the existing level.

Again, various studies should be carried out to increase the emotional intelligence levels and conflict resolution strategies of preschool education students and teachers and primary education students and classroom teachers.

Especially, studies to be made to increase integration will make important contributions to the enhancement of emotional intelligence. Besides this, conciliation and compromise will also make important contributions to emotional intelligence.

Moreover, studies to be made with the aim of increasing integration, conciliation and compromise will also contribute to the enhancement of self-esteem.

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LITERATURE CIRCLES IN EFL CLASSROOM: A REVIEW*

Nilay AVCI**

1. Introduction: Why Literature?

Literature and butterflies are two sweetest passions known to a man.

Vladimir Nabakov

Throughout the history of education there have been a number of techniques developed for a cooperative and interactive spirit of language learning. All the educators have agreed on the need for encouraging the students to use their knowledge and skills in real life no matter which technique they developed. Especially positive effects of using literature integrating into language teaching classes have been realized in more recent years and became popular because literature obviously widens students' horizons by providing knowledge. Naturally, there are various definitions and views on what literature is. Basnet and Mounfold (1993) claim that literary texts are cultural documents which offer deeper understanding of a country or countries. On the contrary, Eagleton (1983) claims that there is no inherent quality to a literary text that makes a literary text, rather it is the interpretation that the reader gives to the text (as cited in Clandfield, 2011). Related to Eagleton's view, Probst (1992) notes that understanding of literature depends on the individual reader's memories, associations, thoughts, and questions; the author stimulates this within the reader by the words and sentences (as cited in Bedel, 2011). Using literature in language classes stimulates total participation and encourages interaction as it helps students to develop language skills; reading, writing, speaking and listening. Literature is thought to be motivating. It provides authentic material for education which leads cultural and language enrichment. Through literature, students can learn about other cultures. Using literature can also enhance the quality of learning and help to improve the effectiveness of teaching. As Hill (1977) suggests, it helps students improve general cultural awareness and triggers creativity with literary imagination. Collie and Slater (1987) state that there are four main reasons which lead a language teacher to use literature in the classroom. These main factors requiring the use of literature as a powerful resource in the classroom context are valuable authentic material, cultural enrichment, language enrichment and personal involvement (as cited in Bedel, 2011). Huck (1987) emphasizes that the importance of incorporating literature

* This chapter is based on master's thesis supervised by Dr. Kim Raymond Humiston.

** (Lec.); Mersin University, Faculty of Science and Letters, Mersin, Turkey. E-mail: nilayavci@cag.edu.tr

into teaching is an important teaching method as literature has the power to interpret and translate our experiences by enlarging our thinking. Through the literary texts, we can learn about the societies different from us along with their culture and ways of living. Literature develops our imagination. We gain insight into characters, feeling as if we are experiencing the same thing at that moment. Then, we go back to reality as a changed self. Literature also raises our awareness for understanding the present by showing the past. Literature functions as a bridge between our imagination and the reality. To release the creative energy in the self, methods used in education and teaching should be carefully chosen. In this sense, organizing a literature circle for language teaching classes has been identified as one of the most effective ways to use literature in language teaching.

What are Literature Circles?

Harvey Daniels (1994) defined literature circles as small, temporary groups with regular meetings to discuss group-determined portion of text. To Hill (2007), in literature circles, small groups of students gather together to discuss a piece of literature in depth. Similarly, as DaLie (2001) explains, a literature circle is a students' equivalent of an adult book club in the classroom. The aim is to encourage student choice and a love of reading in young people. The true intent of literature circles is to allow students to practice and develop the skills and strategies of good readers (as cited in Bedel, 2011). Literature circles, also called reading circles, are defined nearly the same way in every source as it is based on small, organized, teacher accompanied groups of students with varied interests and levels of reading achievement in which the students select and read the same piece of literature and establishing an independent reading and meeting schedule. Then, they get together to discuss, express their opinions, likes or dislikes. Students use their role sheets and notes from their journals to comment on ideas and interpretations they have made, at the same time they collaborate with each other. They may comment on events and characters in the book, the author's craft, or they may even talk about their own personal experiences related to the story. The literature circle was generally and traditionally popularized in the nickname "book club." An adult book club which is popular in public or a reading group which is effective in school life all look very much the same. Noe and Johnson (1999) emphasize that there are sharp differences between traditional methods and literature circles. Traditional methods are teacher and text-centred based on the entire reading curriculum. Groups are teacher-assigned and formed solely by ability. Discussions are mostly unstructured and guided primarily by the teacher or curriculum-based questions. In brief, those are mechanical and less effective methods. On the other hand, literature circles are student-centred and based on a balanced

literary program. Groups are formed by book choice. Discussions are guided primarily by student insights and questions. Moreover, circles are flexible for student independence, responsibility and ownership and each circle is different from the other (as cited in Hill, 2007). Literature circles are small reading and discussion groups mainly focus on the students and their collaboration with each other. This classroom instructional strategy connects all aspects of literacy for students presenting them the opportunity to listen, reflect and share thoughts about literature. They combine the skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Students' responses and comments on the related material often lead the group discussion. Literature circles provide students with a way to deeper understanding of what they have read through structured discussion and extended written response (Montaya, 2006). The main focus is on independent reading and cooperative learning. In the circles, which are temporary discussion groups, each member prepares to take specific responsibilities for the upcoming discussion either in or outside the class while reading the selected text. Everyone comes to the meeting with their notes helping them to perform their roles in the circle. The circles consist of regular meetings. Each session is rotated by discussion roles. When they finish a book, the circle members plan a way to share highlights of their reading with the wider community. Then, they trade members with other finished groups, select more books, and move into a new cycle. Once readers can successfully conduct their own independent and wide-ranging discussions, formal discussion roles may be dropped (Daniels, 1994). Especially in recent years, there has been an increasing interest in literature circles and there are several pioneer studies conducted to enlighten and encourage the educators.

The Origin and the Educational Development of Literature Circles through History

Table 1. Historical Background of Literature Circles (Bedel, 2012)

16 th c.	17 th c.	18 th c.	19 th c.	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010
						→			→	
									→	

Book clubs have always been popular among literature lovers for many centuries. It is not hard to imagine a group of adult readers gathering together to discuss the book they are reading. The history of literature circles, derived from book clubs, dates back to early 1980s. The idea of literature circles is claimed to be invented simultaneously and independently by a number of teachers and students around America. It all

began in 1982 summer, when Karen Smith, fifth grade teacher at Lowell School in Phoenix, Arizona, cheerfully accepted her teaching colleague Claire's donation which was a box containing some classroom leftovers. Because she was moving to British Columbia, she thought it might be helpful for Karen's classroom. Karen always needed extra books for independent reading in her class and this full box of assorted paperback novels was just her thing. However, amid the excitement of starting a new year, Karen totally forgot the box in the back of the room when she went back to school. A couple of months later, it was discovered by a group of students. After sifting through the books, the kids excitedly asked Karen's permission to read them. Assuming the kids are simply prowling for more independent reading titles, Karen casually gave her approval. Within a few days, she realized that her students had chosen books, established groups around their choices, assigned themselves pages to read, and were meeting regularly to talk about their books. She joined their group couple of times and was dazzled by the quality, depth, range, and energy of the talk she heard. Karen's ten-year-old students have just invented their own literature circles. As an extraordinary teacher, Karen Smith immediately recognized the significance of the kids' invention. They had accidentally created a structure based upon a powerful, student-initiated, high-order discussion and thinking system around good books. So, Karen moved to make these discussion circles official. She just wanted to make sure that all kids in the class got involved without taming their spontaneity. Because Karen was also a graduate student at Arizona State University at that time in 1982, she invited her colleagues and professors into her classroom to observe the kids' groups and help her to puzzle out the next steps. Firstly, Ralph Peterson helped Karen figure out how to join the kids' book talks and discussions without dominating the interaction. Soon Dorothy Watson and Jerome Harste, other leaders of the profession, came to visit Karen's class. They were so impressed by the students that they contributed to the spread of this wonderful structure invented by Karen Smith's fifth graders. She was known to be the first teacher who implemented literature circles in class (Daniels, 1994 :1-2). Soon after this initiation which was described as a promising new practice, a number of teacher-authors and researchers, led by Harley Daniels, gathered together to discuss literature circles. Their main aim was to bring the established adult literacy structure of voluntary reading groups into the public schools (Daniels, 2006), so they began to document their use of literature circles. In this way, the first important steps leading to literature circles were taken. Though literature circles were applied in L1 English classes in 1980s, it became popular in foreign language teaching in 2000s. Daniels (1994) states that he spent a lot of time in his colleagues' classrooms to borrow ideas. Thanks to his colleagues, who have lent Daniels their students, their time and their space, he had a chance to try and observe various ideas about literature and learning.

Daniels also admits that, this stealing-idea habit has also put him in touch with some wonderful school districts and great school leaders. While Daniels and his fellow colleagues have decided to experiment bringing the centuries-old adult tradition of informally talking about a piece of literature into public schools, they were consciously aware of the differences between adults and students reading sessions. The truth is for hundreds of years, adults had been enjoying both reading and informally discussing books together. However, when students were asked to read or study literature, the traditional school setting and techniques used were visibly destroying the enjoyment, excitement and the passion that could be found in adult reading groups or book clubs (Furr, 2004).

Of course, only Daniels and his colleagues' efforts were not enough to reach the large masses. It was fortunate for the Daniels group that the most influential and popular American talk-show host Oprah Winfrey started a book club in 1996, about that time that Daniels and his colleagues were still launching literature circles in their classrooms. It was titled *Oprah's Book Club* which was a book discussion club segment of *The Oprah Winfrey Show*, highlighting books chosen by Ms. Winfrey. She selected a new novel for the viewers to read and discuss each month by encouraging them for reading on national television in the US. The club ended in 2011. During its 15 years, the club recommended 70 books (wikipedia.org). Thanks to Oprah and her show, reading and talking about literature with friends became cool again. *Oprah's Book Club* encouraged adult book discussion groups meeting in libraries, coffee shops and in their homes all over the country (Furr, 2004). Undoubtedly, no one could deny her contribution to reading, book clubs, and how it helped encourage literature circles in schools. Harley Daniels has said himself, they all owe great thanks to Oprah for making a lasting contribution to their national literacy (marygroove.edu). Obviously, very similar kinds of reading discussion groups have been around outside of schools for very long time. Every day, somewhere all around the world, people voluntarily attend book discussion groups. A group of friends reading the same book may gather together unconsciously to discuss about the book without even knowing about literature circles. They may meet independently and regularly at homes, bookstores or public places. Sometimes these groups may have a single leader among the members or they may be guided by a local community or bookstore. However, no matter how widespread this kind of activity is in the outside world, it has been inevitably rare in schools. Today, thanks to smart and far-sighted educators' efforts and technological developments, reader-run discussions are spreading fast. The powerful structure of literature circles or very similar activities are being experimenting by innovative teachers and mostly they work right way. Daniels (1994) claims that unlike some other student-centred classroom methods, which are very complex and tricky to implement, literature

circles usually immediately succeed. It is because of the fact that well-structured literature circles simply cause a natural and comfortable atmosphere for the students to interact around books and ideas. Daniels (1994) also adds that there are other inspirational ancestors of literature circles whose contributions are perhaps more indirect and yet, just as essential. John Dewey, in his *Democracy and Education* written in 1916 and many other works, he defended learning by doing and creating a real learning-living community. Self-regulating and growth-seeking students take responsibility and make choices, helped by teachers who serve as guides and coaches, as they need to be empowered, not controlled. The father of humanistic education, Carl Rogers, defended facilitation instead of teaching and student ownership, involvement, and choice. One of the most important leaders of literacy education over the past twenty-five years, James Moffett defended the importance of students' choosing and doing their own reading, writing, speaking, and listening in his *Student-Centred Language Arts K-12* published in 1992 with Wagner. He stresses playfulness, delight, exploration, and community. Lastly, Neil Postman challenged hyper-directive schoolteachers in his *Teaching as a Subversive Activity*, written in 1967 with Weingartner (44-46).

2. Characteristics of Literature Circles

Daniels (2004) argues that literature circles should have a special structure, otherwise it will not be a successful implementation of the real thing. He draws up a list which consists of twelve key ingredients for literature circles. To him, an authentic literature circle will contain most or all of the following features:

1. Students choose their own reading materials
2. Small temporary groups are formed, based on book choice
3. Different groups read different books
4. Groups meet on a regular, predictable schedule to discuss their reading
5. Kids use written or drawn notes to guide both their reading and discussion
6. Discussion topics come from the students
7. Groups meetings aim to be open, natural conversations about books, so personal connections, digressions, and open-ended questions are welcome
8. In newly forming groups, students play a rotating assortment of task roles
9. The teacher serves as a facilitator, not a group member or instructor
10. Evaluation is by teacher observation and student self-evaluation
11. A spirit of playfulness and fun pervades the room
12. When books are finished, readers share with their classmates, and then new groups form around new reading choices. (Daniels, 2004:18)

As analysed objectively, Daniels' key ingredients are perfectly fit for L1 students. However, when EFL students are considered, some of the features may need to be revised or some of them may need to be intentionally omitted when students are learning the activity for the first time. Furr (2004) strictly criticises and draws attention to some features,

he suggests a revision for the first three and the last one considering, the ability of L1 and EFL classrooms to increase foreign language competence in EFL classes.

Freedom of Choice

Independent reading shaped by student choice is the most important element of literature circles. Petko (2011) claims that allowing students to choose their own text promotes a sense of control over their learning. Clarke and Holwadel (2007) find this aspect to be particularly important when working in an urban setting with students from crime-ridden neighbourhoods. Short class lengths and high absenteeism make it necessary quickly to capture the students' attention. The teacher chooses books that related their students' backgrounds to encourage greater personal connections. These book selections are offered to the students who chose which one to read (as cited in Petko, 2011). It has to be voluntary and pleasurable for reading to become a lifelong habit, develop skills, and create enthusiastic readers. Students feel comfortable choosing a text according to their wish, desire, and interest. They may begin to self-direct and take ownership of their reading. Daniels (2002) claims that teachers may choose to provide students with a list of titles related in theme or specific content from which students are then able to choose. This process encourages students to take responsibility for locating, choosing, and pursuing books rather than waiting for or expecting teachers and adults to make those choices for them (as cited in Smith, 2011). Furthermore, students have an idea of what each book is about before choosing their favourite. On the other hand, Furr (2004) is opposed to Daniels' view as he thinks that giving freedom to students for choosing their own materials is inappropriate for EFL classrooms. Unlike Daniels, who thinks that assignments and choices of texts in the control of the teacher is a shortcoming of school reading programs, Furr suggests that "instructors should select materials appropriate for their student population." To conduct successful literature circles in the EFL classroom, differences in the learning needs and objectives between L1, ESL and EFL students should be carefully considered (Furr, 2004) as some students differing in abilities, interests, and personalities, may need more guidance when selecting texts and materials. Waring and Takahashi (2000) list some good rules for students to find their reading levels; "there should be no more than 2-3 unknown words per page, the learner is reading 8-10 lines of text or more per minute and the learner understands almost all of what s/he is reading with few pauses" (as cited in Furr, 2004).

The teacher should select a text at an appropriate level for students by considering reading fluency, as they should be able to read the texts without using a dictionary. Otherwise, it will not be a real-life conversation. In short, the standard model of literature circles should be re-

examined carefully, then adapted and modified by the educator according to their own student group.

Small Group Settings

Regardless of reading level, ability, teacher assignment, or curriculum mandate, several people who desire to read the same book or article form the literature circle groups. It is often formed by mix students of different abilities to help each other and learn more. The groups are temporary and task-oriented. The students finish the book and have a discussions based on their readings, they pick their next book and choose a different group. According to the reading material, discussion and the roles, group size can change from two to six. Students' needs are an important issue in the group choosing process. When they choose their text considering their own needs and interests, groups form automatically around these texts. Katz et al. (1997) reports that 41% of her students admitted choosing their group based on who else had chosen that group, regardless of the text. Additionally, 50% admitted that they pick their group first, then work together to pick a text. Despite this interesting finding, the results still allow the students to enjoy a level of choice, but limit the chance that they will choose the best text for their interests (as cited in Petko, 2011). Different from Daniels, Furr (2004) advises that "small temporary groups should be formed, based on student choice or the instructor's discretion" as he thinks Daniels' suggestion is more appropriate for L1 students not for EFL students. As a result, Marzano (1989) emphasizes that no matter how the grouping is done, it is important to remember that "to maximize students' experience is probably a good idea to use a variety of criteria" (as cited in Bernier, 2008).

Different Groups, Different Books

Inevitably, when students are given the chance to choose what to read, it is not possible for everyone to pick the same book. Students need a mixture and a balance between teacher-chosen and self-selected materials to develop and pursue their own tastes, curiosities, and enthusiasms in the world of books (Daniels, 1994:20). It is a good thing to give them freedom of choice as they need to learn to handle their responsibility on their own. Different groups read different books. As a result, a mixed-ability group is formed. On the other hand, Furr (2004) thinks that "different groups usually read the same text" as EFL students may lack reading skills and need fluency practice.

Group Meetings

Literature circles must be regularly scheduled otherwise it becomes impossible to work efficiently. Group members should create their own schedules, establish the rules, assess their performance, or determine how

many pages they should read at a time in the daily and weekly meetings. Students need sufficient time to read, discuss and be prepared which requires proper organization of schedules. It should also be predictable so that students can self-assign parts of book, read with purpose, make notes, and be prepared fully and actively to participate in the group. Daniels suggests that this pattern also allows the teacher to support students reading, circulating to go over their role sheets. The teacher will also model open-ended questions to reassure kids that their own real responses are truly invited (Daniels, 1994:21-22).

Supplementary Materials

Through writing or drawing, students can express their thinking and responses to the text during the reading process. According to their need, sticky notes, reading response logs, or graphic organizers can be helpful as well. When the group gets together, they can use these materials to start the conversation. Those written or drawn materials are valuable for both their reading and discussion. When the book is finished they can share their project with a wider audience.

Discussion Topics

In traditional classrooms, it is the teacher who provides all discussion topics and decides which can be correct and incorrect. However, in literature circles, students find and develop their own discussion topics before the meeting. Every point of view is respected in the circles. The standards of literature circles are much higher than traditional classrooms, as they are able to achieve literary and intellectual independence. Dewey (1916) claims that, as teachers allow students to communicate freely with each other, students may begin to develop strategies to interact successfully with one another. As students do this, they gradually produce systems of behaviour such as patience, turn-taking, questioning, listening, negotiating, resolving conflicts, and respecting different points of view, behaviours which are conducive to democratic participation. As students share similar ideas and meanings and as students' actions and thoughts influence others during literature circles, characteristics of democracy and community will begin to manifest themselves (as cited in Smith, 2008).

Natural Conversations

In traditional classrooms objective questions are preferred. The correct answers are hidden in the text. However, in literature circles, interpretive, open-ended questions, and personal responses are important along with the details of the texts. Conversations are open and natural. Some questions of value are: "Does this book seem true to life?, How is this character like me?, Does this family remind me of my own?, If faced with this kind of

choice, what would I do?, Could the people in this book have risen above their circumstances?”. (Daniels, 1994:23)

Task Roles

The aim of assigning specific, structured roles to group members is to encourage students to cooperate with each other and teach them how to handle individual responsibility. Daniels (1994) believes that old way of assigning texts, “read this by Friday”, sets the stage for poor understanding. However, current reading theory for literature circles stresses the importance of helping students to activate their prior knowledge about a topic or author, to set purposes for reading, to make predictions, and to be constantly “interrogating the text” for clarity and meaning (Daniels, 1994:24). As students are reading different books in cooperative literature circle groups, the teacher uses role sheets to structure responsibilities and guide students’ thinking before and after reading. These role sheets should be adapted to different grade levels, age or student needs, and they should be modified based on the objectives of the learning assignment and on the text being used.

Daniels (1994) designed eight all-purpose, basic roles for fiction including “discussion director, literary luminary, illustrator, connector, summarizer, vocabulary enricher, travel tracer, investigator”. He also designed five roles for primary students including “discussion director, passage picker, artful artist, word finder, connector”.³ These basic roles are designed to invite different cognitive perspectives on a text like drawing a response, reading a passage aloud, debating interpretations, connecting to one’s own life, creating a summary, tracking the scene, focusing on words, and tuning in to one character (Daniels, 1994:25). Other roles can be created as needed. Role sheets can be used as a tool to keep each of the students focused on a particular literary element and familiarise them with literature circles. Thanks to the role sheets, it will become easier for them to bring their own unique information to the group and start the group discussion. Furr (2004) claims that role sheets are important tools to guide EFL students too as they are able to discuss issues in English, solve problems in collaboration with their peers that they cannot possibly deal with on their own, and engage in complex textual analysis. The magic of the role sheets lies in the fact that it gives students a clear purpose for reading the story. When they meet in their groups in class, students are confident that they know what they are going to talk about in their group. One of Furr’s students claims that “I like literature circles because I feel that I can really discuss these stories in English since I know exactly what I am supposed to talk about (do) when we discuss the stories in my group.” According to Daniels (1994), rotating the roles is also important. In this

³ For further details and sample role sheets, see Daniels (1994).

way, everyone gets to look at the story from a different angle each day, gradually internalizing the perspectives of the roles (Daniels, 1994:25). When the students select and play different roles in each circle, they become familiar with all the roles. After a while, if each of the students has had the chance to play every role, they can think in terms of all the roles, not just the role for which they are responsible. Then, there comes natural conversations about books without the role sheets. The students now have an idea about how to engage in literature circles. They become ready to depend on their memories and perspectives while discussing the books. If they stay with a specific role for too long, answers often become short and scripted.

Teacher as Facilitator

In literature circles, the students take over the responsibility for their education from the teacher. The role of the teacher does not include lecturing, telling, or advising. S/he is the facilitator in the circle. In other words, his/her main duty is not to teach in a traditional way. Instead, they can teach mini-lessons to the whole class to show the students what to do in the circles, or they can assist students to activate prior knowledge leading to questions which develop critical thinking. The teacher organizes and supports each group by monitoring and encouraging participation. According to Daniels (1994), teachers collect sets of good books, help groups to form, visit and observe group meetings, confer with kids or groups who struggle, orchestrate sharing sessions, keep records, make assessment notes, and collect still more books. He also states that in some literature circle classrooms, the teacher also elects to play another key role: fellow reader, only if the circle is running smoothly enough. They join the group not as the teacher, but as an equal person, honestly reading the book right along with students by responding, predicting, and sharing his/her different and powerful ideas (Daniels, 1994:26).

Similar to Daniels, Cavanaugh (2006) sets some duties for the teachers to do during literature circles. To him, teachers should assist students in joining discussion groups, assign roles for the members of each circle, and select circle meeting days which can be daily, weekly, or biweekly. Teacher is also responsible for assigning reading to be completed by the circles inside or outside of the class. S/he meets with each group or mingles among the groups to check on their progress to help keep students on task. In brief, the teacher should act as a facilitator for the circles and help them to prepare for their roles. S/he can also ask students to summarize the reading or discuss aspects of their roles to guide them (as cited in Bernier, 2008). Of course, each classroom situation will be different according to student needs, however in each of them, the teacher will be there to encourage independence, taking a less dominant role than in the past.

Evaluation Process

In literature circles, the aim is to measure the process as a whole, not specific sub-skills. Besides, the centre of attention is the students, not the teacher. Unlike traditional ways, teacher observations and student self-evaluation are main features for the evaluation process in literature circles. Students take part in record-keeping and evaluation activities. Daniels (1994) claims that as educators, they use the tools of kid-watching, narrative observational logs, performance assessment, checklists, student conferences, group interviews, audio-taping, and the collection in portfolios of the artefacts created by circles to measure the success of the students (Daniels, 1994:27). If the students feel comfortable, video-taping can also be used to show them what their participation looks like by measuring their comprehension and participation. Daniels (1994) also states that, students in literature circles are regularly asked to write and talk evaluatively about their own goals, roles, and their performances in the circle (Daniels, 1994:27).

A Spirit of Playfulness and Fun

In education, psychological aspects of learning should be absolutely taken into consideration by educators. The background of the students inevitably affects their learning. At an early age, children learn everything by playing. “Fun is the key factor that most effectively keeps learners engaged in complex learning tasks and makes it a productive learning” (Daniels, 1994:27). So, when the teachers recreate a close and playful interaction in the literature circle classrooms as in their childhood period, they can enjoy the time together. In the circles, a spirit of playfulness and fun pervades the room. As a result of this, effective and productive learning becomes inevitable.

New Groups, New Reading Choices

When all the groups finish their books, the circles disband and the members form other groups for another project. With each new book choice, a different combination of students comes together. This regular rearrangement of personalities and viewpoints in the circles is enriching, challenging and encouraging for friendship and communication patterns according to Daniels (1994). He emphasizes the importance of this regular mixing of student groups because he strongly thinks that literature circles offer a model of how heterogeneous classes can work. Students can switch levels, pick harder or easier books, depending on their interests in certain authors, topics or genres. As a result, literature circles, when done well, show how heterogeneous, diverse student groups can work together effectively (Daniels, 1994:28-29). On the other hand, Furr (2004) thinks that literature circles are ideal for L1 students. However, it should be modified for EFL and ESL classrooms. Instead of this feature, he suggests

that “When books are finished, readers may prepare a group project and/or the instructor may provide additional information to “fill in some gaps” in student understanding.” The teacher can prepare a mini-lecture about the author and the historical and social issues raised in the story. He calls this step back-loading the instruction. “After the group project or additional instruction, new groups are formed, based on student choice or the instructor’s discretion.”

3. Types of Literature Circles

There are different types of literature circles that can be implemented in the classroom according to students’ needs. King (2004) has successfully implemented several types of literature circles in the classroom. The types of literature circles include: basic literature circles, modified literature circles, literature circles with roles, nonfiction literature circles, and structured literature circles (as cited in Montoya, 2006).

Basic Literature Circles

Basic literature circles are very flexible which does not require the use of extensive handouts or assignments. The student chooses his or her book based on personal preferences and reading ability. Students can read alone, with a partner, or in small groups, then the group decides on the number of pages to be read. During the reading process, they write questions or discussion topics on sticky notes or in a journal then use their sticky notes to lead a discussion on the day of their group meeting (Montoya, 2006).

Modified Literature Circles

Modified literature circles are used with readers who are not able to handle weekly assignments. As the group meets each day, these readers often have difficulty in adapting themselves to the fast pace of literature circles. The modified literature circles allow them to be more successful. In this format, shorter books are used and students meet every day with the teacher. Students participate in some reading aloud and independent reading. After reading, the teacher sits in on the meeting to help clarify the main ideas and any vocabulary that may be confusing (Montoya, 2006).

Literature Circles with Roles

Throughout the researches, it has been observed that literature circles become more successful when role sheets are used as a tool to provide students a self-directed discussion. Daniels (1994) designed several roles, some of which are discussion director, who is the facilitator in the group for discussion flow, and passage picker who picks some parts of the story to read aloud. The illustrator draws pictures related to the reading. The connector tries to find connections between the text and the world outside. A summarizer prepares a brief summary, and a word finder looks for

special words in the story. These roles should be adapted, modified, or recreated according to students' needs.

Nonfiction Literature Circles

It is the literature circles with nonfiction books. Montoya (2006) states that nonfiction books have a slightly different structure than fiction books which generally makes them more difficult. The students read together every day and discuss new vocabulary terms and new facts they have learned. In nonfiction literature circles, there are reading days on which students simply read together and take notes and meeting days on which students write a response in their journal prior to the meeting. Students then read and discuss their responses with the group.

Structured Literature Circles

As understood from its name, these are very structured groups that meet once a week with the teacher. Other students work independently to prepare for their group when they are not meeting with the teacher. On the first week, the teacher introduces the book, then the students generally meet and discuss the book for the following three weeks (Montoya, 2006).

4. Benefits and Possible Problems of Literature Circles

4.1. Benefits of Literature Circles

Bernier (2008) states that literature circles create lifelong learners. Circles teach students to learn by doing, foster their responsibility, encourage cooperative learning, and strengthen their critical thinking which leads to collaborative classrooms. Circles increase student engagement by providing students with choice in the classroom. Circles validate student opinions and perspectives, and thus help build student self-esteem. He also emphasizes that circles allow teachers to assess many types of learning and knowledge.

Creating Lifelong Learners

It is a known fact that students do not like reading because it is generally boring or difficult for them. Because of this reason, educators know that the reading process should be fun and entertaining for them to develop their reading habits which will create lifelong learners. In literature circles, working in a group has a positive effect on the students. They have the chance freely to discuss their ideas with friends and teachers which makes them more active readers than other students. As DaLie (2001) points out, writing book reports and taking multiple choice tests at the end of a good novel are not a part of an adult's reading experience. If we want our students to continue reading, we can take the adult reading process as a model for them. Literature circles ask students to practice authentic experiences and behaviours to read, think, imagine, question, laugh and

talk (as cited in Bernier, 2008). Even reading long novels in the circle can be fun for students. When they have positive experiences thanks to the circles, it will encourage students to read on their own and continue searching for other texts to read. Then, it will hopefully become a habit.

Building Self-Esteem

In literature circles, students will feel that their ideas and suggestions are respected and seriously considered, as in the circles every perspective, whether it is right or wrong, is welcomed. Students are not forced to give the answers that the teacher wants. They can freely express themselves, even disagree with one another. When they receive positive feedback for their contributions in the circle, it boosts their self-esteem and makes them successful readers. Inevitably, reading becomes more pleasurable for them.

Learning by Doing

Stringer et al. (2003) declares that many theorists such as Dewey, Rogers, and Piaget suggest that learning takes place best when students are allowed to learn by doing, taking ownership of their studies through opportunities that lead to freedom of choice, and when social interaction abounds in the learning environment (as cited in Bernier, 2008). Many students learn best by using and experiencing their knowledge. The teacher supports their knowledge by visual aids and lecturing, however the average classroom atmosphere does not provide enough chance for the students to learn best by doing. Literature circles give teachers an opportunity to include all types of learners in one effective method. During the reading process, students try and fail as a result find their own insights which help them to develop their thinking and widen their perspectives. Through conversations and interactions, students learn how to generate ideas and develop their own questions and interpretations for the discussions. As they have a chance to practice these skills in the circles, hopefully they can apply them to other fields in their daily lives.

Assessing Many Types of Learning

It is known by every educator that there are different learning styles and types of knowledge. It will not be an effective education for the students, if the teacher assesses only one type of each instead of breaking the habit of the typical classroom patterns. Literature circles provide an opportunity for the teacher to implement different types of assessment. As a result, students are given more than one opportunity to show their knowledge. Along with the traditional tests, essays or mini-lessons, students can create their own questions for discussions, explain their favourite scenes, draw pictures, analyse specific characters, create a timeline of events, and even grade themselves according to their level of participation in the circle. Students feel comfortable and learn to trust their knowledge in the class as

they can understand the material thanks to different types of learning. Later, they can use their knowledge and positive experiences in other areas such as writing an essay or journal on the related text. Huntley (2000), an educator who wanted her students to continue thinking critically as they turned to doing nonfiction reading implemented a literature circle group to compare the results with her previous teaching experiences. In her first try, she was happy with the results. She observed that all students did better writing on this paper than any other formal paper they wrote during the year.

Increasing Student Engagement

The most important factor on student engagement is that literature circles offer smaller group atmospheres. In large class setting, some students might be more prone to dozing off, daydreaming or doodling. However, in literature circles, as Grambell and Almasi (1996) emphasize, students have more opportunities to speak, interact, interpret, clarify and exchange points of view that are offered in other talk structures (as cited in Bernier, 2008). Students make connections with materials, share their ideas independently by adding their personal inferences independently in the circles which leads them to better learning and to activate their long-term memory. Students feel much more comfortable in the circles than in a whole-class discussion. So, literature circles increase student engagement.

Providing Choices

As Bernier (2008) observed, in traditional classroom atmosphere, students generally sit passively, answer teacher questions, read teacher material, learn what the teacher has asked them to learn, and do what the class as a whole is doing. On the other hand, literature circles offer them a wide opportunity for choice. Students can choose the text they will be reading, the specific roles for which they will be responsible, or the materials they will discuss while the teacher recommends different ways of expressing their ideas. As a result, they naturally feel empowered and enjoy the opportunity to have choices in the circles.

Fostering Responsibility

Literature circles encourage students to take responsibility for their own education and aim to create individual and responsible students. Stringer et al. (2003) claim that all literature circles force each student to take responsibility for preparing the discussion by taking notes and organizing information to present to the group. Furthermore, in some of them, students decide how many pages to read for each session (as cited in Bernier, 2008). They can also learn to help each other when they have learnt to be responsible for themselves. They figure out how to encourage silent classmates to talk more on their own. They share the responsibility as a

whole by socially interacting. This will help them to become more responsible individuals in the real world.

Strengthening Critical Thinking

Critical thinking is extremely important for students to realize their own potential and analyse their own responses. Blum et al. (2007) claim that literature circles encourage students to develop their metacognition of how this work to understand what they read. Furthermore, like self-determination curricula, literature circles promote interpersonal relationships through discussion, self-perception, problem solving, and decision making which can all help increase students' critical thinking abilities (as cited in Bernier, 2008). In her study, Almasi (1996) observed the fact that student-led discussions allowed the students a more participatory role in the interpretation of text and the ability to engage in higher level of thinking and problem solving (as cited in Bernier, 2008).

Constructing Collaborative Classrooms

All of the positive and supportive effects of literature circles on the students create collaborative classrooms dominated by cooperative learning. Every student in the circle gains unique knowledge. The literature circle atmosphere teaches them empathy and respect for each other's interests and interpretations on the subject. Talking and sharing ideas becomes a motivation for the students as they know that they are respected. It is also an important aspect for EFL students. In their small group, they act more eagerly to share the newly discovered information with each other. Sharing ideas with each other also links them to the real world by providing a more natural context for conversation. They have a chance to learn how to conduct a discussion in a proper way which increases their social skills along with their literacy skills. Literature circles create a better learning and sharing environment for both the teacher and the students. Students' interpretations and questions are also valuable for the teacher as they differ from theirs. Teachers can interpret the subject through the students' perspectives.

4.2. Possible Problems of Literature Circles

How literature circles can address problems can be analysed into four categories⁴ including developmental ability, and lack of prior experience, background knowledge, and models.

Developmental Ability

Group discussion is one of the most important parts of literature circles as the students show off their skills and knowledge by sharing ideas. If the discussion is successful enough, the effects and outcomes will be important

⁴ These categories are based on the educators' ideas from Kiangsu Chekiang Collage.

for the students' development. Critical thinking skills of the students directly affect the quality of discussion. In order to stimulate useful discussions, members should be able to engage in critical thinking. Otherwise conversations can fall flat and the students cannot be sure what to do next. They just repeat each other's ideas or they talk one after another which causes the comments to be unrelated. Carrying on meaningful conversations may be difficult for the students and they often need support, especially at the beginning of the circle. There may also be students with learning disabilities, unprepared group members, some students who do not care to be at school, or disagreements among group members. There may also be some students who are so concentrated on their own roles and performances that they do not listen to the others. However, as time passes, they begin to understand the spirit of the circles. They get used to the procedure and gain self-confidence. Teachers guide and encourage the circle members in order to prepare students for literature circles, as they cannot fix problems on their own. They can also guide students to deal with different opinions. Clark and Howladel (2007) states that racial, gender, and economic animosities can stand in the way of creating cooperative groupings (as cited in Petko, 2011). Even if there may be some discipline problems, the teacher create harmony for the discussions to be fully successful.

Lack of Prior Experience

As the teacher-centred education system is widespread all over the world where schools are designed to accommodate large groups of students. The students and the teachers are used to a classroom atmosphere in which discussions are directed and evaluated by the teacher. For literature circles, smaller classes with a warm atmosphere will be more effective. For the first few times, students cannot be expected to participate effectively, as they will feel like a complete stranger in such a new atmosphere. Inevitably, getting used to this new technique will take some time before it becomes a normal routine. The most important factor is that the teacher and the students should be open to new techniques.

Lack of Background Knowledge

In traditional methods, most of the students come to the class unprepared and sit in silence. Only a few of them have the courage to talk and share ideas. The day will be completed, even if there are unprepared students in the class. However, for literature circles, students should have some background knowledge. They should read the book and be prepared before they come to the group discussion. They bring their materials, so they can share ideas and actively learn from each other. Another rare but annoying problem for Daniels and Steineke (2004) is when the students who have already read one of the books either trash-talk it or give away

the ending. If lots of students have read a book choice before, you may need to exclude this book to keep their interest alive (p. 114).

Lack of Models

It is difficult for students to create an effective discussion atmosphere without knowing what the literature circle is. It is also difficult for the teacher to set up the whole process until students get used to the circle. Firstly, the teacher can prepare a mini-lesson and a role play for the students to show how they should behave in the circles. This process can be videotaped then played back in the class to show students their own performance. It will be easier for the students to learn from their own mistakes with this model. They can reflect and criticize their own performances and learn how to carry out the discussions. They can also improve their public speaking and presentation skills. However, videotaping may be a problem for some students especially for the shy ones. If they do not feel comfortable, the discussion will not be natural. Though it is a time-consuming process for students and teachers, methods and strategies can be changed according to the needs of the students, as long as they gain experience, confidence and insights.

5. Why Literature Circles?

Noe and Johnson (1999) point out that literature circles promote a love for literature and positive attitudes towards reading. It is one of the most significant qualities of the circles, since students do not generally like reading and reading courses. There is a limited number of effective ways to make the students love reading, and circles are one of them. This constructivist and student-centred method also encourage extensive and intensive reading. It also teaches students how to handle their responsibilities through choices. Circles make it possible for the students to have multiple perspectives on literature. As a result, student responses to the text become very different from each other. Circles also foster interaction and collaboration among students which creates a natural discussion atmosphere. Critical thinking skills are developed in the discussions which lead to student inquiry (as cited in Cameron et al., 2012).

Many researchers have seen the importance of social interaction in student development and language education. Specifically, Piaget and Vygotsky are the two major influences in psychology and education who emphasize the importance of social interactions in cognitive development. Cognitive development can be defined as the ability to think, reason and understand the world in which we live. Piaget's human cognition is based on the view that "all study of human thought must begin by positing an individual who is attempting to make sense of the world. The individual is continually constructing hypothesis and thereby attempting to generate knowledge" (Gardner, 1993:18). Piaget believed that group work and

classroom discussion helps to move from egocentrism. Experiences facilitate logical thinking and language development. To him, the most helpful interactions were those between peers because peers are on an equal basis and can challenge each other's thinking. Vygotsky believed that our specific mental structures and processes can be traced to our interactions with others and these social interactions are more than simple influences of cognitive structures and thinking processes (as cited in Bernier, 2008). At this point, literature circles are helpful tools to promote cognitive development. As learning is a constructive process according to Piaget's view, a student cannot just look at something and make it knowledge. So, it is important to make sure that students are actively engaged in the learning process. A student must modify, question, transform, and understand process and consequences. In order to turn the data into knowledge. Interacting with both the teacher and their peers make this process possible as they need to test their thinking, to be challenged, to receive feedback, and to watch how others work out problems. In this sense, it can be said that organizing literature circles is a perfect opportunity for students as they can act on, observe, discuss or write about what they have experienced while reading literature. If reading is the basis for knowledge, literature circles can be considered as the tool providing materials for thinking. Piaget claimed that students can use, test and sometimes change their thinking abilities while communicating with others which support the process of cognitive development. Of course, in the times when Piaget and Vygotsky were developing their theories, there were no such techniques we call literature circles or book clubs in education. However, as the education system is developed, like many other fields in the world, it becomes clear how their theories are supported by literature circles. In the light of Piaget and Vygotsky, many educators support the idea that social interaction is needed in the classroom to promote learning.

In traditional teacher-centred discussions, the teacher is the one to initiate a topic. Students raise their hands and wait to be called on. Then, the teacher evaluates the responses offered by the students who are mostly silenced and engaged in routines. This method gives students a passive and less responsible role. Under these circumstances, as the teacher is the main target in education, assumptions and prejudices like "if your students test well, you must be teaching well, but if they test poorly, you are not a good teacher" become inevitable. It is very wrong to subject the teacher to such pressure. In modern world, we only need to accept the fact that we, as educators, should be in search of new strategies and techniques in education. Then, we should be open and courageous enough to try them. Literature circles are worth trying, as it removes much of the control from the teacher and hands it over to the students by providing them an environment which is supportive and challenging. Besides, through literature circles, they can better learn similarities and differences among

cultures, both current and historical. Literature circles can be collaboratively integrated into education, then group members can share of authority and responsibility of their actions without creating a teacher-centred atmosphere. As Macaro (1997) defines collaborative learning, learners are encouraged to achieve common learning goals by working together, rather than with the teacher. They demonstrate that they value and respect each other's language input. The teacher becomes a facilitator for the students to achieve these goals (as cited in Bedel, 2011). Kasten (1995) claims that literature circles promote peer discussions, negotiation of ideas, and the expression of comprehension, which is a feature that is most common in literature circles (as cited in Bedel, 2011).

With the aims of avoiding the disadvantages of teacher-centred education, many teachers have implemented student-centred literature discussions where the students can express their personal insights and ideas rather than simply receiving from the teacher. Of course, there are teachers, in Turkey or around the world, still struggle with giving up their old way of teaching methods instead of trying new techniques even though small group work has been shown to be beneficial. Most educators today agree on the idea that learning should be student-centred, students should not sit passively around the teacher in the learning process. So, they should be turned into active participants and should be given the opportunity and freedom to talk, challenge, experiment and collaborate. Students should also be motivated so that they can make personal connections with the stories they have read and to think more critically about their reading. These kinds of discussions also encourage equal participation among students. Hill et al. (1995) argue that literature circles have the ability to foster interaction and collaboration in an environment too often obsessed with competition and individualism (as cited in Bernier, 2008). In literature circles, the focus of attention is on the students, their needs and interests. Many teachers believe that small group discussion will be highly beneficial for their students as they have the opportunity to choose literature that is appealing to them. Hudgens and Edelman (1986) suggest that students are more likely to participate at a frequency equal to other students when they are in a small group situation rather than the whole group (as cited in Bede, 2010). In whole group instruction setting, only a few students can share their reactions because of the limitation of time. However, in smaller groupings of literature circles, more students can take turns during the discussions and have a chance to share their opinions. The quieter students who become shy in front of the whole class, feel more comfortable to speak their minds in the small group atmosphere. Fourth-grade teacher Nierman claims that literature circles allowed her the freedom to turn ownership over the students. Students gained greater insight by sharing literature instead of reading in isolation. Students who never participated before during the whole-class discussion found a voice (Daniels, 1994:1).

Literature circles encourage students to read more, think deeply about books, listen carefully to classmates, and share ideas. The psychology of the students is also very important for the continuity of reading. They feel empowered by the freedom to choose a text that interest them and lead group discussion. One of Wadsworth's (2007) students said, "It is so much fun to read when I like what I am reading." This psychology of empowerment keeps their interest and curiosity alive. As students become interested in what they are doing, the reading process will be much more attractive for them. Literature circles are effective in getting students to adopt reading habits and often, they become lifelong readers when they are interested in what they are doing.

Another important point is, as Dewey (1916) stated, that there is a division between what is taught strictly for school purposes and what is taught for life purposes. Formal instruction in schools is only the subject matter of school assessment and is separate from the subject matter of life. While formal instruction in schools should address the subject matter of school assessment as well as life experiences, it should also provide opportunities for students to engage in democratic participation. Educators do not only have the responsibility to teach knowledge, they also have the responsibility to prepare students for the real world in which they should be considerate, thoughtful, and democratic citizens. In order for the students to receive a quality education and to experience more authentic social interaction, educators should shape their social, language, and literary skills along with their character and knowledge by giving students opportunities by leading them to think, reason, and comprehend. Participating in peer discussions helps students to become more familiar with social, cultural, and political issues guiding them in the development of cultural knowledge. Literature circles can help students make connections to the teaching core and to their own lives, so, it encourages the students to use their knowledge and skill in real life. Mantley-Bromley and Foster (2005) claims that as students engage in these kinds of activities, they learn to trust each other, to listen with care and empathy, to respectfully disagree with each other, and to use feedback to improve their work (as cited in Smith, 2008). Taking parts in literature circles helps students to develop self-confidence and self-control. Students can learn to communicate and cooperate with diverse groups and exercise leadership as they take part in discussions. By this way, they become stronger, passionate, and enthusiastic readers. Vygotsky suggests that student cultural development appears at two levels. First, it occurs on a social, and later on a psychological level. Language learners should be taught social and cultural skills along with the literacy skills to activate their background knowledge and contribute to their cultural development. Literature circles are perfect for both improving comprehension skills and providing authentic social interactions for the learners. Lloyd (2004) claims that

literature circles allow English language learners to become more familiar with strategies that are used to comprehend text and how they help them to better understand the text. Comprehension is a complex process that requires knowledge, understanding, and active thinking. By self-questioning or hearing other discussions from classmates and focusing on many different roles or strategies in the literature circle, the students are able to familiarize themselves with comprehension strategies that help their understanding of the text. As a result of this natural process, all the strategies experienced in literature circle become a part of students' independent thinking (as cited in Montaya, 2006). Literature circles provide instruction and learning in basic literacy skills such as questioning, critical thinking, and comprehension. Keene and Zimmermann (1997) note that either as a group, in pairs, or individually, students learn, use, and refine the strategies of proficient readers such as activating prior knowledge, determining the most important information or ideas, creating pictures in their mind, making inferences, asking questions to clarify their understanding, and summarizing what they read (as cited in Prillaman, 2012:14). As the students develop their questioning, critical thinking and comprehension strategies and come up with their own questions, literature discussions also become richer. Students who are responsible for discussions in the circle learn to find meaning in the text, and personal meaning that creates interest. As a result of this, they can expand their own thinking. Discovering their own personal meanings and connection guides them to reference their own opinions within the text. Students learn how to ask sensible and genuine questions and how to interpret newly discovered information about the text. The literature circle becomes an activity in which the reader is actively participating in questioning in addition to their responsibility of finding a meaning to the text. Students also learn to respect and value the options and ideas of others as they are able to see how unique each of them are with the help of literature circles. Wood et al. (2001) state that students could share information, clarify misunderstandings, and raise new perspectives when they collaborated in discussions (as cited in Wadsworth, 2007).

Fountas and Pinnell (1994) suggest that there are three key elements that are brought together in literature circles. The first one is shared experience. Students enjoy a common experience that allows them to learn and construct understanding together. Second, it provides students with rich text. The text provides students with the opportunity to form interpretations across layers of meaning. The third key element is the personal response. Each child's response is important to the discussion. Readers learn to value their responses to the text, share them with others, and expand their understanding. Fountas and Pinnell (1994) have defined four main paths in which students explore meaning. These paths are talking, writing, reading, and the visual and performing arts. All four paths

are important to establish a foundation for literacy analysis. Students usually use more than one mode of expression to explore the meaning of their text. However, talk is the central path that is used in literature circles (as cited in Montaya, 2006). Encouraging students to share their thoughts and discuss the issues related to the text affects their critical thinking and perspectives in a positive way. Through the discussion method, amount and effect of participation increase as a result of active involvement. Engaging conversation from different points of view helps students form new ideas and think critically about the points they should support or reject in the circle. As Ketch (2005) claims, "We learn through discussion, and it moulds our thinking". Studies done by Long and Gove (2003-2004) have discovered that when students were encouraged to make connections, reflect back on the text, and question the text, they become more critical thinkers. Students involved in discussions were able critically to discuss literary concepts. They were also able to write critically about their topics that were made possible by transfer of skill (as cited in Wadsworth, 2007). Furthermore, literature circles are proven to be helpful for encouraging male students to read. It is an inevitable fact that boys' and girls' learning styles are different, and boys are less interested in reading in comparison to girls. Bede (2010) claims that most girls are quite comfortable sitting quietly and independently working. However, boys prefer to work in groups, have challenges and competitions, use technology, participate in discussions or oral work, and actively learn. Booth (2002) identifies that literature circles have several factors that enhance boys' literacy development. Boys need to be given a choice in and ownership of their reading. Literature circles provide opportunities to select what they will read. Book selection for boys should reflect their interest, background and abilities. In literature circles, they can reflect their interests as it includes a variety of genres, both fiction and nonfiction. Boys need occasions for talking to others in meaningful ways about what they have read. The small group discussion atmosphere of literature circles provides a supportive environment for meaningful talk about the text. Boys who are reluctant readers need to have successful reading experiences. Literature circles often involve mixed-ability grouping which encourages a boy's competitiveness and his social need to be a part of a group (as cited in Ontario Ministry of Education, 2004).

Another reason for the use of literature circles as significant educational and pedagogical method is the relationship with the Theory of Multiple Intelligences. Emotional intelligence and inter/intra personal intelligence increase the acquisition and retention of linguistic and literary knowledge. Howard Gardner, a Harvard psychologist and professor of education, has identified a list of seven distinct intelligences according to his belief that every student possesses a different kind of mind and that each one of them differs in their needs, capacity of learning, and performance. Gardner

(1999) emphasizes that multiple intelligence theory is child-centred, as it develops children's innate potential, rather than requiring them to master extraneous academic information (as cited in Mirzazadeh, 2012). His theory can be easily adapted into learning and teaching as education should meet student's different needs or interests. Gardner's theory validates educators' everyday experience: Students think and learn in many different ways. It also provides educators with a conceptual framework for organizing and reflecting on curriculum assessment and pedagogical practices. In turn, this reflection has led many educators to develop new approaches that might better meet the needs of the range of learners in their classrooms. It has helped a significant number of educators to question their work and to encourage them to look beyond the narrow confines of the dominant discourses of skilling, curriculum, and testing (Smith, 2002, 2008). Gardner claims that these differences challenge an educational system assuming that everyone can learn the same materials in the same way and that a uniform, universal measure suffices to test student learning. Indeed, as currently constituted, our educational system is heavily biased toward linguistic modes of instruction and assessment and, to a somewhat lesser degree, toward logical-quantitative modes as well (Lane, 1998). Learning occurs most efficiently when there is a balance between affective and cognitive levels which may also be referred to as emotions and intelligence. In the modern world, especially in the 20th century, with the onslaught of mass education, we gravitate towards the style of teaching that involves speaking to large groups of people. The instructor gives them as much information as possible, as fast as possible. Then, the instructor tests the retention of knowledge with a bubble test. Students generally memorize the facts for a test, then forget most of the knowledge once school is over. That seems to be the most efficient way to do it because you cannot individually teach thousands of people. The essence of the balance that is a part of educating the whole person is lost. The balance between the emotional and intellectual qualities is sacrificed. The whole framework of thinking is reflected in Gardner's multiple intelligences theory in which he identified the intrapersonal and interpersonal communication. According to Gardner (1989), intelligence is the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural setting. Intrapersonal intelligence is involved chiefly in an individual's examination and knowledge of his own feelings, while interpersonal intelligence looks outward, toward the behaviour, feelings, and motivation of others (Gardner, 1993: 241). Lazear (1993) adds that intrapersonal intelligence allows us to be self-reflective, that is, to step back from ourselves and watch ourselves, almost like an outside observer (as cited in Mirzazadeh, 2012). In other words, intrapersonal learners tend to shy away from others. They are in tune with their inner feelings. They have wisdom, intuition and motivation, as well as a strong will, confidence and opinions.

They can be taught through independent study and introspection. They are the most independent of the learners. On the other hand, interpersonal learners learn through interaction. They have many friends and empathy for others. They can be taught through group activities, dialogues. It allows them to work effectively with others (Lane, 1998). Mirzazadeh (2012) states that, the interpersonal intelligence is connected to the ability to harmonize with others, to understand their perspectives and opinions, but also to convince others in order to achieve personal objectives. Understanding other people, working cooperatively and communicating effectively, which are parts of the interpersonal intelligence, are strongly connected to learning a second language. When Gardner's views are considered, it can be said that the literature circle creates a balance between intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences as a part of intellectual and emotional intelligence because each student has a role according to their abilities and interests. The students learn from the observation of other students that contributes their ability to work with a team. They cooperate with each other to carry out a complex task. They are interacting with each other and feel motivated to play their roles in the circle because they are with the people they know. Students gain the social experience of working with different personalities in the circles and socializing with them outside of the class when the circle is done. The level of brain stimulation and activation is higher because they are getting verbal activity, and an emotional investment in the literature. They might also get a chance for working on their own in the circle. As a result, literature circles contribute to students' creativity and receptivity of knowledge.

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CONVERSATIONAL ANALYSIS AND ANALYZING SOME EVERYDAY CONVERSATIONS BY USING THE FEATURES OF SPOKEN INTERACTIONS*

Bengü TÜRKÖĞLU** & Abdülhamit ÇAKIR***

1. Introduction

Conversational analysis, which is sometimes regarded as distinct from discourse analysis, is a branch of study which sets out to discover what order there might be in this apparent chaos (Cook, 1989). The emphasis in previous sociological research had been deductive and quantitative, focusing on general questions of social structure. The new name was chosen to reflect a fresh direction of study, which would focus on the techniques or methods used by people themselves when they are actually engaged in social – and thus linguistic – interaction. The central concern was to determine how individuals experience, make sense of, and report their interactions.

The term “conversational analysis” generally contains the discourse hierarchy; that’s the levels from act to interaction. In this hierarchy, opening, message and closing parts are three units and universal features of the conversation.

Sacks (Coulthard, 1985) asks whether one can use conversation as an analytic unit. The basic question is whether there are some universal features which all conversations share, or whether conversations consist of a random collection of smaller units in no fixed sequence. He suggests that greetings are close to being universal in conversation and although they sometimes don’t occur, on some of these occasions their absence is noticeable, which suggests that conversationalists feel they are an almost invariant feature. For example, there are two important features about greetings: firstly, they occur at the very beginning of a conversation, and cannot be done anywhere else in the conversation; secondly they allow all the speakers a turn, right at the beginning of the conversation:

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** (Asst. Prof. Ph.D.); Necmettin Erbakan University, Konya, Turkey. E-mail: turkoglubengu@gmail.com

*** (Asst. Prof. Ph.D.); KTO Karatay University, Konya, Turkey. E-mail: abdulhamit.cakir@karatay.edu.tr

[1] R: Hello there you two

C: Hi

R: Hi there (Levinson, 1997)

There are two major types of occasion on which a conversation does not open with a greeting. Firstly, conversations between people who do not consider themselves co-conversationalists, for example strangers. They are not on greeting terms and therefore do not exchange a greeting. The speaker who opens must demonstrate in his first utterance why he is beginning the conversation:

[2] A: Excuse me. Can you tell me the way to...

[3] Hey. You've dropped your book. (Coulthard, 1985)

The other conversations which typically don't open with a greeting are telephone conversations. Schegloff (Coulthard, 1985) argues that although the person who answers the telephone may say 'hello' this is not a greeting, it is an answer to the summons from the caller embodied in the ringing of the telephone. Following this indication that the channel is open there is often a greetings sequence to begin the conversation proper, although sometimes, if the answerer simply answers with 'hello', there is first a checking sequence to make sure the caller is talking to the right person.

[4] *Summons* Telephone rings.

Answer A: Hello.

Greeting { B: Good morning.

Sequence { A: Oh hi. (Levinson, 1997)

Following the opening sequence the conversation consists of a series of one or more topics, though occasionally, as Schegloff and Sacks (Coulthard, 1985) observe, the conversation may be closed before speakers reach the first topic:

[5] A: Am I taking you away from your dinner?

[6] A: Are you busy? (Coulthard, 1985)

It is a general rule that the caller or visitor introduces the first topic, and if there is no specific reason for the call or visit this is often explicitly stated – 'I was just dropping by'. There are of course exceptions, most notably when the caller has been asked to call and wants to be told why, and also when the called has been trying to contact the caller, and uses his second turn not simply to reply to the greeting but to initiate the first topic:

[7] A: Where you been all day, I've been trying to get hold of you?

(Coulthard, 1985)

Even if the called doesn't initiate, the first topic may still not be the 'reason for the call'. We mentioned above that sometimes a caller may not want the real reason to occur in the distinctive first topic slot and may therefore substitute another. At other times conversationalists may not feel they have anything sufficiently important to be preserved as the 'reason for the conversation' and there are ways of talking past the first topic slot.

[8] A: Hello there.

B: Hello.

A: What's new with you?

B: Not much, and you?

A: Nothing.

The endings of conversations are also things that have to be achieved - speakers don't just stop speaking. Conversations virtually always end with a closing pair, composed of 'goodbye', 'goodnight', 'see you', and so on. However, the closing sequence can only occur when a topic has been ended and other speakers have agreed not to introduce any new topics. Arriving at a point where a closing sequence can begin requires a certain amount of work.

Topics frequently merge one into another. There are, however, ways of bounding topics to produce a clean ending. One way involves one party producing a proverbial or aphoristic summary or comment on the topic which the other party can agree with.

[9] Dorinne: Oh - you know, it's just like bringin the - blood up.

Theresa: Yeah well. THINGS UH ALWAYS WORK OUT FOR THE
*BEST.

Dorinne: *Oh certainly. (Coulthard, 1985)

Another technique is for the speaker to indicate that he has nothing further to add to the topic by using his turn to produce simply 'alright', 'okay', 'so', 'well', often lengthened and with a falling intonation contour. In doing this the speaker passes. This allows the next speaker the choice of either introducing an entirely new topic, because the constraints of topical coherence have been lifted, or of also passing and turning the first speaker's offered possible pre-closing into a pre-closing sequence. Then, as neither speaker has raised a new topic they can move into a closing sequence and end the conversation:

- [10] *Topic* { Theresa: Yeah well. Things uh always work out for
Bounding { the *best.
Sequence { Dorinne: *Oh certainly.
Pre-closing { Dorinne: Alright Tess.
Sequence { Theresa: uh huh. Okay.
Closing { Dorinne: G’bye.
Sequence { Theresa: Goodnight. (Coulthard, 1985)

In this example both participants agreed that the conversation had gone on long enough; however, sometimes one speaker wants to end but for some reason is unable to achieve a topic bounding sequence and is then forced into a different type of pre-closing: either a statement which presents a reason for stopping:

- [11] A: I gotta go, baby’s crying. (Schiffrin, 2002)

These are only possible pre-closings and especially the latter kind may not be accepted; the other speaker may deny that he wants to get away, though if he accepts they can then move straight into the closing sequence:

(B has called to invite C, but has been told C is going out to dinner)

- [12] *Pre-closing* { B: Yeah. Well get on your clothes and get out and
Sequence { collect some of that free food and we’ll make it
some other time Judy then.
C: Okay Jack.
Closing { B: Bye bye.
Sequence { C: Bye bye. (Coulthard, 1985)

These examples contain only the essentials of a closing, an achieved pre-closing sequence and closing pair, but pre-closings may include making arrangements, re-emphasizing arrangements made earlier, restating the reason for the call, as well as many repetitions, and may continue for many utterances: Schegloff and Sacks (Coulthard, 1985) quote a modest example of a closing containing twelve utterances.

The slot after the possible pre-closing is the one provided for introducing any topic which has not yet received mention, but new topics can be introduced after a pre-closing or even after a closing, provided they are marked as being misplaced.

[13] C: Okay, thank you.

R: Okay dear.

C: OH BY THE WAY. I'd just like to say... (Levinson, 1997)

Spoken interaction can be described in terms of six hierarchical levels, each consisting of one or more units from the level above (McCarthy, 2002; Mey, 2001; Yule, 2002):

1. The *act* is the smallest interactive unit, and it signals what the speaker intends, what s/he wants to communicate. Angular bracket (<>) will be used for <acts> throughout this study.
2. The *move* is what the speaker does in a turn in order to start, carry on and finish an exchange, ie the way s/he interacts; it consists of one or more acts. Square bracket ([]) will be used for [moves] throughout this study.
3. The *turn* is everything the current speaker says before the next speaker takes over; it consists of one or more moves.
4. The *exchange* is the smallest interactive unit consisting, minimally, of two turns produced by two different speakers.
5. The *transaction* consists of one or more exchanges dealing with one single topic.
6. The *interaction* consists of one or more transactions which make up a conversation.

2. Aim of the Study

The aim of our study is to show how spoken interaction in general and, ultimately, different types of spoken interaction are structurally, strategically organized and explain the basic features of the interactional structure and the interactional strategies; besides, our main target is to analyze conversations by using the main features of spoken interaction, the interactional structure and strategies. In a classroom atmosphere, teachers can teach their students to interact with each other successfully by using the features of the interactional structure and the interactional strategies. If students interact with one another according to these rules in the classroom, they apply these rules outside the classroom; namely, in a society life. When a person knows the universal features of conversation, s/he doesn't monopolize, interrupt etc., s/he has a sense of when to speak or stay silent, when to proffer information or hold it back, when to stay aloof or become involved etc. Under these circumstances, few misunderstandings, misinterpretations and problems occur in an interaction. In order to supply an unproblematic atmosphere in our interactions, we have to comprehend the logic of the conversation analysis approach.

3. Method, Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study of discourse is the study of units of language and language use consisting of more than a single sentence, but connected by some system of related topics. The study of discourse is sometimes more narrowly construed as the study of connected sequences of sentences or sentence frames produced by a single speaker. In what follows we will construe the term discourse narrowly, and when more than one person is involved, we will speak of a conversation or more generally a talk-exchange. There are many forms of discourse and many forms of talk-exchange. Letters, jokes, stories, lectures, sermons, speeches, and so on, are all categories of discourse; arguments, interviews, business dealings, instruction, and conversations are categories of talk-exchanges and we are going to analyze talk-exchanges' categories by using the features of spoken interaction in our study.

The term 'interaction' could actually apply to a very large number of quite different social encounters. For example, a teacher talking to students in a classroom is one kind of interaction; others include a doctor talking to a patient in a clinic, individuals buying vegetables at the greengrocer's, taking part in courtroom proceedings, buying stamps at the post office, and dozens of other different experiences people have in which there is interpersonal exchange of talk. The kind of talk is likely to differ according to the different contexts of interaction.

In this study, the features of spoken language are mentioned, but the features of written language aren't referred. Besides only two types of conversations; that's, face-to-face conversations and telephone conversations will be dealt with. For convenience, we are going to choose the conversations which have two participants not three or more participants. Normal conversations have a discernible structure. They tend to begin and end in certain ritualistic ways. The change of speakers tends to be orderly and based on principles of turn taking. There tend to be recognizable levels of formality, informality, and familiarity in such interchanges. Moreover, the language seems to make available devices for smoothly integrating one's remarks into the flow of words. It should not be surprising that conversations reflect both social and linguistic principles; they are, after all, both social and linguistic events, and as such they vary to some extent from culture to culture. Some cultural differences in some conversations occur in our study too.

In our study, first of all we are going to explain the general features of spoken interaction, and examine a lot of different conversations by using these features. Later, we are going to analyze a telephone conversation, and a face-to-face conversation in English and German by using the main features of spoken interaction; namely, the interactional structure.

4. Results

A telephone conversation, and a face-to-face conversation in English and German in terms of six discourse hierarchical levels; that's, act, move, turn, exchange, transaction and interaction were analyzed.

4.1. Analyzing a Telephone Conversation in English by Using the Features of Spoken Interaction

A long telephone conversation which was taken from the book 'Advances in Spoken Discourse Analysis' by Malcolm Coulthard was analyzed.

4.1. ANALYZING A TELEPHONE CONVERSATION IN ENGLISH BY USING THE FEATURES OF SPOKEN INTERACTION

A TELEPHONE CONVERSATION	TURN	ACT	MOVE	EXCHANGE	TRANSACTION	INTERACTION
(Telephone rings)		<alert>	[Summon]	(Stating) 1	1	1
A: Hello	1	<greeting>	[Initiate]			
B: Hello	2	<greeting>	[Response]			
A: Oh hold on I've got to get the extension hold on	3	<statement>	[Initiate]	(Stating) 2		
B: --- (20 seconds)						
A: Hello! (1 second) Hello! (2 seconds)		<greeting>	[Initiate]	(Stating) 3		
B: Yeah, hello.	4	<greeting>	[Response]			
A: Hello? Oh (#) No we were just leaving actually	5	<greeting> <uptake> <inform>	[Initiate] [Focus]	(Stating) 4		
B: Oh Why (#) did you wake up late today	6	<acknowledge> <question>	[Response] [Initiate]	(Questioning) 5		
A: Yeah Pretty late	7	<answer> <statement>	[Focus]			
B: Oh dear	8	<uptake>	[Response]			
A: So I've got to get him off to school How are you anyway Danny	9	<inform> <question>	[Follow-up] [Initiate]			
B: All right	10	<answer>	[Response]	(Questioning) 6	2	

A TELEPHONE CONVERSATION	TURN	ACT	MOVE	EXCHANGE	TRANSACTION	INTERACTION
A: You all right?	11	<check>	[Repair]			
B: Uh-huh	12	<emphasizer>	[Response]			
A: Yeah?	13	<check>	[Repair]			
B: Mm	14	<emphasizer>	[Backchannel]			
A: You got home all right? (#) You weren't too tired?	15	<question>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 7		
		<question>				
B: Well er (2 seconds) I got up pretty late myself I mean I-I was supposed to get up at about seven o'clock	16	<staller>	[Response]			
		<inform>				
		<meta-comment>				
A: What d'you mean you were supposed to	17	<check>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 8		
B: Well I had the alarm clock on for seven	18	<starter>	[Response]			
		<inform>				
A: Hah Well Your alarm clock doesn't seem to work?	19	<acknowledge>	[Backchannel]			
		<uptake>	[Follow-up]			
		<question>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 9		
B: No it did I think I turned it off	20	<reject>	[Response]			
		<meta-comment>				
A: Mm Its you that doesn't work	21	<acknowledge>	[Backchannel]			
		<meta-comment>	[Follow-up]			
B: Hey Danny	22	<alert>	[Summon]	(Stating) 10	3	

A TELEPHONE CONVERSATION	TURN	ACT	MOVE	EXCHANGE	TRANSACTION	INTERACTION
B: Yeah	23	<reply>	[Response]			
A: You know we bought Ben that helium balloon	24	<statement>	[Initiate]	(Stating) 11		
B: Yeah	25	<reply>	[Response]			
A: Why doesn't it float any more (2 seconds) It doesn't float any more	26	<question> <inform>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 12		
B: What do you mean it doesn't float	27	<check>	[Repair]			
A: I mean you know It's not (laughs) important it's just er	28	<filler> <opine>	[Response]			
B: What do you mean it doesn't float any more? A peculiar physical fact that helium yesterday was lighter than air and today it's heavier	29	<question> <inform>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 13		
B: Really?	30	<question>	[Re-open]			
A: Yeah isn't that weird I mean nothing could have happened to it (3 seconds) But i-	31	<confirm> <meta-comment> <opine>	[Response]			
B: Well unless they weren't using helium	32	<uptake> <statement>	[Initiate]	(Stating) 14		

A TELEPHONE CONVERSATION	TURN	ACT	MOVE	EXCHANGE	TRANSACTION	INTERACTION
A: They were I saw them fill it	33	<disagree> <meta-comment>	[Response]			
B: It was written helium that he -er that was what was written on the *um*	34	<statement>	[Initiate]	(Stating) 15		
A: *No* but I mean -	35	<reject>	[Response]			
B: on the tank or something	36	<statement>	[Follow-up]			
A: Well what was it then	37	<question>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 16		
B: Sorry?	38	<question>	[Initiate]			
A: What was it then	39	<question>	[Repair]			
B: I don't know you know I mean I'm just trying to work out and see I I mean it could be anything wh- helium doesn't get converted	40	<answer> <filler> <opine>	[Response]			
A: What? I can't hear you at all	41	<question> <justify>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 17		
B: Well helium doesn't get converted erm you know lying just lying around	42	<opine> <empathizer> <opine>	[Response]			
A: That's what I would have thought too	43	<statement>	[Follow-up]			
B: I mean unless you're thinking about something that undergoes a reaction and er you	44	<opine>	[Initiate]	(Stating) 18		

A TELEPHONE CONVERSATION	TURN	ACT	MOVE	EXCHANGE	TRANSACTION	INTERACTION
A: What?	45	<question>	[Repair]			
B: Well the only possibility is (#) I don't know er unless it's some (#) some gas that undergoes a reaction and is converted to something else I mean *er er*	46	<opine>	[Response]			
A: *Obviously* must be cos it's now*converted*	47	<statement> <justify>	[Follow-up]			
B: *but* I can't figure out what it could *be*	48	<opine>	[Response]			
A: *into* something heavy	49	<justify>	[Follow-up]			
B: Why I – it's not floating at all	50	<question>	[Initiate]	((Questioning) 19		
A: Not (#) It's lying on the floor like any old balloon (1 second)	51	<agree> <meta-comment>	[Response]			
B: It's a bit strange you know	52	<statement> <empathizer>	[Initiate]	(Stating) 20		
A: Yeah interesting (#) Anyway look I have to be off OK (#) Did you enjoy last night	53	<acknowledge> <alert> <opine> <question>	[Response] [Initiate] [Focus]	(Stating) 21	4 5	
B: Er well It was pretty good exercise	54	<staller> <opine>	[Response]			

A TELEPHONE CONVERSATION	TURN	ACT	MOVE	EXCHANGE	TRANSACTION	INTERACTION
A: (laughs) what do you mean good exercise it	55	<question>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 22		
B: (laughs) I mean walking round looking for the fair was exercise	56	<opine>	[Response]			
A: Yeah my feet hurt Looking for the what?	57	<acknowledge> <statement>	[Follow-up]			
B: Looking for the fair	58	<question>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 23		
A: Mim	59	<answer>	[Response]			
B: the trade fair or whatever it was	60	<acknowledge>	[Backchannel]			
A: Mim	61	<expand>	[Response]			
B: autumn something fair	62	<acknowledge>	[Backchannel]			
A: Yeah We we don't walk enough my feet Really hurt (2 seconds)	63	<expand>	[Response]			
B: Mim, yeah A bit of a let-down	64	<acknowledge>	[Follow-up]	(Stating) 24		
A: Mim Still Ben had a nice time	65	<statement>	[Initiate]			
B: Especially when the Chinese opera turned out to be (#) era group of Chinese madrigal singers or something	66	<acknowledge>	[Backchannel]			
A: If it was	67	<opine>	[Focus]	(Stating) 25		
		<statement>	[Response]			

A TELEPHONE CONVERSATION	TURN	ACT	MOVE	EXCHANGE	TRANSACTION	INTERACTION
B: (laughs) wh-whatever	68	<statement>	[Follow-up]			
A: OK Danny I must go	69	<alert> <statement>	[Summons] [Initiate]	(Stating) 26	6	
B: ---						
A: Look I'll - can I talk to you later on this morning		<alert> <request>	[Summons] [Initiate]			
B: Yeah, OK Sure	70	<accept> <emphasizer>	[Response]			
A: Is that OK? Hah?	71	<question> <appealer>	[Initiate] [Focus]	(Questioning) 27		
B: Sorry, what was that	72	<question>	[Repair]			
A: Can I - I'll talk to you when I get there	73	<statement>	[Response]			
B: Yeah	74	<accept>	[Follow-up]			
A: I must go now	75	<statement>	[Initiate]	(Stating) 28	7	
B: OK	76	<accept>	[Response]			
A: Bye-bye	77	<greeting>	[Initiate]	(Stating) 29		
B: Well have a nice day	78	<greeting>	[Response]			
A: Thank you Bye-bye	79	<thanks> <greeting>	[Re-open]			
B: Bye	80	<greeting>	[Follow-up]			

4.1.1 The Explanation of A Telephone Conversation Analysis

This conversation constitutes an interaction. The interaction is formed by seven transactions. The conversation consists of twenty-nine exchanges and eighty turns. The first transaction consists of five exchanges (stating, stating, stating, stating and questioning in turn), thirteen moves (summon, initiate, response, initiate, initiate, response, initiate, focus, response, initiate, focus, response and follow-up in turn), fifteen acts (alert, greeting, greeting, statement, greeting, greeting, greeting, uptake, inform, acknowledge, question, answer, statement, uptake and inform in turn) and nine turns.

The second transaction consists of four exchanges (questioning, questioning, questioning and questioning in turn), sixteen moves (initiate, response, repair, response, repair, backchannel, initiate, response initiate, response, backchannel, follow-up, initiate, response, backchannel and follow-up in turn), twenty-one acts (question, answer, check, emphaziser, check, emphaziser, question, question, staller, inform, meta-comment, check, starter, inform, acknowledge, uptake, question, reject, meta-comment, acknowledge and meta-comment in turn) and twelve turns.

The third transaction consists of eleven exchanges (stating, stating, questioning, questioning, stating, stating, questioning, questioning, stating, questioning and stating in turn), thirty-two moves (summon, response, initiate, response, initiate, repair, response, initiate, re-open, response, initiate, response, initiate, response, follow-up, initiate, initiate, repair, response, initiate, response, follow-up, initiate, repair, response, follow-up, response, follow-up, initiate, response, initiate and response in turn), forty-seven acts (alert, reply, statement, reply, question, inform, check, filler, opine, question, inform, question, confirm, meta-comment, opine, uptake, statement, disagree, meta-comment, statement, reject, statement, question, question, question, answer, filler, opine, question, justify, opine, empathizer, opine, statement, opine, question, opine, statement, justify, opine, justify, question, agree, meta-comment, statement, empathizer and acknowledge in turn) and thirty-two turns.

The fourth transaction consists of an exchange (only stating), a move (only initiate), two acts (alert and opine in turn) and a turn.

The fifth transaction consists of five exchanges (stating, questioning, questioning, stating and stating in turn), twenty moves (focus, response, initiate, response, follow-up, initiate, response, backchannel, response, backchannel, response, follow-up, initiate, backchannel, response, backchannel, initiate, focus, response and follow-up in turn), twenty-two acts (question, staller, opine, question, opine, acknowledge, statement, question, answer, acknowledge, expand, acknowledge, expand,

acknowledge, statement, acknowledge, statement, acknowledge, opine, opine, statement and statement in turn) and sixteen turns.

The sixth transaction consists of two exchanges (stating and questioning in turn), ten moves (summon, initiate, summons, initiate, response, initiate, focus, repair, response, follow-up in turn), eleven acts (alert, statement, alert, request, accept, emphasize, question, applier, question, statement, accept in turn) and six turns.

The seventh transaction consists of two exchanges (stating and stating in turn), six moves (initiate, response, initiate, response, re-open, follow-up in turn), seven acts (statement, accept, greeting, greeting, thanks, greeting, greeting in turn) and six turns.

In this conversation, pauses are timed in parenthesis; (#) indicates a pause of less than one second.

4.2. Analyzing a Face-to-face Conversation in English by Using the Features of Spoken Interaction

A face-to-face conversation which was taken from the book 'An Introduction to Spoken Interaction' by Anna-Brita Stenström was analyzed.

4.2. ANALYZING A FACE-TO-FACE CONVERSATION IN ENGLISH BY USING THE FEATURES OF SPOKEN INTERACTION

A FACE-TO-FACE CONVERSATION	TURN	ACT	MOVE	EXCHANGE	TRANSACTION	INTERACTION
A: Did you arrange to have lunch with Jamie?	1	<question>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 1	1	1
B: No, I didn't	2	<answer>	[Response]			
A: No	3	<query>	[Re-open]			
B: No		<confirm>				
I I just sort of said –		<expand>				
let's sometime or something *vague*	4	<hedge>	[Response]			
you know bit silly		<empathizer>				
A: *Yeah*		<acknowledge>	[Backchannel]			
B: but əm - yeah		<frame>	[Follow-up]			
oh I must do that sometime -		<expand>				
oh yes		<frame>	[Focus]			
one thing too .		<preface>				
ə:m . are you at all interested in coming to the B minor mass		<question>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 2	2	
A: When is it the fifteenth of April	5	<check>	[Repair]			
B: Yeah	6	<clue>				
A: əm – when is that *next week*	7	<confirm>	[Response]			
B: *that's next* Tuesday --	8	<check>	[Repair]			
		<clue>				
		<confirm>	[Response]			

A FACE-TO-FACE CONVERSATION	TURN	ACT	MOVE	EXCHANGE	TRANSACTION	INTERACTION
A: I'll ask Trish tonight I think . it's the day before she goes back to school	9	<inform> <expand>	[Focus]	(Stating) 3		
B: Mm	10	<acknowledge>	[Backchannel]			
A: and – she may be doing something	11	<expand>	[Initiate]			
B: Yeah	12	<acknowledge>	[Response]			
A: if she . if she would like to come I will come	13	<meta-comment>	[Follow-up]			
B: Mhm – (* - - - giggles*)	14	<acknowledge>	[Follow-up]			
A: *Where*						
B: in other words you'll come if your girlfriend wants to come		<suggest>	[Initiate]	(Stating) 4		
A: Yes	15	<answer>	[Response]			

4.2.1 The Explanation of A Face-To-Face Conversation Analysis

In this extract, two topics are discussed: “the lunch with Jamie” and “coming to the B minor mass”, which means that this piece of conversation consists of two transactions. The <frame> oh yes and the <preface> one thing too serve as transition markers between the two transactions.

This conversation constitutes an interaction. The interaction is formed by two transactions. The conversation consists of four exchanges and fifteen turns. The first transaction consists of an exchange (questioning only), six moves (initiate, response, re-open, backchannel and follow-up in turn), ten acts (question, answer, query, confirm, expand, hedge, empathizer, acknowledge, frame and expand in turn) and four turns.

The second transaction consists of three exchanges (questioning, stating and stating in turn), fourteen moves (focus, initiate, repair, response, repair, response, focus, backchannel, initiate, response, follow-up, follow-up, initiate and response in turn), eighteen acts (frame, preface, question, check, clue, confirm, check, clue, confirm, inform, expand, acknowledge, expand, acknowledge, meta-comment, acknowledge, suggest and answer in turn) and eleven turns.

4.3. Analyzing a Telephone Conversation in German by Using the Features of Spoken Interaction

A long telephone conversation which was taken from the book ‘Deutsche Sprachlehre für Ausländer’ by Heinz Griesbach and Dora Schulz was analyzed.

4.3. ANALYZING A TELEPHONE CONVERSATION IN GERMAN BY USING THE FEATURES OF SPOKEN INTERACTION

A TELEPHONE CONVERSATION	TURN	ACT	MOVE	EXCHANGE	TRANSACTION	INTERACTION
P: Guten Morgen, Fritz! Kannst du heute abend zu mir kommen?	1	<greeting> <question>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 1	1	1
F: Heute leider nicht, Peter! Ich muß zu Haus bleiben und arbeiten.	2	<answer> <expand>	[Response]			
P: Aber vielleicht morgen?	3	<question>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 2		
F: Morgen gehe ich mit Erika zum Tanzen. Aber Samstag bin ich frei.	4	<answer> <expand>	[Response]			
P: Gut, dann lade ich dich am Samstag zum Abendessen ein. Meine Schwester und ich wollen nach dem Essen ins Kino gehen. Die Vorstellung beginnt um Viertel nach acht. Wir essen um sieben Uhr, dann kommen wir nicht zu spät. Kannst du gegen sieben Uhr bei uns sein?	5	<react> <invite> <precursor> <expand> <emphasizer> <offer>	[Initiate]	(Questioning) 3		
F: Ja, vielen Dank, ich komme um sieben Uhr. Aufwiedersehen bis Samstag!	6	<accept> <thanks> <meta-comments> <greeting>	[Response]			
P: Wir er warten dich um sieben Uhr. Auf Wiedersehen!	7	<confirm> <greeting>	[Follow-up]			

4.3.1 The Explanation of A Telephone Conversation Analysis

In this extract, only one topic is discussed: “Peter invites Fritz to go out having dinner”, which means that this piece of conversation contains only one transaction.

This conversation constitutes an interaction. The interaction is formed by a transaction. The conversation consists of three exchanges and seven turns. The transaction consists of three exchanges (questioning, questioning and questioning in turn), seven moves (initiate, response, initiate, response, initiate, response and follow-up in turn), nineteen acts (greeting, question, answer, expand, question, answer, expand, react, invite, precursor, expand, emphasize, offer, accept, thanks, meta-comments, greeting, confirm and greeting in turn) and seven turns.

The second transaction consists of three exchanges (questioning, stating and stating in turn), fourteen moves (focus, initiate, repair, response, repair, response, focus, backchannel, initiate, response, follow-up, follow-up, initiate and response in turn), eighteen acts (frame, preface, question, check, clue, confirm, check, clue, confirm, inform, expand, acknowledge, expand, acknowledge, meta-comment, acknowledge, suggest and answer in turn) and eleven turns.

4.4. Analyzing a Face-to-face Conversation in German by Using the Features of Spoken Interaction

A face-to-face conversation which was taken from the book ‘Deutsche Sprachlehre für Ausländer’ by Heinz Griesbach and Dora Schulz was analyzed.

4.4. ANALYZING A FACE-TO-FACE CONVERSATION IN GERMAN BY USING THE FEATURES OF SPOKEN INTERACTION

A FACE-TO-FACE CONVERSATION	TURN	ACT	MOVE	EXCHANGE	TRANSACTION	INTERACTION
B: Guten Tag, Walter! Du kommst auch einmal nach Köln?	1	<greeting> <question>	[Initiate]	(Stating)1	1	1
W: Ich mache gerade eine Geschäftsreise. Heute abend fahre ich nach Hamburg weiter.	2	<answer> <expand>	[Response]			
B: Schade, Dann ist dein Besuch ja sehr kurz. Wie geht es deiner Familie?	3	<evaluate> <meta-comment> <question>	[Follow-up]			
W: Danke, sehr gut. Wir sind alle gesund. Mein Sohn studiert jetzt in Frankfurt.	4	<answer> <emphasizer> <precursor>	[Initiate] [Response]	(Questioning) 2	2	
B: Und deine Tochter? Was macht Sie?	5	<question> <expand>	[Re-open]			
W: Erika geht noch in die Schule.	6	<answer>	[Follow-up]			
B: Aber gehen wir doch ins Zimmer! Du möchtest bestimmt eine Tasse Kaffee!	7	<invite> <offer>	[Initiate]	(Stating)3	3	
W: Ja, sehr gern! Vielen Dank!	8	<accept> <emphasizer> <thanks>	[Response]			

4.4.1 The Explanation of A Face-To-Face Conversation Analysis

In this extract, three topics are discussed: “Walter’s travelling for business”, “talking about family members” and “invitation for a cup of coffee” which means that this piece of conversation consists of three transactions.

This conversation constitutes an interaction. The interaction is formed by three transactions. The conversation consists of three exchanges and eight turns. The first transaction consists of an exchange (stating only), three moves (initiate, response and follow-up in turn), six acts (greeting, question, answer, expand, evaluate and meta-comment in turn) and three turns.

The second transaction consists of an exchange (questioning only), four moves (initiate, response, re-open and follow-up in turn), seven acts (question, answer, emphaziser, precursor, question, expand and answer in turn) and three turns.

The third transaction consists of an exchange (stating only), two moves (initiate and response in turn), five acts (invite, offer, accept, emphaziser and thanks in turn) and two turns.

5. Conclusion and Suggestions

In this study, we have tried to show the importance of the basic features of conversational analysis. It is argued that conversation analysis has made important contributions to the understanding of utterance meaning by showing how a large proportion of the situated significance of utterances can be traced to their surrounding sequential environments.

In this study; we have mentioned that conversational analysis offers an approach to discourse and it is a particular method of studying conversational structure, based on the ethnomethodology. Ethnomethodologists set out to discover what methods people use to participate in and make sense of interaction. Conversation analysis differs from other branches of sociology because rather than analyzing social order, it seeks to discover the methods by which members of a society produce a sense of social order. Conversation is a source of much of our sense of social order, e.g. it produces many of the typifications underlying our notions of social role. Conversation also exhibits its own order and manifests its own sense of structure.

Conversational Analysis is like interactional sociolinguistics in its concern with the problem of social order, and how language both creates and is created by social context. It is also similar to the ethnography of communication in its concern with human knowledge and its belief that no detail of conversation or interaction can be neglected as unimportant. Conversational Analysis provides us its own assumptions, its own

methodology including its own terminology, and its own way of theorizing.

In sum, Conversational Analysis approaches to discourse consider the way participants in talk construct systematic solutions to recurrent organizational problems of conversation. Among the many problems that are solved are opening and closing talk, turn taking, repair, topic management, information receipt, and showing agreement and disagreement. Solutions to such problems are discovered through the close analysis of how participants themselves talk and to what aspects of talk they themselves attend: Conversational Analysis avoids positing any categories (whether social or linguistic) whose relevance for participants themselves is not displayed in what is actually said. Conversation Analysis is a useful method for language learners and language teachers, because language learners can easily understand their mother language and the target language usage by analyzing great number of different conversations by using the features of spoken interaction. This methodology is an excellent addition to Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research because it outlines a way that can empirically illuminate how on-line, socially constructed conversation contributes to the speakers' understanding and use of new language, specifically definitions of new vocabulary.

This approach has some limitations. First of all, the conversation analyzed should be natural; that's, it should be recorded, transcribed and then analyzed. For instance, it should have pause units and tone units. The more natural conversation is, the better language learners understand the features of interaction. So language teachers should use natural conversations so as to explain the approach Conversation Analysis.

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